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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 2, 1896.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S friends were pointing on the following Wednesday and Thursday to popular approval of his war message as its sufficient justification. They have since learned a thing or two about the real popular sentiment of the country, and are now quite ready to drop that argument. But even if the blare of the first week had kept up, it would but have intensified the President's guilt. His vast powers were put in his hands, as Burke said of the war powers of the ministers of the Crown, "as a sacred deposit, to secure us against popular rashness in plunging into wars." Thus the yell of the mob is itself the condemnation of the ruler who evokes it. As Burke adds: "It is no excuse at all for a minister who, at our desire, takes a measure contrary to our safety, that it is our own act. He who does not stay the hand of suicide is guilty of murder." Sir Robert Walpole was forced, against his better judgment, into the war with Spain, in 1739, by popular clamor. That was an immensely popular war. Yet what was the testimony, a few years later, of the men who had excited that clamor and compelled Walpole to go to war?

"None of them," says Burke, "no, not one, did in the least defend the measure, or attempt to justify their conduct. They condemned it as freely as they would have done in commenting upon any proceeding in history in which they were totally unconcerned. Thus it will be. They who stir up the people to improper desires, whether of peace or war, will be condemned by themselves. They who weakly yield to them will be condemned by history."

The anti-war meeting at Cooper Union last week was as large as the great hall could hold, and as enthusiastic for peace and as full of indignation over the war-dance at Washington as it is possible to conceive. Not over 10 per cent. of those present were out of harmony with the speakers. The Jingo press, and especially the *Tribune*, gave mendacious reports of it in order to magnify the numbers of those who came to create a disturbance. They sought to belittle the demonstration, which was here given in an impromptu way, of the Christian spirit and sound sense of New York. This meeting was called suddenly. The hall was not secured until a late hour on Saturday evening. There were no posters and no bands of music. There had been no time to collect a crowd in the usual way. Scarcely any notice of it had been given in the newspapers. Yet the people came in larger numbers than the hall could contain, and they cheered the speakers to the echo, and fairly drowned with applause the few dissenters who came to make a row. The latter were tolerated in a good-natured way, but they ought to have been expelled by the police, and the ringleaders ought to have been lodged in the Tombs. It was not their meeting. They can hold a meeting of their own. They have a perfect right to do so. They had no right to come and disturb Henry George's meeting. Mr. George is entitled to the greatest credit for this demonstration. He hired the hall, obtained the speakers, and procured the little advertising that it had, and himself made a powerful and effective speech in the interest of peace and common sense. The slow coaches of the Chamber of Commerce might well take pattern from him.

Mr. George asked the question, how many of the people knew a month ago where British Guiana was. The answer was an outburst of laughter all over the house, which was equivalent to saying that none of them or very few of them did know. Mr. George frankly acknowledged that, a month ago, he did not know himself. There was no more reason a month ago, or even a week ago, why people should know where British Guiana is, than where Griqualand is, or the Transvaal Republic. How many people know to-day where the Rand gold mines are? The newspapers have teemed with accounts of these mines, and of the "Kaffir circus," for a whole year, yet if a map of Africa were laid before the audience that filled the hall of Cooper Institute, or any other mixed audience, not one in fifty could put their fingers within a thousand miles of the place; and no blame to them for that. Richard Cobden once said that not one in ten of the fellows of Oxford University, if they had a map of the United States before them, could tell where Chicago was, or come within a thousand miles of it, although 25 per cent. of the inhabitants of Great Britain obtained their food from that place. Now, if Mr. George was right in saying that the average American citizen did not know a month ago where British Guiana is, is it likely that he knew whether the Monroe Doctrine applied to it or not? The question answers itself. Mr. Cleveland must have presumed upon this ignorance when he sent in his threatening message. He assumed that people would take his word for it that the Monroe Doctrine was infringed. This they have done to a very large and dangerous extent.

The General of the Army, Nelson A. Miles, made a speech at the New England dinner in Philadelphia on Monday week which is described by those who heard it as a most impressive protest against the barbarity of war. Like most men who have done their fighting in the field, not on paper, he has only words of reprobation for those who are crying, "On to war! Any kind of a war so long as we have a war!" Gen. Miles spoke with great earnestness of the absolute need of a general conviction that a war was just, before the possibility of the American people's going into it or succeeding in it could be thought of. It was a needful warning, too, which he gave the citizens of Philadelphia, with their commerce of $400,000,000 a year, when he reminded them that not a single modern gun stood between them and the sea. Of course, Gen. Miles could say nothing of current war alarms, but his significant plea for peace and moderation, coming from such a source, is most timely and welcome. A fortnight ago, though, the Jingoes would have been clamoring for his instant dismissal.

The South has cut a very creditable figure during the past fortnight. Like every other section, it has suffered from the too frequent lapse of its newspapers into the control of men who have no proper appreciation of the editor's obligation to take a calm view of events, and quiet rather than intensify an unreasoning popular excitement. Then, too, the South has felt a special obligation to manifest its entire readiness to support the national authorities loyally if a crisis should come, in view of the fact that the last time the Federal Government was engaged in war it was with the Southern States. Under these circumstances it was inevitable that there should have been a good deal of wild talk in that part of the country; but a number of the leading editors did not lose their heads, and the tone of the Southern press now compares favorably with that of Northern newspapers. The Charleston *News and Courier*, which has been on the right side throughout, expresses the not unjustifiable opinion that "the good sense and cool judgment displayed by the Southern press in this time of unusual and unnecessary excitement will be of lasting benefit to the South, and contribute vastly to the commercial and industrial development of this part of the country."

The inborn and intense hatred which Americans and Englishmen have for each other has had some curious manifestations during the past ten days. At the very moment that third-term organs of hate, like the *Sun*, were declaring that nothing would be so popular in this country as a war with England, and while the President was being made to believe that nine-tenths of the people were of his mind, the real feelings of sympathy and solidarity between the two nations began to stir, and have led to some of the most remarkable interchanges of international

greetings ever recorded. Messages of peace have passed between churches, chambers of commerce, and trade associations. The appeal from English men of letters to their American brethren to do their best to prevent a civil war in English literature, was perhaps couched in somewhat hysterical terms, but spoke, after all, for a strong and genuine sentiment on both sides of the ocean. It was but an echo of Tennyson's message, an expression of the real continuity of life that still binds this country to England, and a conviction that our best civil life and ideals are due to "that deep chord which Hampden smote."

The reports of the committee on ways and means on the financial situation are as petty as the conduct of both House and Senate in rushing madly at the President's heels when he sent his war scare to Congress. The committee assumes first that the trouble with the finances is a lack of revenue, although the Treasury holds a hundred millions of surplus of the kinds of money it *does not want;* being the very kind that this sapient committee proposes to give it some more of. In order to do this, it proposes a tariff on wool, not to furnish revenue for the Government, but to favor special interests at the expense of the consumers of woollen goods. An increased duty on sugar would really give the Government more revenue if more were needed, as it is not. All the tariff talk is a mere blind. Those who voted for the committee's bill, accordingly, know that its effects, even if it should pass the Senate and be signed by the President, would not be felt in the revenue returns of the Government for a whole year. Moreover, the declared purpose of the bill is to curtail importations. Since revenue is collected from goods which come in, and not from goods which are kept out, the result must be a still further shrinkage of the public receipts. Therefore the tariff bill is a game of false pretences. Probably those who voted for it do not expect that it will become a law.

The debate on the bond bill showed clearly that the Republicans are getting ready to jump on the President with both feet when the terms of the new loan are announced. They say that a 3 per cent. bond can easily be sold at par if offered as "a popular loan." They have fixed that rate in the bill, and have provided that all loans made hereafter shall be negotiated in pursuance of advertisement. Nearly two years ago the Government tried to sell $50,000,000 of bonds for gold in that way. The "popular" part of the loan panned out at something less than two millions. The Government's credit was better then than it is now, yet the loan would have been a total failure had not the bankers come in at the very last day and subscribed for all that was left—that is, for all except the two millions. A popular loan at 3 per cent. now would bring nothing. If the Senate should pass this bill in time, it might be worth while to try the effect of such an advertisement for the purpose of demonstrating its futility. There is not the least probability, however, that the Senate will pass it at all. There was only thirty-four majority for it in the House, and the elements of opposition to it in the Senate are relatively much greater, especially the Republican opposition. This is composed of men who want the country brought to a silver basis or a paper basis. The men who want a depreciated currency are much stronger in the Senate than in the House, and they have the further advantage that there is no rule in the Senate for terminating debate. In this matter the Senate is as badly off as it was in 1893, when the Sherman repeal bill was pending. The situation of the Government, however, is such that it cannot wait. It can hardly wait for ordinary debate. Its demand notes must be met. They must be met, too, in such a way as to give assurance that they will be paid regularly and continuously, since otherwise there will be a panic like that of last February, when gold was drawn largely for private hoarding. The upshot of the whole matter is that the bond bill, as passed by the House, is worthless, but that it will be stopped in the Senate because it is not bad enough. The Government will then resort to the same legislation that it used when the bond-syndicate transaction was made. The rate of interest will be high, corresponding to the needs of the borrower, and then the Republicans will turn all their batteries on the President.

Speaker Reed finds that he, too, has a team of wild horses on his hands, as Mr. Harrison said that President Cleveland would find that he had when the last Congress met. When the Maine man was Speaker before, the Republicans had only a bare majority of the House, and it was simply necessary to decide upon a course of party action in order to bring an irresistible pressure to bear upon any member who was inclined to be recalcitrant. But it is a very different thing to warn a Representative that he must surrender his own convictions or wreck the prospects of the party when he can see that his vote may turn the scales, and to "bring him into line" when there is a Republican majority of over 130 to draw upon. The crack of the party whip even by a czar who had just taken the reins in hand had no effect upon nearly fifty Republican Representatives on Saturday, and the Speaker had a narrow escape from defeat at the very opening of the session.

Mr. Reed suffers seriously now from the lack of that quality which made him so powerful six years ago. Then he was bold to the verge of rashness, and defiant of all opposition in the party ranks. His very audacity made him irresistible, and Republican Representatives who did not agree with him had to support him, however much against their will. But now he is hampered by his Presidential ambition, and his consequent unwillingness to run the risk of offending members who may control the choice of delegates from their districts to the Republican national convention. He wants support from the States that believe in greenbacks and free silver coinage, as well as from those that are outspoken for sound money. Moreover, he knows that McKinley and Harrison have friends and supporters on the Republican side of the House who would like to see him tripped up, and he therefore feels that he must pick his way with great caution. The effect of all this is that the Thomas B. Reed of 1895–'96 is a very different personality from the Thomas B. Reed of 1889–'90, and the indications are that he will be a much less forceful Speaker during this session than he was six years ago, without, however, making up for his losses from this source by an accession of popular confidence on the ground of his conservatism.

The State of Maine has now a record for unbroken service, in one or other branch of Congress, on the part of all of her delegation, which it is safe to say that no other commonwealth has ever equalled in the history of the country. Frye entered the House of Representatives in 1871 and served there continuously until 1881, when he was promoted to the Senate as Blaine's successor, and recently began a term that will end in 1901. At the same time Eugene Hale entered the Senate as Hamlin's successor, and he has been twice re-elected. Mr. Reed entered the House in 1877, and has now entered upon his tenth consecutive term. Mr. Dingley joined him in 1881, and Messrs. Boutelle and Milliken in 1883, and each of these three has been reëlected every two years since he entered. Until 1883 Maine had five Representatives; since then only four. Beginning with 1883 and ending with 1897, the entire delegation in both Senate and House will have gone without a single change for a period of fourteen years. The result is that Maine has carried off an extraordinary proportion of congressional honors: Mr. Reed is Speaker of the House, Mr. Frye is to be President pro tem. of the Senate when the Republicans come into control of the upper branch, Mr. Dingley is chairman of the ways and means committee, and Mr. Boutelle has an important chairmanship.

The new Republican Governor of Kentucky has made a very unfortunate start. After uttering in his inaugural brave and sound words against lynching and in favor of maintaining the laws, his first official act was to pardon, in advance even of his conviction or trial, a man who had been arrested on election day for violation of the law against carrying concealed weapons. Worse still, the object of executive

favor was a man whose occupation makes him a daily violator of the laws—a man engaged in the lottery business, which is a felony in Kentucky. The exercise of the pardoning power in advance of conviction has always been exceedingly rare, and is never justified save in those very exceptional cases where malice or accident or popular feeling has plainly subjected a good citizen to the unmerited odium of an arrest. That it should be used in behalf of a professional lawbreaker, and apparently for political reasons, is disgraceful. That it should save such a law-breaker from even so much as a fine for the offence of carrying a concealed weapon, is a fresh threat to the safety of life in a community where every official is bound to use all his influence against a return to barbarism.

Chief-Justice Snodgrass of the Tennessee Supreme Court is not without defenders. One of them writes to the Nashville *Banner*, which had condemned him for shooting a lawyer who had criticised one of his decisions, to say that "the Judge did exactly right," and that "he could not have done otherwise without disgracing the State and the high position which he occupies." Nor does the *Banner's* correspondent stop with justifying Snodgrass in this particular case. He carries the argument to its logical conclusion, and boldly maintains that it is the lack of Snodgrasses that is ruining the judiciary of this country. Upon this point he says:

> "No man is fit to be on the Supreme bench or hold any other high public trust in this great republic who is not the personification of chivalry and honor, and the trouble with the country now is that there are too many of the white-livered fellows occupying high positions. The degrading crusade against the manhood of the citizen by the white-livered moral censors since the war has well nigh degraded our people."

This is no mere matter of theory. The *Banner's* correspondent appeals to history, and asks the world to "compare the men of that chivalric age that gave birth to our Declaration of Independence and our Constitution with the present generation, and behold the difference." It is well for a degenerate age thus to be reminded how often George Washington used to draw his revolver on any editor who ventured to criticise him, how frequently Thomas Jefferson would leave his desk in the State Department in order to call to account some politician who questioned the purity of his motives, and what a common occurrence it was for Chief-Justice Jay, when he left the Supreme Court room, to shoot down some upstart of a lawyer who had expressed doubt as to his being the greatest jurist in the history of the world.

Ohio has a prison-labor problem for the new Legislature to solve. The last body of lawmakers enacted a statute which restricts the output of convict-made goods to 10 per cent. of the product of the free labor of the State in the same line of manufacture. This law was due to an agitation on the part of workingmen in certain industries, who claimed that they were being ruined by the cheap goods put on the market by contractors for prison labor. It has proved even more effective than was anticipated. The restriction of output to one-tenth of the total product outside of the penitentiary has rendered it impossible for the State to secure enough contracts in any industry to keep the prisoners at work. The result is that 500 men who have been sentenced by the courts to hard labor sit in idleness, and suffer all the demoralizing consequences of inactivity which we have seen under similar circumstances in this State. The frequent recurrence of such a state of things in our penal institutions is a reproach to the modern capacity for government.

The recent strike among the street-car men in Philadelphia has served incidentally to show one advantage of the high-license system that prevails in Pennsylvania. It has always been held that the large sum demanded for the privilege of conducting a saloon not only must incline the holders of licenses to obey the law when its violation threatened so heavy a loss as the withdrawal of the privilege, but also would secure a higher order of men as saloon-keepers than when anybody can get the chance to sell liquor for a petty sum. This theory has been demonstrated to be correct in Philadelphia. Appreciating the danger to the public peace involved in keeping the saloons open evenings while many thousands of idle and desperate men were abroad, the Director of Public Safety requested the holders of licenses to close their places at the end of the afternoon. He could only ask this, not require it, as the law gives no city official the right to close saloons except during the hours required by the State law; and yet the mere request was universally complied with throughout the city. Such action would hardly be possible in a city of low license, and the incident furnishes a fresh argument in favor of demanding a large sum for the privilege of liquor-selling.

The burning issue in the State of Washington week before last was not whether there should be a war with England, but whether a citizen of Tacoma should be allowed to keep a Chinese cook. Some years ago the Chinese were "run out" of the city, and until recently they have understood that their treaty rights did not entitle them to residence in Tacoma. Not long ago, however, a prominent citizen engaged a Chinese cook and another household servant of the same race. The greatest excitement ensued, and a strong element favored driving the two Chinamen out of town immediately. One of the two concluded that the safest plan was to leave of his own accord, but the other stood his ground. It was finally agreed to refer the question whether he should be allowed to remain to the Chamber of Commerce, and "the largest and most representative gathering of business men held in a long time" responded to the call for the meeting. Fortunately for the reputation of the city, after full consideration, a report presented by the trustees of the Chamber was adopted, advising that the Chinese agitation be speedily dropped, and declaring that it has no place in Tacoma; that the city, being a seaport town, is necessarily cosmopolitan, and that all nationalities should be given equal rights in the community. The report held that it was entirely improbable that any considerable number of Chinese would come, and concluded:

> "The members of the Chamber of Commerce pledge themselves here and now, as law-abiding citizens, to sustain and uphold the Mayor of this city in any effort he may be called upon to make to suppress lawlessness or disorder growing out of the agitation of the so-called Chinese question."

Thursday's *Wool and Cotton Reporter* said of the year just closing, that in the wool business 1895 has been "signally eventful," having "broken all previous records in the volume of sales." As compared with 1894, the increase of foreign and domestic wool sold has been 86,000,000 pounds. The year has also been "memorable," adds the *Reporter*, for "an unprecedented development of the worsted industry," and for "some tardy recovery in values of the staple from the depression of two years ago" (McKinley-tariff times). It quotes the prices of several lines of domestic wool to show the advance scored under free wool. If the new Republican wool-tax ever reaches the President, this leading organ of the wool trade and woollen manufacture will furnish him all the reasons he needs to veto it.

War-talk as a partisan trick is something about which the German Conservatives have little to learn. Whenever they find themselves too hard pressed politically, they get up a great row over the army estimates, or navy enlargement, and come out strong in behalf of the fatherland. They are just now trying, by a little diversion of this kind, to rally from the severe check they received in the Reichstag by the defeat of the anti-revolution bill and the loss of prestige involved in the forced resignation of Von Köller, the great lèse-majesté prosecutor. The occasion seized is the proposal to make full battalions out of half-battalions; and as the Reichstag must vote the money required for this increase of the army, a great deal has had to be heard about being "true to the Kaiser from head to foot," protecting the frontiers against the foe, and all that. The thing may succeed, as similar tricks have so many times succeeded, but at least nobody in Germany is imposed upon by it at this time of day.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

ONE of the best passages in Dr. Huntington's sermon on Sunday week was what follows:

"One point, however, it may not be amiss to make, seeing how much talk there is just now of 'Doctrine,' and seeing also that doctrine is a matter well within the lines of the pulpit's liberties. I remark, then, that in all questions where a 'doctrine' is involved, nothing is more important than that we should distinguish between husk and kernel, bark and pith, shell and substance. The letter of the doctrine is one thing, the spirit of it is another. What were the framers of a doctrine driving at when they set it forth, what was the conviction that lay behind their words, what was the end at which they aimed, the thought they labored to express? That is the way in which large-minded theologians look at and interpret the doctrines of religion; would it be amiss on the part of statesmen if they were to scan and sift political doctrine after the same fashion? And if we were to subject to that sort of analysis the particular doctrine which is now so hotly discussed, should we not find the essence of it to be in our resolve that there shall be on this side of the Atlantic no subverting of that form of government which we call free?"

If our politicians had any resemblance to "large-minded theologians," they would of course have sought out the original intention of the framers of the Monroe Doctrine, and have examined it from generation to generation in the light of that intention. Any one who examined it in that light would have found that the kernel and spirit of it was the fear that European monarchies would do what the Spaniards were then trying to do in South and Central America, and what the French tried to do afterwards in 1863 in Mexico—impose governments on the people by the use of foreign force—and that a set of such governments on this continent would then endanger our republican institutions here.

This was a perfectly rational view. The talk of the Holy Alliance, and the invasion of Spain by the French, all lent color to it. Canning believed it, and expressed his belief in a proposal to resist European aggression of this sort in America, in combination with the United States. Had this view been adhered to, the Monroe Doctrine would have become every year of less importance to us, and have received less mention, as we grew stronger and the European Powers more liberal and less aggressive. Since the Monroe Doctrine was propounded, France, which was one of the members of the Holy Alliance, has become a republic; Austria and Germany, other members of it, have become, as has Italy, which they were holding in bondage, parliamentary monarchies. England has become a trading republic in all but in name, and we have risen from a nation of 10,000,000 to one of 70,000,000. The sole attempt ever made since Monroe's time—that in Mexico—ended in most tragical defeat. The death of Maximilian and the overthrow of the French Empire were as solemn warnings against any other attempt to Europeanize any American state as history contains on any subject.

But, strange to say, the more the Monroe Doctrine lost its importance the more eagerly our politicians went to work to "develop it." There is nothing in the history of Christian doctrine which can compare with the unrolling which Mr. Monroe has undergone at the hands of his disciples. Abyssinian Christianity is considered a good way off from the New Testament Gospel, but it is not nearly so far from it as the Monroeism of Olney and Lodge and Chandler, and the general Jingo multitude, from the Monroeism of Monroe. In reading Mr. Olney's despatch the other day, we were, in fact, irresistibly reminded of the things a clever juggler extracts from a hat. First will come a photograph, then some baby-linen, then a flower, then a pair of drawers, and then a sausage, and then an endless ribbon.

Although there has been much hammering out of the doctrine by the newspaper youths and by the politicians, the real work of development did not begin until last year. In the early part of 1895 we were simply lending "good offices" to bring about a settlement of the dispute by mediation, just as Mr. Monroe himself might have done before the birth of the Doctrine; just as any Power might do to-day. The first article that comes out of the hat is an "admitted canon of international law" that any nation may interfere, if it pleases, in any quarrel between any other two nations. To call this a "canon of international law" is almost funny, because it is as old as the Aryan race, being neither more nor less than the right of every nation to go to war if it pleases. The next is a prohibition, directed to European Powers, to make a canal across the Isthmus of Panama. Next a prohibition against Cuba being transferred to any other European Power. Next, inability of the United States to act as mediator jointly with European Powers in a dispute between two American states. Next, that "any permanent political union between a European and American state is unnatural and inexpedient," and that any such union is dangerous to the United States. Next, that the United States and the Spanish American states are by "geographical proximity, natural sympathy, and similarity of governmental constitutions our friends and allies commercially and politically." This is the most marvellous of the developments, and corresponds to the baby-linen in the juggler's hat. Next is the doctrine that if the European Powers were now allowed "to convert American states into provinces or colonies of their own," "the struggle now going on for the acquisition of Africa might be transferred to South America," and the "partition of all South America between the various European Powers" would soon take place. Next, that "suggestions of the friendliness of the European Powers, and their good will towards us, and their dispositions, should they be our neighbors, to dwell with us in peace and harmony," are of no value. All this, Mr. Olney says, is "American public law, founded on principle and abundantly sanctioned by precedent."

Next comes the "development" that the Monroe message, in sanctioning "European colonies or dependencies then existing on this continent," meant, "then existing with their limits then existing," and, of course, that, where the limits were not defined, the American state was to draw the boundary line to please itself, and that the United States might decide in what manner the boundary line should be determined. Next, that strong European states must always submit to arbitration any claim made by weak American states, and that it is the duty and privilege of the United States to chastise the strong states if they refuse. Next, that Great Britain's refusal to arbitrate is injurious "to the interests of the people of the United States, as well as oppressive in itself," and will justify war. After this the last and greatest development of all, that the United States is "sovereign on this continent" and actually rules it, will excite no surprise.

We are sure that Dr. Huntington will agree with us that not only in no one year, but in no one century, of the Christian church, was one-tenth part as much ever got out of any one Christian doctrine by the most industrious theologian as Mr. Olney has got out of the Monroe Doctrine within the present year. What makes the performance all the more extraordinary is, that although the European Powers have never formally accepted the original Monroe Doctrine, they have practically accepted it in its original purity. None of them would now attempt to oppress, or encroach on, or impose a foreign government on, an American state. But they had not accepted it as "a canon of international law," and probably will never be got to do so, any more than the Olney developments. The reason is very simple. Any nation can hold any doctrines it pleases as to its own hopes, aims, or duties in this world, just as a private man can hold what the Catholics call "pious opinions." But if it produces a doctrine that brings it in contact with foreigners, and is to govern its conduct towards them, the doctrine is simply a sort of declaration of war which sleeps until the occasion for its application arises. The doctrine has no place in international law until all other nations agree to it. It owes all its importance to the threat which backs it. If Mr. Olney had any proper conception of what he was arguing about, he might have disposed of the whole matter in half a column. All he need have said to Lord Salisbury was, "If you don't arbitrate that boundary line with Venezuela, we shall go to war with you as soon as we hear from you." His argumentative discussion is really not only contradictory and difficult of comprehension, but unnecessary. As he and the President have left the doctrine to-day, it is simply a challenge to the world to fight the United

States, and has no more law in it than Napoleon's invasion of Russia.

VENEZUELA AS A SISTER REPUBLIC.

It is a remarkable example of the power of words to take the place of ideas that our Government should now revert to the Monroe Doctrine and call upon us to stand by Venezuela, as a republic, against Great Britain—our ally in the previous controversy—as a monarchy. Of course, Venezuela is called a republic, as Great Britain is called a monarchy; but if we go behind the names and consider the facts, what do we find? Are the institutions of Venezuela republican? Is its government popular? It is notorious that in Latin America the majority of the so-called republics are military dictatorships, tempered by periodical revolutions. In the intermediate periods between successive dictatorships their condition is one of anarchy. During the reign of each military tyrant the forms of republican government are observed; elections are held; but the "purity of the ballot" is protected by troops, and the success of the governmental candidates is assured by the show of armed force. During the periods of revolutionary anarchy all traces of republicanism disappear. There is no security for life or property except in the case of foreigners, who are protected by the war-vessels of their respective countries.

Nowhere did Mr. Olney have his eye more off the fact than when, in his horror at the idea of "monarchical" England getting 33,000 more square miles in South America, he enlarged upon "the opposite principle"—"the inalienable right of self-government"—which Venezuela so happily illustrates. Not only by "geographical proximity," but by "natural sympathy" and "similarity of governmental constitution," she is our "friend and ally." How then could we, with our "vital interest in the cause of popular self-government," allow the "subjugation" of this model and sister republic by any European power committed to the "monarchical principle"? Our Secretary, it is true, seems aware that there have been "frequent internal revolutions" in Venezuela, but these are for him only a good reason why she had not more constantly opposed the aggression of Great Britain—not at all an impeachment of her pure republicanism. Yet it needs but a glance at Venezuelan history, a slight acquaintance with the writings of travellers, and a reference to our own diplomatic dealings with Venezuela, to show the true nature of the "popular self-government" in which Mr. Olney displays so vital an interest. Venezuelan independence was not conceded by Spain till 1845. From 1846 to 1870 the country rushed from one revolution into another, stable government of any sort being practically unknown during all that period. From 1870 to 1873 Guzman Blanco was Dictator, and from the latter year on was Dictator under the name of President. He adopted the convenient custom of having himself declared President for four years, then of going as Minister to France and England for four years, leaving one of his creatures in the Presidential chair, and then returning to be President again himself. The present President, Gen. Crespo, got his office by a revolution, held it two years as Dictator, meanwhile confiscating the property of all who had opposed him, and then went through the form of being elected President by a Congress elected by himself.

Venezuelan devotion to the inalienable right of self-government is finely illustrated by events that took place no longer ago than 1892. In that year there was a dispute as to the validity of the title of President Palacio, pending the election of a successor under a new constitution. The opinion of the Supreme Court was invoked. The judges found against the President. He promptly threw all of them into jail—except the ones that ran away. Then the President asked Congress to pass a resolution affirming his title. When it refused to do so, he had it closed by troops, and had all the members who voted against him arrested. Every member of the federal council was also imprisoned. All the newspapers except the Government organ were suppressed. Martial law was declared, and the President issued a proclamation asserting, in the most patriotic terms, his earnest purpose to "safeguard the liberties of the people." He went on to say that, as "guardian of the Constitution and the law," it would be necessary for him to become Dictator, though this did not mean "a personal government, which I in my strict republican convictions abhor." Mr. Olney himself could not be more emphatic on that point.

Venezuela's record as a stanch friend and ally of this country is fully up to her shining example of republicanism. The volumes of our foreign correspondence reveal a succession of embarrassments and embroilments with her Government. Two late instances of her extreme friendliness to us should appeal with especial force to our Republican friends. She rejected the Blaine-McKinley proffer of reciprocity, and did it in offensive terms. Her Congress resolved that, in the first place, they did not want to abate any of their customs duties, and, furthermore, that they did not want to discriminate in favor of the manufacturers of the United States as against those of Europe, with whom they were, and desired to continue, on the best of terms. This from our "natural, commercial, and political ally"!

In 1871 three American steamers were seized by Venezuelan belligerents, and a claim for damages was, in consequence, taken up and pushed by our State Department. Venezuela promised indemnity again and again, but would never pay up. Negotiations dragged along for twenty years till, finally, in 1890, Congress passed a joint resolution "authorizing and empowering the President of the United States to take such measures as in his judgment may be necessary to promptly obtain indemnity from the Venezuelan Government; . . . and to secure this end he is authorized to employ such means or *exercise such power* as may be necessary." This resolution became a law without President Harrison's signature. But oh the difference to Mr. Olney if it had been England and Lord Salisbury proposing such violence against our friend, ally, and sister republic!

In a word, the American Secretary of State's references to Venezuelan republicanism and friendship and English monarchy and hostility have no more to do with the facts than with the planet Jupiter. Hundreds of Americans in the Turkish Empire, many of them from Mr. Olney's own State, pray God every day that England may take Syria or Armenia and give the natives and American residents alike justice, liberty, and protection to life and property. At the same moment the head of their own Government is asserting that if Great Britain should retain English law and representative government over 33,000 square miles in South America, where it now exists, the people of the United States would be compelled to arm themselves to the teeth and rush into a bloody war to undo the outrage.

THE MANOA COMPANY.

The London *Times*, on the very day of receiving the President's war message, spoke significantly of "the American concession-hunters who swarm in Carácas and are responsible for much of the excitement in Venezuela." We have received several letters since the message was sent to Congress, requesting us to look into the matter of the Manoa Oompany, with a view to seeing whether any American capitalists or adventurers were privately interested in getting up a war between this country and Great Britain. An allusion was made in one of Lord Salisbury's despatches to concessions granted by Venezuela in the disputed territory *after* an agreement had been reached by the two governments to treat it as neutral ground pending the negotiation. He used the following language:

"While, however, the Venezuelan Minister constantly stated that the matter was under active consideration, it was found that in the same year a concession had been given by his Government to Gen. Pulgar, which included a large portion of the territory in dispute. This was the third breach by Venezuela of the agreement of 1850.

"Early in 1884, news arrived of a fourth breach by Venezuela of the agreement of 1850 through two different grants, *which covered the whole of the territory in dispute*, and as this was followed by actual attempts to settle on the disputed territory, the British Government could no longer remain inactive.

"Warning was, therefore, given to the Venezuelan Government and to the concessionaires, and a British magistrate was sent into the threatened district to assert the British rights."

Lord Salisbury mentioned no names or

nationalities, any more than he did in his quiet little remark to Mr. Olney, apropos of arbitration, that "the task of insuring compliance with the award when it is made is not exempt from difficulty." It was quite evident, however, that he knew as well who the concessionaries were as he did what country it was that had refused to pay up after the Bering Sea arbitration had gone against it. The Manoa Company may not come to take its place in diplomatic history alongside the Shipherd claims, the Landrau claims, and the Balmaceda nitrate-beds, but it will be just as well to keep an eye on it.

The *Evening Post* of March 8, 1888, printed a letter from a correspondent on the subject of the concession to the Manoa Company, which it now reprints for its present interest. One fact of some importance is, that in 1888 Congressman McAdoo of New Jersey appeared as a champion of the Manoa Company. This individual is now Assistant Secretary of the Navy. An investigation of the volume of official correspondence between the British and Venezuelan governments printed by the latter, at Carácas, in 1887, discloses the following facts: An agreement had been reached in 1850 to consider the disputed territory, for the present, as no-man's land; that is, each party was to keep hands off until a settlement of some kind should be reached. The correspondence was continued in a very amicable tone until 1884, when the fact became known that Venezuela had conceded this very territory to an American concern called the Manoa Company, of which a certain Thomas A. Kelly was acting President, and that Mr. Kelly had taken possession of it to the extent of sending men on it to cut timber and erect a sawmill. It appears, also, that Kelly was invested with some kind of powers as a functionary of Venezuela. When the authorities of British Guiana learned these facts, the Superintendent of Crown Lands and Forests, Mr. McTurk, sent the following letter to Kelly:

"*Thomas A. Kelly, President Manager of Manoa Company:*

"I have the honor to inform you that you are now within the limits of British Guiana, and those of the district under my jurisdiction as one of the special magistrates and superintendents of crown lands and forests of this colony, and therefore you are outside your jurisdiction as a functionary of Venezuela. Whatever notification you should make to the inhabitants will be void, and all persons in this or any part of the colony, or visiting it, will have to conduct themselves in accordance with its laws. I must likewise call your attention to the notifications put upon the trees on the banks of this river as also on the rivers Waini and Barima. These notifications were fixed where they are by order of the Government of British Guiana."

The fixing of these notices was at once complained of by the Venezuelan Government as a violation of the agreement of 1850 to consider the territory neutral for the time being, the grant to the Manoa Company and the partial occupation of it by Kelly being absolutely ignored. Thus, on the 28th of July, 1886, Guzman Blanco, who was then the Venezuelan Minister in London, had the effrontery to write to Lord Rosebery complaining of the placing of the notices in the disputed territory, and even of the letters sent to Kelly by the authorities of British Guiana. Kelly or his underlings promptly removed the notices from the trees on which they were posted and sent them to Carácas. They made so complete a job of it that Mr. McTurk, the officer of British Guiana in charge of the district, could not find one there in April, 1885. Guzman Blanco coolly ignored the infringement of the bargain which was involved in the concession to the Manoa Company.

One of the letters in this correspondence is addressed by the Secretary of British Guiana to C. C. FitzGerald, Phœnix Building, No. 16 Court Street, Brooklyn, N. Y. It is dated October 25, 1884. It acknowledges receipt of documents from FitzGerald which were apparently intended to exhibit the title of the Manoa Company to the territory in question, and it notifies him that anybody trespassing on said territory will be prosecuted according to the laws of the colony. From FitzGerald's communication to the *Evening Post* on Saturday it appears that the Manoa Company, a New York corporation, hitherto unknown, holds a grant from the Venezuelan Government comprising a territory "almost as large as New England." Mr. FitzGerald contends that no part of it is within the limits of British Guiana, because the terms of the grant carry it only "to the limit of British Guiana." The naïveté of this argument is charming when we remember that the boundary line of the two countries has been a matter of dispute for half a century. The assumption of FitzGerald that he and Kelly and the other Manoans know where that boundary runs, while the authorities of British Guiana do not, shows that he holds a clue which the civilized world might give millions to possess. Possessing this secret, the Manoans went boldly forward and "properly removed" the notices posted by the authorities of British Guiana as warnings against trespassers. The trespassing, according to FitzGerald, was on the part of the British Government against "an American company" which, but for this interference with its rights, "would be in full operation to-day, giving employment to thousands of American citizens." Moreover, he tells us that, "thanks to the attitude of President Cleveland, it will now be possible to do business *under the American flag* in Venezuela without fear of future encroachment"; implying that this territory, almost as large as New England, has already been annexed to the United States by the determined action of President Cleveland and in virtue of Mr. Olney's views of the "sovereignty" of this country on the American continent. If this is the case, we shall expect FitzGerald and Kelly to be the first Senators from the State of Manoa, and we are glad to be assured that "they have no Populist or free-silver cranks and have no difficulty in maintaining a solid gold basis." We shall have more facts to present on this subject hereafter. Meanwhile we commend Mr. FitzGerald's letter to public attention in connection with "President Cleveland's attitude" and Olney's arguments on sovereignty, and the unanimous support given to all three by the American Congress.

THE JINGO AND THE MONEY MARKET.

NOTHING was to us more startling in Mr. Cleveland's last two messages than his remark, which we quoted last week, that patriotism was no substitute for a sound currency. Whether this was a conviction which had been forced on him by the events of the past few days, or whether he felt it necessary to remind Congress of it as a great financial truth, makes little difference. He really addressed himself to one of the most remarkable branches of Jingo insanity, namely, that which sees in the fall in the value of securities and the general disturbance of the money market, under the threat of war, the result either of a plot of foreign enemies against the republic or want of patriotism on the part of brokers. The Jingo's state of mind as regards foreign investors is by no means a product of his own experience of human nature. He would never himself think of selling his stocks and bonds at a heavy loss in order to spite some foreign nation. If you proposed to him, for instance, to go down to Wall Street and let his property go at seventy-five or fifty cents on the dollar in order to "bring England to her knees," he would treat it as a merry conceit. But when you suggest that this is what Englishmen are doing to annoy us, he sees nothing wonderful, much less incredible, in it. In fact, in all matters connected with patriotism he is as simple and credulous as a mediæval monk. When you begin to tell him marvellous stories of what the British financiers or the gold-bugs are capable of in the way of plots against America, or against silver or the greenbacks, far from crying, "Oh, come now," or "Hold on there," he says, "Tell me some more; what did they do next?" His view of the Wall Street brokers is somewhat different. Everything bad which occurs in Wall Street he thinks is due to either the timidity or want of patriotism of the brokers. When prices fall, he thinks either the brokers did it, or wickedly let it be done. It would take Dean Swift to deal adequately with the exhortations he addresses to them under these circumstances.

The fact is, that Wall Street is but the dial-plate on which the condition of the business of the country, especially in times of disaster, is recorded. Of course, the machine does not work this way every day; simple speculation often deranges it.

But as a rule, and especially, as we have said, in seasons of depression, Wall Street records either the view which careful observers take of our financial future, or the fears and anxieties or distresses of those whose savings are invested in stocks and bonds of various descriptions. For what the brokers deal in is other people's property. Their action reflects the fears and hopes of these people—generally, in times like this, their fears. In fact, this dial-plate might in days of alarm fairly be called an agony-plate. Thousands sell because they fear prices are going still lower; others, because they fear a stoppage of dividends. But the real misery of a panic is to be found among the multitude who look on in silence, and see the value of of their savings rapidly diminish without any earthly means of preventing it, and who know that their credit and everybody's credit is being affected by it, that their bankers will call for more margin on their loans, or will refuse to make them any loans at all on any security they can offer, or among the dealers who hoped to get their bills renewed and know now that it will be impossible, or among the manufacturers who do not know now where the money for the next pay-day is to come from. So minute, and delicate, and far-reaching, in fact, is the machinery of modern trade and commerce that a general fall of securities in the Stock Exchange is sooner or later felt in every corner of the country and every branch of industry, however humble. Either people find they are no longer trusted as they were, or that they can afford less. In the one case they restrict their producing activity; in the other they restrict their purchases.

There has not been a panic here since 1857 the blame of which foolish people did not lay on "the brokers," and pronounce a "Wall Street flurry," which would be confined to Wall Street and would soon blow over. But not one of them has failed to search out all owners of property in every corner of the land. The waters of calamity flow silently into every creek and inlet, and bring home to everybody who has saved, and everybody who produces anything to sell, full knowledge of what destruction the folly or wickedness of rulers has wrought. Worst of all, the disaster does not pass by as an inundation. Confidence is a plant of slow growth, and confidence means credit, and, if shaken or cut down, it takes a good while to grow up again. Credit is the most wonderful invention of modern civilization. It means the belief of each man in the civilized world that the rest of the civilized world will keep its promises to do certain things on certain days. Of course, in order to build up this belief, a comparatively long period of experience is necessary. It has to be based on the testimony of years as to the ability and willingness of each man's neighbors and customers to do what they said they would do. Even when it is strongest and most secure, it is the most delicate and sensitive of human instruments. The slightest shock impairs it; the slightest sign of calamity or peril makes it melt away; but as long as it lasts it literally moves mountains. The statesman or ruler who does not think of this when shaping his policy or announcing his intentions, is and ought to be anathema. To disturb credit in the modern world without good cause is to declare one's self an enemy of mankind.

America is the one happy country in the world whose workable resources far surpass its disposable capital. We have not a quarter enough capital of our own to develop them. We are, therefore, compelled as a condition of material progress to get all we can from Europe. In sending her millions of emigrants here, she has also to send the money to employ them. Any one, therefore, who arrests this flow of European capital, or who frightens it away, is as much an enemy of the country as the invader who should block our railroads, trample down our wheat fields, and close our mines. Let him also be anathema. There is a class of Jingoes among us who have been and are to-day the curse of the Old World and a blot on our civilization, who maintain that the poor man ought to be glad to be out of work and see his children starving if his wages can be used in slaughtering the natives of some other country in defence of something which a small knot of gentlemen at the national capital choose to consider the "national honor." To hear much of the current talk which precedes a war, one would imagine that "national honor" was something that we could handle, taste, or cut in slices, whereas in nine cases out of ten it is nothing but a notion of the Bill Chandlers or Cabot Lodges, to which no one would listen for a moment if it related to his private affairs. Most wars originate in some concoction of a not very respectable brain. Hundreds of thousands perish that some stupid or wicked politician may be glorified.

THE COMMISSION.

On the 17th of December last the President sent in a message to Congress containing the following passage apropos of the Venezuela boundary:

"In order that such an examination should be prosecuted in a thorough and satisfactory manner, I suggest that the Congress make an adequate appropriation for the expenses of a commission to be appointed by the Executive, who shall make the necessary investigation and report upon the matter with the least possible delay. When such report is made and accepted, it will, in my opinion, be the duty of the United States to resist by every means in its power, as a wilful aggression upon its rights and interests, the appropriation by Great Britain of any lands, or the exercise of governmental jurisdiction over any territory, which, after investigation, we have determined of right belong to Venezuela."

And he added:

"In making these recommendations I am fully alive to the responsibility incurred, and keenly realize all the consequences that may follow."

This is as plain a declaration that war will follow the occurrence of certain contingencies as has ever been made by a ruler. It is a proposal to trace the boundary line between Great Britain and Venezuela, with or without British coöperation, and impose our finding on Great Britain by force. On its face it leaves Great Britain only one alternative, acceptance of a condition cast in the most insulting form, or war. Congress acted promptly on the President's suggestion, and passed the following act practically without discussion:

"Be it enacted by the Senate and the House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, that the sum of $100,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, be and the same is hereby appropriated for the expenses of a commission to be appointed by the President to investigate and report upon the true divisional line between the republic of Venezuela and British Guiana."

This is authority to the President to do what he proposed to do in the message, without modification.

As soon as this message was made public there was something like a panic in the money markets, and American securities were sold out in great quantities, and the business men, clergy, and professors, and thinking persons generally made a great outcry. The noisy Jingoes were frightened by the effect of their uproar on the finances, and ceased their applause of the President and ceased to talk of war as imminent. The word was passed around that "there would be no war"—some said because Great Britain would not fight, and others because "we should get out of it in some way"; and offers of service in the field ceased to come in.

Quiet having been in a measure restored on both sides of the water, the Jingoes and demi-Jingoes have, within a few days, begun to pick up courage, and to maintain that although "there will be no war," the President was right, etc. One of the most marked characteristics of the Jingo is that he lives in a fool's paradise, and he is consequently always astonished by the natural and inevitable consequences of his own folly. The only opinion he ever pays much attention to is that of his brother Jingoes. The world outside does not exist for him. In our belief he is now entering another period of false security, probably to be followed by another rude awakening, and we believe it for reasons that are not far to seek. In the first place, the President's message is a standing and very insulting threat to a first-class Power, which Lord Salisbury can overlook or pass over in silence as long as nothing is done under it. He may even ignore the creation of the Commission and ignore its work. But it is impossible that Great Britain will appear before it, or even furnish it with evidence, as long as the terms of its appointment remain unchanged. No ministry would dare to face the House of Commons which allowed a foreign Power to trace a boundary for it, under a threat, in territory which did not belong to the threatener. Conse-

quently, unless we write another polite and therefore humiliating despatch abandoning the position taken in the message, the Commission will have before it only the mess of lies and braggadocio with which half-civilized States like Venezuela usually carry on controversies. If its members are first-class men, fit for such work, they will refuse to make any finding under such conditions. Supposing, however, they go on and decide that the British line is the correct one, the reflection on the President and Mr. Olney, and on the people who have been backing them up in this quarrel, ought to be too severe to be borne; and we trust it will be followed by a period of moral anguish such as is known only to the repentant sinner.

But supposing the Commission finds that Great Britain has been encroaching on Venezuela, and that the Venezuelan line is the true one, then we shall be bound, under the message, to fight Great Britain in all parts of the world, and to offer up our seaboard cities, our foreign and coasting trade, our customs revenue, and our currency as a sacrifice to Crespo, his cabinet, and his concessionaires, besides tens of thousands of lives, and to sow the seeds of fresh and endless international hates and animosities. Now we wish to warn the Jingoes, demi-Jingoes, and business men of the community, that they must not be talked into false security because the Jingoes have stopped "hollering," and are now shouting that "there will be no war." As long as this Commission exists, with the functions and consequences defined in the President's message, it will act as a cloud on the relations of the two countries, and as more than a cloud on the money market. There will be no return of confidence as long as it is at work, because the things dependent on its decision are too serious. If, however, experience—even their own—had any influence on Jingoes, we should remind them that they were all ready in 1892 to kill Chilians and bombard their cities for an offence which was disposed of by a few words of written apology. But suppose the Chilians had proposed on behalf of Great Britain to come up and trace the Alaskan boundary for us, and to compel us to arbitrate it with a threat of force, would a few words of apology have disposed of the matter? Why, even the Presbyterian Elder who at that time filled the Presidential chair would have taken the field in person.

Human nature in Great Britain is much what it is here. Our diplomacy is carried on so much by persons who are not trained in the use of diplomatic phrases and methods, and is so often mixed up with domestic politics, that European diplomatists usually pass by without notice expressions which between European nations would be considered highly offensive. What is peculiar about the present situation is that Messrs. Cleveland and Olney have, for the first time since 1812, injected into an international controversy what the diplomatists call a "mise en demeure," or a peremptory requisition to do a certain thing by a certain day or take the consequences. This is something which the diplomatists of the Old World avoid till the last moment—that is, until they have determined on war, and are quite ready for it. A European diplomatist who should resort to it with a first-class Power, and then keep saying, "Oh, there will be no war," would be run out of the country like Louis Napoleon or Émile Ollivier, and he would be served right. Nothing is more demoralizing to man or nation than the habitual use of empty threats. If the Jingoes want to preserve the respect of mankind, they will now face the consequences of their own conduct like men. They must not continue to applaud the President and at the same time assure us that there is no danger of war. As long as their Commission is in the field, there is danger of war which no prudent business man will overlook. The situation is too serious for any more jocose lying and "hollering." It ought to be faced with calm, and mended, if it can be mended now, before we have waded too far ever to go back. An explanatory despatch of some kind could still set matters right.

A DOOMSDAY BOOK DOOMED.

ITALY, December 11, 1895.

THE year 1895 seemed destined to close peacefully for Italy. With a large majority for the ministry, a decided disinclination to rake up old grievances or to exhume decayed scandals, a languid interest in the social reforms proposed for poor Sicily, a cheerful assent to the prolongation of the extra-legal coercion laws, approval of such ecclesiastical policy as shall prevent the Pope from infringing on the civil power, confidence that in Africa Baratieri will hold his own against Negus, Ras and Mahdists, satisfaction that the Italian fleet takes its place with England for the restraint of the unspeakable Turk—there seemed no cause that could produce excitement, still less agitation, in the country during the winter, which promises to be a most rigid one. But, on the 25th of November, when the Minister of the Treasury made his annual statement in the curt, dry manner which is Sonnino's own, he announced that the *catasto*, or stock-taking of the quantity, nature, and value of land in Italy, with the names of the present proprietors thereof, must be suspended, as 182,000,000 lire would be needed to complete it during the next thirty years, and, when completed, it would not answer any of the objects for which it was originally designed. Had a bomb fallen into each city, town, and village of northern and central Italy, the alarm could not have been greater or more general, and yet Sonnino had only expressed the private belief of a large portion of the Italians who have watched the process of compiling a new Doomsday Book ever since it commenced in 1886. That it is necessary to ascertain the amount and quality of land held by individuals, for the purposes of taxation and for adjusting its incidence, all admit theoretically, and the "how to do it" has been a moot question ever since Italy agitated and revolted in order to secure an independent national existence. In 1848 the Ligurians demanded a revision of the land-tax, and in 1860 the Lombards strenuously insisted on being delivered from the enormous burdens laid on the land by their Austrian oppressors; Venetia joining in the demand as soon as the Austrians quitted her territory. The exhaustive Agrarian inquiry initiated by Bertani, and carried out *con amore* by individuals qualified for the task, proved the inequality of the taxes paid not only in the different provinces, but also in different, though adjacent, communes of the same province.

The system of land surveys is as old as the hills in Italy. Servius Tullus introduced it into Rome, Gelon into Syracuse. Ulpian has handed down a fragment of the old Roman Doomsday Book where the size of an estate, its product and value, are recorded on the reports of the proprietors. When Italy was united, it was found that there were twenty-two registers compiled for the purposes of taxation, all different. The survey of the Milanese territory was made more than a hundred years ago; it shows the state of culture at that time, and the land-tax has been imposed from then till now on the data then furnished. The others were made for the most part at the commencement of the century, the latest thirty years ago. Still, half the surface of the country remains without a land survey of any kind. As the 25th article of the Constitution ordains that "all citizens shall contribute to the maintenance of the state in proportion to their property (real or personal)," Minghetti opined that no new tax could be equitably laid, or existing tax increased, until the land-tax had been equalized throughout the new kingdom. In 1860 the minister Vegezzi formally pledged the Government to adjust the incidence of land imposts in the following year, and in 1861 a commission was nominated to apply the speediest and most economical methods of ascertaining the value of the land and to equalize taxation. Various bills were presented, but the war of 1866 and the agitation for Rome during the following years prevented the completion of any such projects.

After the entry into Rome, Cambray-Digny and Sella applied themselves to the task; new bills were presented and all were shelved. When the Left came to power, the "perequazione" (equalization of the land-tax) formed a prominent feature of Depretis's Stradella programme. He proposed that the state, and not the communes, should bear the burden of the surveys. The examination, per province, of the taxes levied on land brought to light the enormous disproportion of the burdens; *e. g.*, the province of Leghorn paid .82 lire per head; Cremona 10.99, Lodi 11.99. The produce of the tax per hectare proves little, but when you come to the rate for every 100 lire of income derived from land, the glaring injustice is evident. The Sardinians paid 18.76, Venetian Lombardy 44.27, Sicily 17.12, the Modenese 79.29! At last, in 1885-'6, when Depretis and Magliani, who seemed to think Italy's pecuniary resources inexhaustible, and who framed the colossal railway network which has nearly suffocated the people in its meshes, were masters of the two houses, a law for the reorganization of the land-tax passed the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate and received the King's sanction. Throughout the kingdom a uniform cadastral estimative *catasto*, showing the quantity and quality, measure and value of every portion of land held, was to be made to ascertain the real estate and to equalize the land-tax; the property of each commune and of every individual was to

be shown on separate maps. A special department dependent on the Finance Minister created technical and judicial commissions, and instituted central and provincial commissions; a regular hierarchy set to work on a task to which that of Sisyphus was a trifle. In valuing the land, no account was to be taken of special culture or high farming, or of partial or total neglect. The value of the land was to be estimated according to its actual production, each product being rated at its minimum price during three years between 1874 and 1885, and the difference between specie and paper money being taken into account. The revision of the land-tax was to take effect in thirty years. The provinces were to pay the expenses of the technical boards and of the provincial commissions, to furnish house-room, furniture, and fuel for the necessary offices; the communes to pay the cost of measuring and defining the boundaries of their respective territories, and to pay their local officers and agents for the publication and notifications necessary; the proprietors to pay the cost of measuring and defining the boundaries of their several estates. All the other expenses were to be borne by the Government. Such were the chief features of the famous bill, the framers not hesitating to fix 7 per cent. as the land tax to be levied on the net income derived. It was provided that any province wishing to accelerate the operations and advancing half the expenses, should be allowed to do so, and, if the task was completed in seven years, should be allowed to apply the 7 per cent. rate provisionally. The Government would reimburse the provinces for their advances.

The debate on the bill was serious and animated. Venetian Lombardy, Modena, and other heavily taxed territories instructed their Deputies to support it, and at once demanded accelerated operations; but the opposition of the lightly taxed provinces was strong and cogent. Perfectly impartial persons maintained that while a land survey was necessary to ascertain the actual quantity under cultivation and the incidence of taxation, it was imprudent then and there to fix the rate to be applied. Agriculture, especially in Sicily and some of the Neapolitan provinces, was progressing; the low price of wheat, the enormous competition of America and Russia in those days when protection was heresy, had led many proprietors and even peasant farmers to plough up their fields and plant vines, especially when the phylloxera had destroyed so large a portion of the French vineyards, and the treaty of commerce with France was so favorable. Others declaimed against the injustice of estimating the value of the land by the actual produce, so that a landowner who had spent time, money, and intelligence in draining, manuring, and tilling his land would be highly taxed, whereas absentee owners of latifundia, or feckless farmers who had let their land run to waste and neglected its culture altogether, would come off lightly in direct ratio to their negligence. The members of the advanced Left opposed the whole project on financial grounds. Cairoli, Baccarini, and Crispi demonstrated that the bill as it stood would entail on the country hundreds of millions, and would occupy half a century, so that when the object was attained, when the quantity of land possessed by each individual with its net income in 1886 should be ascertained, such would be the transformation of agriculture—owing to scientific culture, amelioration of agricultural appliances, the variations in the nature and demand of foreign markets—that the rate of taxation paid in 1886 would be unjust and insupportable in the next century. The Marquis di Rudini, a large landowner of Sicily, then a pillar of the moderate church, joined in with the dissenters, prophesying that instead of equalizing the burdens the bill would double the inequalities, and produce a fatal regional agitation between the northern and southern provinces.

Crispi, on December 7, 1885, demonstrated the fallacy of the estimative *catasto*, admitting the wisdom of "taking stock of the true state of the great factor, land." The estimative operations, he said, will not result in equalizing the land tax, and, reviving painful memories, will arouse such distrust in the country as will prevent their being brought to a successful conclusion. The estimates as to the productive value of land will always be hypothetical, will never be able to fix the actual income subject to taxation; and when the operations are concluded, the real income from land will differ essentially from the official estimates. He returned to the charge in January, 1886:

"If, letting the value of produce and the estimate of income alone, confining yourselves to a cadastral survey of the land, you ascertain the amount of cultivable soil and the present owners thereof, you will have data which will enable you to arrive by other methods at an approximate system of equable taxation."

So ardent was the discussion that a yea-and-nay vote was insisted on, the Opposition being determined that their hostility to the bill should pass down to posterity. The majority voted for the Depretis-Magliani bill; the chief Liberals voted for Crispi's amendment. Operations were commenced with alacrity, and millions have been lavished during the last nine years. The project was modified in 1894, but it was clearly seen that the wheels were clogged and the machine would not work. Sonnino, on the 25th of November, quietly observed that, without taking into account the expenses devolving on the provinces and the communes, the state would have to spend 182 millions more, provided the work continued at its present slow rate, whereas the transformation of agriculture is so great that the estimates of 1886 no longer apply, so that the whole work ought to be accelerated to avoid further injustice. This the finances of the country do not permit. More than 7 millions have to be repaid to the provinces which have accelerated the cadastral survey; other 10½ millions for the estimates of value. The application of the fixed rate of 7 per cent. already reduces the land tax by more than 10 millions; *ergo*, increased expense, decreased income. Can we, he asks, continue on this perilous path? In some provinces the reform of the land tax will be effected in a few years; in others, thirty or thirty-five years may pass before it can be completed.

"Already," he continued, "the agricultural conditions of the country are transformed; the vine culture is in a deplorable state, owing to the cessation of the French market; wheat is again grown on a large scale, owing to the protective duties on foreign grain. Moreover, in the application of the law of 1886 intrusted to local bodies, the estimates presented by neighboring provinces are so diverse that it is evident they are neither true nor just. We must halt while there is yet time on this path that leads to ruin. The Minister of Finance will present a bill for the continuation of the cadastral survey, for the cessation of the estimative *catasto*, for the reimbursement to the provinces of the sums expended with 5 per cent. interest from the date of the advances. These sums amount to fourteen millions, the interest to two millions, which will be paid in seven years. The annual sum of three millions will be set aside for the cadastral survey; no term for its completion can be fixed."

Boselli, Minister of Finance, presented the draft of his bill in conformity with the speech of his colleague of the Treasury. Its provisions are, that the cadastral survey shall be completed first in the provinces which demand acceleration in the proceedings; in the Modenese territory the provinces will not be called upon to advance further sums, but will be repaid for all outlays in the past—the land tax to remain at its present incidence until another bill for estimating the actual value of product and the net income derived from it shall become law. All estimative valuations are to cease; those already made to have no immediate effect.

The sudden, violent agitation produced by this bomb raged for about a week, threatening to sunder the ministerial majority. Out of the nine offices, or committees, whose duty it is to examine ministerial or private bills, six rejected it *in toto*. The *Economista* of Florence had a furious article on the "iniquitous project." But already the agitation is calming down, and to this have contributed not a little some of the few survivors of the old Radical party, who have ever sought the true interests of the country, and not their own aggrandizement.

The suggestions for arriving by economical and expeditious methods at a general idea of the land-tax now paid on every 100 lire of net income are numerous. Two seem to us rational, if not original. G. B. of Ravenna proposes that the Government fix the sum to be exacted from the land in the form of a tax, nominate a commission to apportion the quota among the various agrarian regions, taking its data from the reports of the Agrarian inquiry; then, that the provincial and communal authorities proceed to the distribution of the sum total among the landed proprietors within the given districts, who must supply the details of their net income. The writer is of opinion that the work can be accomplished in two years. At present all the collectors of the land-tax have an approximate roll of the actual incomes of each landowner, which they take care to rectify if understated, so that to apportion the contribution of each with a view to make up the sum total does not seem an impossible achievement. Deputy Canzi, well versed in agricultural matters, who from the first opposed the estimative valuation, proposes to base the land-tax on the declarations of the respective landowners, after due examination and rectification. The venerable patriot Gabriele Rosa approves this proposal. The *Sole*, the best Milanese commercial and industrial newspaper, says that this system is gradually gaining the approval of landowners in Venetian Lombardy. Meanwhile, the parliamentary commission, with Luigi Luzzatti for President, is in daily communication with Sonnino and Boselli, whose latest proposals are to repay the sums advanced, to lessen by two millions the land-tax at present paid by the provinces which accepted the accelerated survey, to augment by 50 centimes the duty on the importations of foreign grain. As yet the ministers and the commission have not come to terms; but it is certain that Sonnino will resign rather than recede from his abolition bill, nor do we believe that any other ministers of the Treasury or of finance could be found who would dare to burden the country with the payment of 130 unproductive millions. The debate on the bill by the Chamber of Deputies will scarcely be entered on during the present year. J. W. M.

THE THOMAS PAINE EXHIBITION IN LONDON.

LONDON, December 17, 1895.

IN following for five years the thread of Thomas Paine's life I found so many interesting relics strung on it, even through efforts to snap the thread as well as others to weave with it, that the idea of an exhibition occurred to me. After due consultation with men well informed in such studies—such as Edward Smith (biographer of Cobbett), Clair J. Grece, LL.D., George Jacob Holyoake, G. Julian Harney, Edward Truelove—a good working committee was formed and the exhibition occurred in South Place Chapel last week. It was successful beyond our expectations, the catalogue enumerating 485 exhibits and really representing more than 600; many tokens, manuscripts, etc., being included under one or another single label. In the evenings the exhibition took the form of a soirée; there were addresses from eminent men, and songs of the old period, some composed by Paine, were sung. Among the exhibitors were some eminent Conservatives; and among the exhibits were pamphlets, caricatures, and tokens hostile to Paine. On entering, there was seen on the platform Vago's large bust of Paine, and on either side death-masks of the chief antagonists, Burke and Paine. The fifty years extending from the publication of 'Common Sense' in 1776 to the last imprisonments for selling the 'Age of Reason' was represented by portraits of warriors whose swords were unsheathed to establish or to resist the 'Rights of Man,' and of writers whose pens were unsheathed for or against the 'Age of Reason.' The aim of the exhibition was purely historical, and entirely without any purpose of propagandism. It was recognized by all parties as a striking illustration of the distance England has travelled from the terrors and intolerance of the Georgian era. Survivals of ancient prejudices are so few that out of fifty exhibitors only one, in a remote corner of Cumberland, asked to be anonymous, "not knowing how far the arm of bigotry may reach," and we tried in vain to get a contemporary tract against Paine. After the exhibition was over, a dingy leaflet was sent, not as a curiosity but for pious admonition to those in danger of believing with "Paine and other Infidels that there is NO GOD," the rest of the single page being occupied with arguments for the divine existence, of which every one is taken from Paine's 'Discourse on the Existence of God.' Such are the microscopic remnants of a period when the attempt to hold any such display as this of last week would have ended in the whole crowd finding accommodation in Newgate.

South Place Chapel was a good point from which to get historical perspective of the hundred years' history. In 1795 the Society's founder, Rev. Elhanan Winchester, replied to Paine's 'Age of Reason,' but politely; in 1796 his ministerial successor wrote an introduction to Winchester's reply, but made a large concession to Paine's position; in 1819 Vidler's successor, W. J. Fox, denounced the imprisonment of Carlile for selling the 'Age of Reason' (the only minister who did so); and now the Society built up by those men has given an exhibition which displays them all, agitators and antagonists, prisoners and imprisoners, as performers in a drama now memorable as an experience and an instruction in the laws of political and ethical evolution.

The literary exhibition was large. Except that there was no first edition of Paine's pamphlet 'Dissertations on Government, the Affairs of the Bank, and Paper Money' (Philadelphia, 1786), and only the second 'Crisis' (original), which was given me by Mr. Horace White of New York, all of Paine's first editions were exhibited. There was a sermon on the Existence of Deity, headed with a text and ending with a prayer, made up with slight alterations from the 'Age of Reason' (Paine's name removed, of course), which was circulated in England as a religious tract at the very time that booksellers were in prison for selling the book with Paine's name on it. Another tract is made out of his address to the Theophilanthropists in Paris (1797), with nothing removed but the names of the society and Paine. The many answers to Paine (Watson, Wakefield, Tytler, Levi, Priestley, and a score of others) showed that the 'Age of Reason' was taken very seriously by the scholars and scientists of his time. Among the autographs was a letter of Paine's describing his being shot at in his house at New Rochelle (exhibited by Dr. Grece), and a number (including the memorial to Monroe written in Luxembourg prison) exhibited by Mr. Alfred Morrison, whose collection is of almost corresponding value in European history to that of Mr. W. F. Havemeyer of New York in Americana. A very interesting letter was exhibited by our anonymous "Friend," written to his grandfather (England) by the widow of Elihu Palmer, under date, "New York, Sept. 3, 1806." After speaking of her husband's sudden death, she says:

"Of course, I am left poor indeed. I have been exceedingly distressed for the means of living. I had to sell my furniture to pay my rent the first of May, was in very bad health, and really tired of my life. But my prospects and condition are now altered for the better. Mr. Thomas Paine had a fit of apoplexy on the 27th of last July, and as soon as he recovered his senses he sent for me, and I have been with him ever since. And I expect if I outlive him to be heir to part of his property. He says I must never leave him while he lives. He is now comfortable, but so lame he cannot walk nor get into bed without the help of two men. He stays at Mr. Carver's. Mr. Paine sends his best respects to you and all your family."

This was written to Robert Taylor of Manchester, and with it was shown a silhouette of Paine, no doubt sent by Mrs. Palmer, as it is in the same paper frame with one of her husband. It represents Paine in extreme age, and shows the great length of his head. The portrait of Palmer is the original (colored) of that engraved in Fellows's sketch of his life, along with Palmer's 'Principles of Nature.' He holds a staff, used after he became blind, and over the picture is engraved a quatrain, of which I could make out only two lines:

"Though shades and darkness cloud his visual ray,
The mind unclouded feels no loss of day;
In Reason's ——"

Eleven different portraits of Paine were shown (one on a tea-tray with Washington, Franklin, a printing-press, and an eagle), and a large screen was covered with portraits of his friends and opponents in America, England, and France, Franklin and Lafayette being well represented, through the assistance of Mr. B. F. Stevens. Manchester College, Oxford, loaned Price and Priestley, and their librarian, Miss Toulmin Smith, a fine portrait of Gilbert Wakefield, who, in his reply to Paine, paid a warm tribute to his personal character. Mr. Henry Willett of Arnold House, whose collection of pottery is deposited in the Brighton Museum, sent interesting specimens of political pottery, among them a quart jug with a flattering figure of Paine on one side, and on the other (in allusion to Burke's phrase, "the swinish multitude") Paine as one of a herd of swine to which he says:

"Ye pigs that never went to college,
You must not pass for pigs of knowledge."

A large number of political coin-tokens were exhibited by Mr. Edward Snelling, and still more by Mr. A. W. Waters, a young butcher in Old Kent Road, who is one of the most learned men in London in historical tokens. These coins (pence, halfpence, farthings) were struck by private persons, the Government not issuing enough for trade needs. Under George II. and III. no copper coin was issued between 1754 and 1770, or between 1775 and 1797. During the latter interval these coins were utilized as political tokens, some showing Paine on the gibbet, others Pitt in the same predicament. The Federalist cry in America of "the two Toms" (Paine and Jefferson) seems to have been borrowed from "the three Toms" of some of these tokens. These were Tom Paine, Tom Spence (a Radical bookseller who coined anti-Tory tokens), and Sir Thomas More. It appears to me so curious that the Tories of Paine's time should go back to the early sixteenth century for a typical rebel against royalty, that I incline to believe their third "Tom" was an Anglicized rendering of Thomas Muir. Muir was an Edinburgh barrister who, when the French Convention was formed, and before the Reign of Terror, got up in Edinburgh a convention in imitation of it (but opened with prayer). He was banished for fourteen years, but escaped from Botany Bay and found his way to Paine (in Paris), who helped to support him.

There were photographs of Paine's birth-house in Thetford, of his residence in Lewes, and of his house in New Rochelle. There was also a photograph of No. 7 Upper Marylebone Street, London, which has been identified by the vestry clerk of Marylebone as the house in which Paine resided with his friend and publisher, "Clio" Rickman, in 1792. This house is unchanged; the old bookshelves are still in the walls, and the bookbinding part of Rickman's business has steadily continued in it, there having been, I believe, only one binder (Howe) between Rickman and the present aged Mr. Thomas. Thirty of the first editions which I exhibited, mostly of Paine's works, were bound in this house, where many of them were originally printed, and where several of them were written. The venerable bookseller, Edward Truelove, recently retired from business, brought to the exhibition a little mahogany table, in the centre of which was the following: "This Plate is inscribed by Thomas Clio Rickman in Remembrance of his dear Friend, Thomas Paine, who on this table, in the year 1792, wrote several of his invaluable Works." This table, of which an engraving with other articles of the exhibition appears in the *Sketch* of last week, seemed to bring us very close to Paine in England, while the Diaries of John Hall, who resided with Paine at Bordentown, brought us entries of his daily life in America. (These were sent by Dr. Dutton Steele of Philadelphia, Hall's relative.)

Amid all these things was a little dried substance shown under glass by Mr. Louis Breeze, beside it a little certificate of authenticity from B. Tilly, William Cobbett's secretary. It is a part of Paine's brain. This bit of the "imperial Cæsar" of last-century radicalism, "dead and turned to clay," quaint relic of that brain whose every word a hundred years ago made thrones tremble, stirred one of the speakers (Allanson Picton, ex-M. P.) to eloquence.

But I must remember the importance of your space to the latter part of the nineteenth cen-

tury, and not ask your readers to ramble with me farther among these relics of the eighteenth century, even though under the breath of intelligence these dry bones regain life and significance in the present time.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

Correspondence.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your excellent issue of December 19 you say:

"For what do obedience to the law and reliance on the law mean if not the surrender of one's own will, the concession to others of the power of deciding disputes in which one knows one is right?"

Very true; and at this particular juncture many people will apply it to Lord Salisbury's refusal to submit his case to the decision of others, even though he may be absolutely sure that within the Schomburgk line he is clearly within his irrefutable rights. True, he is not herein amenable to courts that can enforce their decrees; but there is the forum of enlightened and Christian opinion, which we trust will make war more and more impossible between civilized countries. I am not arguing that he ought to have submitted the matter to arbitration—especially to a nation that came at him with bristles up—but your weighty sentence will be applied to this case by very many of your readers.

As to the President's motives. Has he not shown his sturdy integrity and unfaltering courage too often for us to assume that all this was done as a political scheme for a renomination? Has he not deserved too well of the republic to be arraigned on such a terrible charge? It seems to me that he has. And while very many of his enthusiastic admirers have to cut loose from him now on this policy, we need not go to the extreme of accusing him of a crime so heinous.

The best we can say for him is bad enough; but that need go no further than to dissent from and strenuously oppose his new doctrine. The writer had sincerely hoped to vote for him as our next President; but all that is gone now. Moreover, he has, I take it, lost the support of the *Herald;* for it can hardly continue to favor his renomination after saying in its editorial of Friday, December 20, that the Monroe Doctrine applies to the present case only by the most "mischievous and violent stretching."—Yours respectfully,

SOUTHERNER.

[There can, in international dealings, be no obedience to a law which does not exist, and the nations have never yet agreed to formulate the cases in which they will rely on arbitration to the exclusion of the very thought of war. To promote such an agreement in the existing state of civilization, efforts to secure arbitration in any given instance must be limited to friendly advice with purely moral insistence. No nation, by its behavior after arbitration had imposed definite obligations upon it, has more disqualified itself for thus helping on the cause of arbitration than has the United States; and this is what makes the present situation a tragi-comedy.

Mr. Cleveland's motives we leave for time to reveal. His political opponents in Congress notoriously regarded his action as a partisan manœuvre, which they could foil only by rushing madly to the support of it. In other words, the Republican Congress, like the nation at large, did not really want war with England. This explanation, strange to say, does something to redeem the national character. But then, what did Mr. Cleveland really want? Was it war buncombe which the House is now following up with tariff-for-revenue buncombe?—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although I esteem the *Nation* very much, I cannot refrain from telling you that your paper, in my opinion, has done more to necessitate a war with England than all our Jingoes combined.

The influence of the *Nation* is far greater in England than in this country. Being read exclusively by very intelligent and highly educated people, the English statesmen are compelled to presume that the opinions and judgments published by it are those held by the American people. For, in England, the classes of society corresponding to the circle of your readers control the Government. They will, therefore, think that all steps taken by the American Government, the message of Cleveland, etc., concerning the Venezuelan controversy are but campaign tricks, especially as they are used to similar manœuvres in their own elections. Consequently, they will treat the demands of the United States in such a way as suddenly to be confronted with the necessity either of sacrificing their personal and national honor and prestige or going to war.

As a matter of fact, as soon as the question of war—and of war against England—arises, you are perfectly powerless. Since we have waged, during the first century of our national existence, four wars, our history is a history of war. Young America leaves school and enters life with two impressions, that England is our hereditary foe, and that the greatest thing a man can do is to fight for one's country. Besides, a very considerable portion of our people, almost one-third, is of Irish descent and looks upon a war with England as a holy war. The greatest inducement, however, is that war brings not only honor, but also pensions. For these reasons more than nine-tenths of all Americans, women included, will seize with the greatest enthusiasm the first pretext for a war against England.

We may be sorry for this state of affairs, but we have to recognize it if we try to preserve peace. Whoever strengthens and confirms Great Britain in her resistance to fair and just demands on the part of the United States unchains the dogs of war.

In the Venezuelan controversy you not only represented the people of the United States as a peace-loving nation, but also did everything to convince the Englishmen of the justice of their claims against Venezuela. They must say: "Why should we submit to arbitration? All intelligent Americans are with us. They tell us that, even if the land occupied by us originally belonged to Venezuela and not to us, we nevertheless ought to hold it, because we enjoy a higher state of civilization than the Venezuelans." That such presumptions and ideas will not render the British statesmen more fair and engaging in their responses to the notes of our Government goes without saying. As a kind of umpire you might have shown from the beginning the weakness and the danger of the English position. By weakness I mean the apparent injustice in their dealings with Venezuela. The danger consists in the awakening of the war spirit in America—for it is certain that England in such a war has nothing to gain, but much to lose.

Yours respectfully, WM. WEBER.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., December 24, 1895.

[We commend our correspondent's portrait of the American people to whom it may concern.—ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read every number of the *Nation* since I first subscribed for it in 1872, but it has never elicited my esteem and admiration more than it has done by its righteous indignation and protest against the war "craze" now possessing the American people and their rulers. I heartily sympathized with the contempt the *Nation* expressed for the political prayer of the new Congressional chaplain, and with the wish of your correspondent, Rev. A. A. Berle, that the chaplaincy be abolished as a sacrilegious nuisance.

It has pleased Providence to teach some nations only in the bitter school of experience the lessons of righteousness and common sense; and it may be that the "bumptious" conceit of Americanism will be relieved, and its foolish delusions dispelled, by the disastrous consequences of a war with England, in which we should lose far more than England, and gain nothing. Egyptian and Indian cotton would more than ever supplant our Southern staple in European countries; their planters would get from ten to fifty cents for their cotton, our planters could not get more than three or four cents for theirs. Our exports of all kinds would cease, for they are mostly carried in English vessels. We should be helpless to prevent England supplying itself with all the cereals it needed from Argentina, Russia, and Hungary, not to speak of Canada. By the time one of our "commerce-destroyers" (the very name indicative of mediæval barbarism) crossed the Atlantic to attack England's commerce, her bunkers would be depleted of coal and she would lie, a helpless hulk, at the mercy of her enemies. England has coaling-stations and war-vessels everywhere; we have no coaling-stations, and our few war-vessels would have to protect our own exposed coasts. So clearly in the wrong are we that we could not count upon the sympathy or coöperation of a single European nation. The more we consider the numerous questions raised by the possibility of war between Great Britain and ourselves, the more are we astonished at the fatuity of those who are egging it on.

The sentiments expressed by the *Nation* in discussing this question seem so like those I expressed in an impromptu speech made in the session of the National Educational Association at Toronto in 1891, that I take the liberty of cutting them out of the Journal of Proceedings and sending them to you. The question discussed was whether we teachers should celebrate a "Patriots' Day" and encourage Jingoism:

"True patriotism is the endeavor to elevate my country's standard of honor up to that which is right and true, and I should love my country for that in her which is devoted to righteousness. I should love the truth and righteousness which God has given us, and seek to bring my country up to it. I am not to make patriotism, therefore, the end, but rather the means by which I may hope to

bring the nation to a love of truth, to a love of righteousness. I do not think the observance of any Patriots' Day will ever attain that result. The time wasted or spent in that could be better spent in educating the young men in those moral truths and principles which will make the citizen seek that which will be for his country's highest good; hence it is not patriotism in itself we are striving to attain, but it is love of truth, of right and righteousness. Patriotism is nothing more than this; that is the highest patriotism."

WM. R. ATKINSON.

S. C. COLLEGE FOR WOMEN, COLUMBIA, S. C.

NEGRO FOLK-LORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your recent review of Prof. Edwards's 'Bahama Songs and Stories,' I was interested in seeing the persistence of an old formula for closing a story,

"E bo ban, my story's en',"

which is, with apparent probability, traced back to an ancient English form,

"Be bow bended, my story's ended."

I may add to this that, when a boy in Virginia, I was familiar with a similar expression, invariably used in stories partaking of the marvellous, which ran, in atrocious rhyme,

"Be bo bum, my story's done."

C. DE K.

ROLLA, MO., December 27, 1895.

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. have in press 'The King's Peace,' by Mr. Inderwick, Q.C., in the Social England Series, 'The Spraying of Plants,' by E. G. Lodeman of Cornell University, 'Alternating Currents and Alternating Current Machinery,' by Prof. Dugald C. Jackson of the University of Wisconsin, and 'Brown Heath and Blue Bells,' by William Winter; and in preparation a translation, by Dr. W. B. Shober of Lehigh University, of Dr. Ludwig Gattermann's 'Die Praxis des Organischen Chemikers,' and a new edition of Sir Thomas Browne's 'Hydriotaphia, and the Garden of Cyrus,' edited by the late Dr. Greenhill.

David Nutt, London, announces 'Greek Folk-Poesy,' being annotated translations from the whole cycle of Romaic folk-verse and folk-prose, edited by J. S. Stuart-Glennie, who also contributes an introduction on the science of folk-lore, and a conclusion on the survival of paganism. There will be two volumes, for the prose and verse respectively.

'Old Faiths and New Facts,' by W. W. Kinsley, will shortly be published by D. Appleton & Co.

W. B. Clive, 65 Fifth Avenue, is about to issue 'Inductive Logic,' by J. Welton, M.A., lecturer on Education in the Victoria University.

That dialectical differences in the language of a nation may lead to practical difficulties, is illustrated by the circumstances which have induced the Allgemeiner Deutscher Sprachverein to offer two prizes for essays on the naming of plants. Some of the common plants of Germany bear more than a hundred different names in the various parts of the country, and the want of a generally recognized popular denomination has made itself felt in the schools, where botany forms an important and attractive branch of study. A thorough discussion of the whole subject, and especially of the principles according to which names should be selected, is to be the task of the essayists.

The *Almanach de Gotha* for 1896 (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) has been kept within bounds, partly by the ingenious device of omitting from the genealogical portion such families as have been slack in returning their proofs to the editor. This rod will regularly be held over the delinquent hereafter. On the other hand, the editor enlists in his behalf as purveyors of information the attachés of embassy or legation, who have never before been honored by being named in the diplomatic lists, though in the European service at least their turn is assured of ultimately becoming secretaries and chiefs. The colonial world has been yet more carefully described, as one may see by reference to Italy's African possessions, now in so much peril. The four portraits embrace President Faure, Prince Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst, Chancellor of the German Empire, and the Duke and Duchess of Aosta—she that was the Princess of Orleans.

'Hazell's Annual' for 1896 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney) deserves the customary commendation for its useful contents, arranged both on the dictionary plan and to a certain extent in classes; see, for example, the more than fourteen pages given under Engineering to railways, canals, sewers, harbors, dams, bridges—the Boston subway, the Bournemouth Undercliff Drive, the Niagara utilization, the Manchester water-supply, the Simplon Tunnel, etc. The personal and statistical information displayed in this "cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day" is of the most extensive and varied character, and will supplement any book of reference of its kind. There are several new maps possessing timely interest.

Mr. William Tallack, the Secretary of the Howard Association of Great Britain, has prepared an enlarged edition of his well-known work, 'Penological and Preventive Principles,' which is published in London by Wertheimer, Lea & Co. For thirty-seven years Mr. Tallack has, through his connection with the Howard Association, been in a position to observe not only the opinions of those accustomed to deal with criminals, but also the practical working of many different systems and theories of reformation and punishment. While the differences, both practical and theoretical, that prevail in these matters are notorious, there has been much progress made toward unity of methods, and in some directions practical unanimity has been attained. Certain readers, as Mr. Tallack admits, will deem his frequent references to the influence of Christianity to be irrelevant. We do not find ourselves of this number, but at all events such references may be omitted by readers who dislike them, and the chief substance of the book will remain unaffected. On the whole, we are not acquainted with any book better adapted to the use of those who are interested in the study of the modern methods of repressing crime.

We are glad to see that Dr. William Smart of the University of Glasgow has published (through Macmillan) a collection of his essays; the title of the volume being 'Studies in Economics.' The author is perhaps best known by his work in translating and expounding the theories of the Austrian economists, but these essays show that his own capacity as a thinker is of a high order. Whatever opinion we may entertain of the Austrian theory of value, we can say that it has no particular effect on the discussion of the problems here considered, which are in the main of a practical nature. The chief topics are the problem of wages in various aspects, the relation of prices to general production and to that of gold, and the economic results of different modes of consumption. We have not recently had the pleasure of examining any economic treatise in which the reasoning was more consecutive or more exempt from fallacy; and the spirit in which contentious matter is handled is worthy of the science developed by Smith and Ricardo and Mill.

Prof. Ewald Flügel of the Stanford University has just issued the first volume of his 'Neuenglisches Lesebuch' (Halle: Niemeyer; New York: Westermann). The volume is devoted to the time of Henry VIII., and contains about 350 large pages of text and some 250 pages of notes and indexes. The contents are selected on the basis of a remarkably thorough knowledge of the period and with excellent judgment. They embrace every kind of literature, religious and secular, in prose and in verse. When extracts only have been printed, these are usually long enough to give the student a good idea of the style and character of the whole work. In this respect the editor has followed the excellent example of Mätzner's highly esteemed 'Altenglische Sprachproben.' The texts of the manuscripts or of early printed editions are reproduced with scrupulous accuracy. The notes, though necessarily uneven, contain much valuable information. No one who understands the importance of this transition period of English literature—a period commonly neglected on account of the inaccessibility of the materials for its study—can fail to feel profound satisfaction that so competent a scholar as Prof. Flügel has been willing to subject himself to the great labor of making such a book. The 'Reader' will at once take its place as an indispensable part of the outfit of every student of our language or literature.

A translation of the third German edition of Prof. Menshutkin's 'Analytical Chemistry" has been made by Mr. James Locke, and is published by Macmillan & Co. The work which is thus made available to American and English students of chemistry is entirely worthy of their attention. It covers both qualitative and quantitative analysis, including under the latter short sections on volumetric and organic analysis. The treatment differs from that of many works on this subject in possessing a distinct pedagogic value. It is not a "cook-book." Discussion of the methods of analysis and of the theory of the reactions which are involved, and the absence of analytical tables, stimulate independent thought and work, and lead the student to a broader understanding of chemistry. Analytical chemistry has been (and is still) too often taught in colleges as if it were an end in itself, to the neglect of its larger educational possibilities. A certain degree of accuracy in manipulation and ability to execute correctly a certain range of analytical work according to set schemes is acquired; but too little stress is laid on the development of power to grapple with new problems. Menshutkin's point of view is indicated by this extract from his introduction: "Analytical chemistry teaches the art of *chemical thought*, which is the most important object of practical work. . . . Mechanical study affords no benefit whatever." We heartily recommend this book to the careful examination of all teachers of analytical chemistry. Mr. Locke's translation is fairly good.

We have already reviewed in these columns Prof. George L. Raymond's 'Art in Theory,' and commented, not very favorably, on his doctrines. In 'Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture as Representative Arts' (Putnams),

he develops these doctrines more in detail, but it cannot be said that he strengthens his presentation of them. Of course, many things stated here are true, but there are as many more that are untrue, and the reasons given for the true things do not commend themselves as just. The author's knowledge of art is evidently purely theoretical and derived from reading only, and he makes blunders that are truly amazing. A single one must serve as an example. On page 41 is to be found this statement: "In drawing and painting, shading is usually produced through the use of lines either in black or in color, which, for this purpose, are either abruptly or gradually lessened in number or intensity." This is so completely wrong, and shows such entire ignorance of the arts under discussion, that it dispenses the serious critic from the necessity of further consideration of the writer. The book is lavishly illustrated with 200 odd cuts, raked together from all sorts of sources and nearly all bad.

The *Portfolio* for November is devoted, for once, to a purely modern subject, the recent 'Renaissance of Sculpture in Belgium.' Its author, Georges Destrée, is, we take it, himself a Belgian, and, for a guess, a Walloon, and patriotic impulses are perhaps discernible in his enthusiasm; but whether or not modern Belgian sculpture is, as he would seem to intimate, the modern school of sculpture *par excellence*, it is only necessary to glance at the excellent illustrations he gives us to convince one's self that it has produced a series of most vital and interesting works. Here are half-a-score of artists whose very names will be new to most of us, and every one of them is a man of power and originality, whose work one may conceivably dislike, but must surely admire. Mr. Destrée writes in French, and the translation, seemingly excellent, has been done by Miss Florence Simmons.

Mr. F. Adolphus has put together his reminiscences of life in the French capital for more than forty years in a pleasant little volume, which he has entitled 'Some Memories of Paris' (Henry Holt & Co.). The most noteworthy chapters deal with the agony of the great city in 1870-71. A vivid description is given of the last day of the Second Empire, together with the account of the distribution of the English gifts of food to the Parisians after the siege, the narrative of an eye-witness of the entry of the Germans into the conquered city, and a record of personal experiences during the Commune. Mr. Adolphus seems to have had excellent opportunities for observing what was going on during these critical months, and to have kept his eyes open to the dramatic possibilities of his surroundings. He was with Laurence Oliphant, at that time correspondent of the *Times*, when the Germans entered Paris, and seems to have been on intimate terms with that erratic man of genius. Oliphant left Paris, so Mr. Adolphus tells us, after a narrow escape from a bullet on the day of the outbreak of the Commune, in the belief that the bullet brought him a message from Prophet Harris that he was to return at once to America. But in the middle of June, 1871, Oliphant returned, accompanied by Harris, who described the Commune as "a yell from the lower man; an up-seething from the turbid sources; a snatch at the impossible and the undefined; a failure where success would have meant a nation's shame" (p. 177).

'Europe in Africa in the Nineteenth Century,' by Elizabeth W. Latimer (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), is an account, both too diffuse and too brief at times, of the events which have led to the partition of Africa. It is illustrated by a number of portraits and some rude but serviceable maps.

'The Fishes of Sinaloa,' by Prof. D. S. Jordan of Stanford University, is a reprint of 137 pages and 28 plates from vol. v. (second series) of the Proceedings of the California Academy of Science. The paper will be very useful in the study of our West Coast fishes. A large number of species are described and figured. The work would be much more convenient and helpful for reference if the date and place of publication had been added to the name of the describer of each species. These slight additions cost a writer but little trouble, and in saving the time and labor of investigators contribute greatly to the advancement of science.

The Report of the United States National Museum for the year ending June 30, 1893, is a bulky octavo of nearly 800 pages, with a large number of plates and other drawings. It contains the report of Prof. G. Brown Goode, and reports and special papers by a number of his assistants. Prof. Goode's report is an able presentation of the history, present status, and possibilities of the Museum, and of museum development in general. The numerous illustrations give a good idea of the cases, mountings, labels, arrangement, etc., accepted at the time as best adapted to their purposes. The majority of the special papers are ethnological, the most extensive being "Notes on the Ethnology of Thibet," by W. W. Rockhill, profusely illustrated. A paper of much interest to the ornithologist is that of Maj. Charles Bendire on the "Cow Birds." "The Poisonous Snakes of North America," by Leonhard Stejneger, is a work of great general as well as special interest. The author has gone deeply into the literature of the subject in all its bearings. His summaries of what is known of habits, distribution, anatomy, venom, remedies, etc., are comprehensive, the average of the many illustrations is good, and his descriptions and comparisons from the Museum's collections are admirable. It is matter of regret that in a work of so much excellence the synonymy is not entirely complete, and that apparently several of the snakes are not mentioned.

M. Paul Verlaine has given to the world, through the publishing department of the *Fin du Siècle*, a small volume of 'Confessions,' which cover the period of his life from his birth, at Metz, in 1844, to his meeting with Arthur Rimbaud, at the end of 1871. They are not very startling, and are pleasantly written. His description of his college life and examinations for the *baccalauréat*, and his account of his early poetic efforts, are interesting; but the real Verlaine is, after all, to be sought for in his works.

M. E. Lintilhac has put into book form, under the title 'Les Félibres—à travers leur monde et leur poésie' (Paris: Lemerre), the articles he wrote on this subject for the *Temps*. They are well worth preserving, and in their present form are infinitely more useful. The literature which is here treated of has an interest and value of its own, apart from the attention which it merits as a revival of a once rich and flourishing branch of the national literature of France. The work of Aubanel is studied most fully by M. Lintilhac.

M. René Doumic has already made a name for himself as a critic of weight. His latest book is not up to his former productions, however, and is rather ephemeral in character. 'La Vie et les mœurs au jour le jour' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) is simply a collection of articles, very bright and vivacious, and nearly all based upon a thought, occasionally a serious one, but scarcely worth putting together into more permanent form. They are witty, sarcastic, keen, and help to pass an hour enjoyably. This much praise may freely be given.

The Paris *Journal des Débats* announces that, beginning with the new year, its two editions, of morning and evening, adopted three years ago, will be abandoned. Hereafter there will be but one edition, in the evening, with the familiar pink color retained. The dimensions of the paper will be enlarged to rival the greatest yet adopted by the French press. In all other respects the character of this sober and civilizing journal will remain unchanged.

When Edmond Biré was engaged upon his volumes on Victor Hugo, he had access to the manuscript of Adolphe Jullien's 'Le Romantisme et l'Éditeur Renduel,' to which, as some readers may remember, he refers in several of his foot-notes. Out of consideration for persons still living, this work has hitherto been withheld from publication. But now the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (December 1) publishes a first instalment from it under the above title and the sub-title, "Eugène Renduel et Victor Hugo." The pages are interesting, but contain nothing important concerning the literature of the epoch. Hugo's character appears here in much the same light as that to which Biré has accustomed us. Renduel was the publisher and friend of many of the most noted writers of the Romantic period, and, as all his papers and books have fallen into M. Jullien's hands, we may expect much from the latter's divulgences.

Several astronomical articles of interest appear in recent numbers of *Knowledge*. Variable red stars are treated by Dr. Brester of Delft, and the question "What is a nebula?" is again raised, this time by Mr. E. W. Maunder of the Royal Observatory, who gives answers as satisfactory as possible in the present state of information on this significant subject. The second and third of Mr. Stewart's articles on spectrum analysis appear, and an account of new stars by Dr. Brester, as well as a very interesting article by Miss Clerke on the exterior nebulosities of the Pleiades, followed by a note upon the same subject by Prof. Barnard, late of the Lick Observatory. With the beginning of the new volume for 1896, *Knowledge* will revert to its original title, "An Illustrated Magazine of Science, Literature, and Art," which it bore when Mr. Proctor founded it fifteen years ago. Although this implies a wide field, it is hoped that the magazine will not fail of filling it, and of affording its readers even greater interest in the future than in the past.

Some interesting facts as to the recent progress of Bolivia in building railways, post-roads, and telegraph lines, taken from the Chilian Minister's report to his Government, are given in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for November. It contains also a discussion of the proper position for the provisional boundary-stone between Chili and the Argentine Republic, a question in which Bolivia and Peru are likewise interested. The distribution and religion of the various non-German races in the German Empire are shown upon an admirably colored and shaded map.

Capt. Lugard's account of his Borgu expedition, in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December, is noteworthy for its vigorous denunciation of the liquor traffic in West Africa and his hearty advocacy of the Hausa Association. This has been formed to promote the study of the Hausa language, which is used

largely by the Moslems of the western Sudan. It is taught in their schools—the Arabic alphabet being used in writing it—and it has the rudiments of a literature. A grammar and dictionary of the language has been compiled, and a translation of a part of the Gospel of St. Matthew is already in print. The magazine also contains some notes, historical and geological, on Vancouver Island.

Signor Anderson (Rome: Spithöver) has been of late greatly increasing the debt owed him by all students of Italian art. He has made a reproduction approaching the original in size of Giorgione's "Soldier and Gypsy"; a reproduction the more valuable now that, thanks to the ridiculous pretensions upon private art-property made by the Italian Government, the Giovanelli Palace is absolutely inaccessible. At Parma, Signor Anderson has photographed everything of interest. We need not speak of Parma's greatest treasures, its many Correggios; but the gallery contains unrivalled Cimas as well, and one of Sebastiano del Piombo's grandest works, a portrait of Clement VII., in itself worth all the biographies of that astute and fascinating Medici. In or near Parma are also to be found some of the finest works of Parmigiano, the most genuine and therefore the most lovable of décadents.

The Gallery of Modena was for twenty years unhung. At last it has been admirably arranged, and Signor Anderson has photographed its many interesting works. There, better than anywhere else, the Ferrara-Bolognese school can be studied; but the glory of Modena is its many masterpieces by Dosso Dossi, a most fascinating artist, hitherto almost undiscovered. Symonds is the only writer of note who has made so much as a passing mention of Dosso, whose "Jester" he greatly admired. This "Jester," even in the photograph, reveals its quality of Shaksperian humor.

—The annual report of the State Geologist for New Jersey for 1894 (only recently printed) is again to be remarked for Prof. R. D. Salisbury's report of progress in the study of surface geology. This novel survey continues to throw an unexpected light on the glacial and pre-glacial history of the State, as, in the influence of stagnant ice on the deposition of stratified drift, the evidences of submergence, etc. The study proceeds from the Schooley peneplain, and may be recommended to pedestrians and bicyclists whose excursions have a more substantial motive than mere exercise. To one who understands the topography of northwestern New Jersey, says Prof. Salisbury, "the long, even crest of Kittatinny Mountain, stretching away for miles to the north, and the almost equally even crest line of the Highlands, seen in the distance across the valley to the east, tell of a lapse of time and of an amount of erosion beside which the gorge of the [Delaware] Water Gap seems paltry and mean. . . . As a geographic feature, the Kittatinny Mountain cannot be said to have been greatly modified by the ice of the glacial period." The chapter on the abundance and direction of glacial striæ is extremely interesting, and so are those on the changes in drainage, on the nature and variety of the lakes of northern New Jersey, on the gravels and sands south of the terminal moraine, etc. "If the ice which coöperated with water in the deposition of the Pensauken [formation] was berg ice—emanating from glaciers—it is believed that it belonged to a glacial epoch antedating any which has heretofore been recognized in America." Of great practical value are the remarks on road material, of which the Pensauken furnishes an abundant supply. The report is accompanied by plates and a large colored map of the surface formations of the Passaic valley and its surroundings. Mr. Lewis Woolman extends his annual record of artesian wells in Southern New Jersey, and enumerates the several diatom clay beds involved in the borings; No. 3, which extends to North Carolina, being the most remarkable and extensive in the world. The report on forestry, by Mr. C. C. Vermeule, reveals an unbroken tract of forest of 11,000 acres on the top of the Palisades. This is shown on a tinted map of the whole State. Finally, Mr. John Gifford makes a preliminary report on the forest conditions of South Jersey, which possesses a curious interest on account of its particularity, and especially for its information respecting forest fires, which there is urgent need of controlling by State regulation.

—At the founding of the American Ornithologists' Union in 1883, a committee, consisting of Messrs. Coues, Allen, Ridgway, Brewster, and Henshaw, was appointed to prepare certain canons of nomenclature and apply these to a revision of the list of North American birds. The code followed up to that time, tacitly and in the main, was the Stricklandian of 1844, which in its time formulated the consensus of opinion or general practice of ornithologists since the Linnæan period. The committee prepared a more elaborate and more precise code, some main features of which were the recognition of priority as a cast-iron principle of nomenclature, the taking of Linnæus at 1758 instead of 1766, and the rejection of homonyms in face of whatever sanction by usage, and thereupon drew up their list of native birds with a degree of consistency which had never before been witnessed in any department of zoölogy. This list acquired such authority that every name not on it went out of use. The code itself found great favor among other naturalists, particularly those working in other departments of vertebrates and in conchology and entomology; and many who found fault with particular provisions preferred to waive their objections and take it in *en bloc*, as being on the whole most conducive to that stability of nomenclature for which they yearned. The same ichor in due course infected the botanists; and the present eruption in their nomenclature, with all its "burning questions," which had never been allowed to ignite during Asa Gray's lifetime, is mainly due to the influence of the ornithological ordinances. The original committee has remained the same, with one exception, and has never found occasion to revise its code in a single particular, but has just issued what may be called its first decennial revision of the list, mainly for the purpose of formally including the additions to our bird-fauna made during the past few years. These are more numerous than they ever were before in the same space of years; but of changes in names from some unexpected bearing of a canon in this or that case the instances are very few. We could not state the present total of species and subspecies recognized without actual count, as the committee use *a*, *b*, *c*, etc., for subspecies, and interpolate new species with a decimal point in order that the numbers originally affixed may be permanent; we suppose the total to be upward of 900. Names relegated to the "hypothetical list," which is the Union's waste-basket, are only 22—a surprisingly small amount of refuse or refractory material after sifting and identifying several thousand names and synonyms. The list of fossil birds is 64—1 Jurassic, 23 Cretaceous, the rest Tertiary. The names are printed in very heavy type, without synonymy excepting two references (to the original name and to the name adopted), and four others (by number only), to the prior lists of Baird, 1858, Coues, 1873 and 1882, and Ridgway, 1880; and a statement of habitat is made in every case. The book makes a sizable octavo of pp. viii, 372, and will doubtless remain the only recognized authority in classification and nomenclature until its next revision, which is expected to be another decennial one.

—Occasionally a scientific observation is made which gives a wide glimpse into the vast unexplored region of ignorance by which we are surrounded, and which will doubtless for ever save the scientist from the pain of being obliged to sit down with all his work accomplished. A German investigator has just made out the very curious fact that if the long, thread-like pseudopodia of certain low animals (foraminifera) are touched by the threads of another individual, they contract, shrivel up, and even break up into separate drops of protoplasm, but that if the threads which touch are those of the same individual, nothing of this sort occurs. The threads may even be cut off, and this same sensitiveness to the difference between the Me and the not-Me continues. There is, of course, absolutely no difference of structure—nothing in the organic world can be more alike so far as our powers of observation can be extended by all the appliances at our command, than these undifferentiated threads of naked protoplasm. And this still more curious fact is to be added—the pseudopodia of young individuals of the same brood do not cause this mutual contraction when brought into contact with each other; this difference in the protoplasm of different individuals, whatever may be its nature, is developed in the course of the life of the individual. If little things like orbitolites have such profound differences in structure as this would indicate, what deep physical bases may there not be for the antipathies and sympathies of highly organized human beings?

—The career of Antonio Gallenga, who died a fortnight ago in England, illustrated the boundless possibilities of romance which our miscalled commonplace century has furnished. He was born in Parma in 1810, and was swept into the whirl of Italian conspiracy by the abortive revolutions of 1831. Thenceforth he became an exile. Visiting this country, he was cordially received by, and for a time lived on intimate terms with, Longfellow, Prescott, Ticknor, and the older literary society in Boston and Cambridge. Returning to Europe, he made England his abode, if any one who travelled continuously could be said to have an abode. At any rate, his chief works, 'Mariotti's Italy,' 'Italy in 1848,' 'A History of Piedmont,' etc., were written in English and published in London. From 1859 till about twelve years ago, Gallenga was the Italian correspondent of the London *Times*, a position in which he exerted an influence that his character hardly justified, for Gallenga may fairly be regarded as an excellent specimen of the modern type of versatile, clever, and irresponsible journalist, and the ease with which he changed his political principles to suit the taste of his employer is further evidence of his fitness for journalism. His works, which we have mentioned, are still worth reading by any one who wishes to get a contemporary look at Italy fifty years ago. He writes with much vivacity—like Ruffini, he quickly mastered

English—and he has unusual ability in interweaving statistics, events, and aspirations. But probably he will be remembered longest as having been, in his youth, under the *alias* "Luigi Mariotti," engaged in an attempt to assassinate Charles Albert, King of Piedmont. According to his story, Mazzini gave him a dagger with which to commit regicide. Mazzini denied complicity in the proposed crime, but for years his enemies used the insinuation, as if it had been proof, against him. Mazzinians, it may easily be imagined, were not disposed to construe charitably Mariotti-Gallenga's conversion into a courtier of the King whose father he had wished to kill.

BAIRD'S HUGUENOTS.

The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. By Henry M. Baird. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 2 vols, pp. xxviii, 566; xix, 604.

Prof. Baird may well be congratulated on the completion of a great undertaking. The two volumes before us round out the story of the Huguenots already traced through its earlier course in his 'Rise of the Huguenots' (1879) and 'Huguenots and Henry of Navarre' (1886); and the hearty commendation expressed in our notices of the preceding sections of this series is deserved by these volumes also. They exhibit the same characteristics—lucidity of style, patient investigation, guarded statement, and repression of partisan extravagance in praise or blame—that mark the other portions of his work. Prof. Baird's sympathies are never in doubt, and his aversion to the dishonesties of Louis XIII. and XIV., of Louvois, of Bossuet, or their servants and associates, is as manifest as his revulsion from the cruelties of Marillac or Foucault; but he carries the stamp of fairness and of willingness to see good wherever it may be found. Prof. Baird's recent volumes have the same limitations, also—largely self-imposed, we judge—which characterize his earlier narratives, and have already been pointed out by us. So entirely is his work the history of a party that contemporary political and intellectual development is given a subordination that is almost exclusion. Not infrequently this neglect seems a real loss. It would certainly be germane to the story of the Huguenots to develop with some fulness the policy of Richelieu which led to the downfall of La Rochelle in 1628. That policy is outlined, indeed, but with the utmost brevity. Even more desirable would be a sketch of the growth of the philosophic spirit in France during the eighteenth century, for, assuredly, it was not increased love for Protestantism that gave toleration to the Huguenots in 1787.

Prof. Baird's two volumes under consideration cover nearly two centuries—from 1610 to 1802. In them, as he tells the reader,

> "I have treated of the attempt to undo the work of the great Henry, from the gradual encroachments under Louis the Thirteenth to the more rapid and more violent measures that prepared the way for the formal Revocation of the Edict by Louis the Fourteenth. I have also pointed out the consequences of the recall in the great emigration, the suppression of Protestant worship save in the proscribed conventicles of the Desert, and the war of the Camisards, into which fanaticism was driven by cruel intolerance. Finally, I have delineated the gradual recovery by the oppressed Huguenots of their ecclesiastical organization and of the civil and religious rights from which they had been long debarred, until, after being barely tolerated, they were at last fully recognized by the civil government."

Only a few points of interest in this long story, so voluminously told, can even be glanced at in the limits of this review. One feature of Huguenot development, then, that strikes the reader of Prof. Baird's volumes is the change that came over the party after the establishment of the Bourbon House. Though granted a large measure of privilege by the Edict of Nantes, the termination of the struggles which had torn France under the Valois Kings, and the opening of new avenues to advancement to the Huguenot chiefs under Henry IV., cost the party that active leadership of great representatives of the nobility which had been largely its source of political strength. Sully did much for France, but little for his fellow-Protestants. Bouillon preferred his own interests to theirs. Henry of Rohan, the last great Protestant leader, is esteemed by Prof. Baird "as generous as Admiral Coligny, whom he probably excelled in military genius"; but his unavailing attempts to support the political power of the Huguenot party by arms from 1621 to 1629 met with "a divided support from his fellow-believers," because it was "an age of inferior devotion and less ardent enthusiasm, an age in which the ideas of the royal prerogative had reached an exaggeration unknown in the preceding century."

Prof. Baird points out many instances of this zeal for royal absolutism among the French Protestants of the seventeenth century, remarking "that as the toleration of the Reformed religion became more and more precarious, . . . the Huguenots, in their endeavor to prove themselves to be, what in reality they were, the most obedient and trustworthy subjects of the crown, were tempted to rear with their own hands that formidable structure of the absolute authority of the King, which, when once erected, was destined to prove the ruin of their hopes of quiet." Prof. Baird holds the address of Pierre Hesperien to Louis XIII., in the name of the National Synod of 1617, to be representative of the views of the party generally: "After God, we recognize your Majesty to be our only sovereign; and it is an article of our creed that there is no intermediate power between God and kings. It is among us a damnable heresy to call it into question." Daniel Tilenus, the honored theologian of Sedan, writing to his fellow-Huguenots in 1621, went so far as to say: "You wish him [Louis XIII.] to be bound to observe his predecessor's Edict in every point; but you do not consider that you owe him all obedience by an obligation divine, natural, and civil. Bear in mind that no king is bound by the ordinances of his predecessors, nor even by his own. . . . By the laws of God and of nature he is undeniably bound; nevertheless, should he chance to contravene them, he has no other judge but God." Certainly the contrast between these views and those of their fellow-Calvinists across the English Channel is instructive, and a suggestive light is thrown on the later experiences of the Huguenots themselves.

The loss of La Rochelle in 1628 signified the passing away of Huguenot political power; but though a statesman like Richelieu could hardly have done otherwise than oppose that *imperium in imperio* which the Edict of Nantes had sanctioned in the assignment of hostage cities to Huguenot control, Prof. Baird shows that the Protestants found the great Cardinal an honorable master; and he deems the years from 1629 to 1660 the most prosperous in Huguenot story. Counting "somewhat over one-fifteenth, never more than one-tenth part," of the population of France, they yet possessed over 850 places of worship, served by upwards of 700 ministers, and a share in the commerce and manufactures of the land out of all proportion to their numbers. Prof. Baird attributes the superior prosperity of the Huguenots of the middle classes to their high average of moral character, but he also gives weight to their non-observance of the ecclesiastical holidays—a neglect which he estimates as yielding an advantage of twenty per cent. in working time to the Protestants.

From the beginning of the personal reign of Louis XIV. the situation of the Huguenots grew rapidly worse. Yet the policy of the King seems to have looked towards the conversion of his Protestant subjects by Catholic missionary effort, by unfriendly interpretation of existing laws and the creation of new legal annoyances, and by the employment of bribery, rather than to have contemplated a revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Thus the King regulated the times of weddings and funerals, the duration of pastorates, and the dress and visitation of ministers; abolished the mixed courts of justice; deprived the Huguenots (between 1660 and 1684) of two-thirds of their houses of worship by a variety of legal devices; and finally (1681) made the expression of a preference for Catholic worship by Huguenot children who had reached the age of seven an irrevocable renunciation of their parents' faith.

Naturally, such unscrupulous royal zeal for the conversion of Protestants was emulated by those who wished to stand high in the graces of the King; and Prof. Baird shows that the notorious *dragonnades* originated in 1681 through the inventiveness of Michel de Marillac, intendant of Poitou, who turned the troops he had been using to collect unpaid taxes to the work of persuading Huguenots, with such apparent success as to win the approval of Louvois and Louis XIV. Public opinion did indeed force Louvois eventually to remove Marillac from office; but it was Marillac's system which Foucault revived in the spring of 1685, in Béarn, with the countenance of Louvois, and which, a few months later, when Foucault reported 21,000 "conversions" in his district as its result, Louvois applied widely, though officially disclaiming the violence which he and Louis XIV. must well have known was being exercised. These measures undoubtedly produced a nominal change of faith in great numbers, and to the sanguine thought of the King it seemed as if Protestantism was about to disappear. Prof. Baird shows that the Revocation of the Edict in October, 1685, was due to a somewhat sudden determination on the King's part, "based upon a false opinion that Protestantism, thanks to the measures put into operation for that end, had almost, if not quite, ceased to exist." He assigns the chief influence in the royal deliberations to Harlay, archbishop of Paris, to Père de la Chaise, the King's confessor, and to Louvois; to Mme. de Maintenon, so often charged with being a chief instrument in the Revocation, he ascribes no weight in swaying the King's decision, though she undoubtedly sympathized with the step.

Prof. Baird depicts the consequences of the Revocation with graphic minuteness. Of the Huguenot ministry, on whom the blow fell most severely, and to whom great inducements to conversion were offered, only about one-eighth abjured Protestantism. Of their flocks Prof. Baird estimates that not far from four hundred thousand (though exact figures are impossible) left France, in spite of the perils which the King put in their way, to the

lasting advantage of England, Holland, and Germany. With interesting fulness he traces the efforts to preserve Protestant worship, now officially non-existent. He concludes that at least fifty of the exiled pastors revisited their flocks before 1700, and the fate of such of these returned ministers as fell into the hands of the Government shows that the secrecy observed regarding the Man of the Iron Mask was no unique feature of the vengeance of Louis XIV. Sent to prisons like those of the Île Ste.-Marguerite or of Vincennes without public trial and with every precaution to avoid communication with the outside world, they disappeared no less completely than apparently mysteriously from sight, and friends inquired in vain for years for the secret of a fate which modern publication of records has revealed.

Of the Camisard war Prof. Baird has much to say, and the picturesqueness of the struggle makes the story of the efforts of these peasants one of interest, though the evident hopelessness of their task, and the fanatical spirit of so-called prophecy which they exhibited, made the rising the work of only a fragment of the Protestant population of France. It demonstrated, however, in the sight of all Europe the absurdity of any governmental claim that, since the Revocation, Protestantism had ceased to exist in the dominions of Louis XIV.

Of more value for the permanent interest of the land was the restoration of organized French Protestantism effected by Antoine Court in 1715, with its reëstablishment of the synods and regular ministry. The story of these churches of the "Desert," as they styled themselves in language borrowed from Scripture and conveniently indefinite as to their habitat, is told from their beginnings in the Cévennes to their ultimate recognition by the French Government. In spite of life-imprisonment and galley-slavery for attendance on their services, they continued to grow, aided by the theological school which Court established at Lausanne about 1730. As the eighteenth century wore on, this opposition declined, so that though the last execution of a minister was as late as February 19, 1762 (François Rochette at Toulouse), the Protestants attempted to build church-edifices by 1755, and a year later could count 48 pastors—a number which had increased, when the memorable year 1787 arrived, to about 125. Yet the case of Calas, which Prof. Baird narrates at length, together with the efforts of Voltaire to right a great injustice, shows the popular and legal hostility to which Protestants were still liable. So far, however, did enlightened opinion outrun the slow processes of legal revision that the Government, speaking through its Comptroller-General, Turgot, in 1775, gave a recognition to the still proscribed Protestant bodies by invoking the services of their ministers in suppressing the bread riots. Such an act was natural from one who had written in favor of religious tolerance as early as 1753. It was Lafayette, however, who, on May 23, 1787, presented to the Assembly of Notables the resolution which that body transmitted without opposition to Louis XVI. praying that Protestant proscription might cease. The result was the Edict of Toleration, which did not, indeed, grant legal permission to Protestant worship, but relieved the Protestants from the worst of their disabilities. From this Edict the tide of the Revolution swung the cause of Protestant freedom rapidly onward to the law of April 7, 1802, by which the Reformed and Lutheran churches of France were given full rights, and placed under the controlling and supporting supervision of the state—a law with which Prof. Baird closes his history.

Altogether the volumes under review are scarcely less suggestive to the student of general history than to the investigator of ecclestiastical story in their demonstration of the difficulty and costliness of crushing opinion by force; and one application of this lesson to events of our own age is pointed out by Prof. Baird in his preface, when he remarks: "As history repeats itself, the close of the nineteenth century is even now beholding the counterpart, or the copy, of the legislation by means of which Louis the Fourteenth undertook to crush out the Huguenot religion from France, in laws remarkably similar, menacing the existence of Protestantism in the Baltic provinces of a great empire of our own times."

BENJAMIN'S HISTORY OF ELECTRICITY.

The Intellectual Rise in Electricity: A History. By Park Benjamin. Appletons. 1895.

THE present history is, in its two halves (the first down to Gilbert inclusive, and the second from Gilbert's successors to Franklin, inclusive), of very different orders of merit; the last part being much the more valuable. In the first part, in which we miss any reference to the graceful, useful, and beautifully printed translation by our countryman, Dr. Mottelay, of Gilbert on the Magnet, which we reviewed some months ago, every scrap of information has been diligently collected; but our comments will show that the work has its blemishes. In the second half, this work comes into competition with Dr. Priestley's 'History and Present State of Electricity,' which, besides being a thorough and full account of the matter, is also a particularly well-arranged account, which can hardly be said of Mr. Benjamin's. Priestley's is also entirely free from the sensational tone of our *fin-de-siècle* style. But there is enough, both of fact and of well-executed general sketches of historical situations, in the volume before us to establish it as the leading work on the subject in any language.

In the period antecedent to the death of Bacon there is much baseless conjecture. Thus, Mr. Benjamin guesses that Gilbert lived in London in Linacre's house. But he could easily have ascertained that Dr. Gilbert lived in the lane called Peter's Hill, south of *Little* Knightrider Street, while the Linacre house was No. 5 of Knight Rider Street proper, and, we believe, on the north side. While thorough scholarship was not an indispensable qualification for Mr. Benjamin's task, we could wish there were fewer indications of the lack of it. On the second page of the first chapter we read that Homer ("Iliad, Z.[1] 513: T.[1] 398") calls the sun ἠλέκτορ. A proof-reader familiar with the looks of Greek words would have challenged that. Boesius is the name which Mr. Benjamin gives to the philosopher Boetius. We are familiar with Boethius and even Boecius, but do not remember Boesius. Under the reign of "Aelfred," Mr. Benjamin informs us that Scotus Erigena "began the assertion of the scholastic philosophy." There are three errors here. In the first place, Erigena (whom it is no longer permissible to confound with another Irishman at the court of the Mercian King) was not a subject of Alfred. In the second place, the scholastic philosophy did not consist in any assertion. It was the philosophy taught in the lecture-rooms (*scholæ*) of the mediæval universities. The only philosophical proposition concerning which the scholastic doctors were agreed was the practical infallibility of Aristotle. What marked their teaching was, first, its general form (it was usually either a commentary or a disputation, or both), and, second, the algebra-like formality of its statements. Scotus Erigena was not a scholastic; for, first, he lived over three centuries before the regular organization of the universities, and in a deeply dissimilar civilization (or want of civilization); second, he is not an Aristotelean; third, the 'De Divisione Naturæ' is neither a commentary nor a disputation; fourth, it is not marked by great formality of statement; fifth, it is in no sense a school-book. The university of Alexandria, according to Benjamin, was "begun by Alexander." We apprehend it will be necessary to take the will for the deed, to make that out. As ornaments of that university are mentioned Archimedes and Hipparchus. The former did study and the latter may have studied there; but Archimedes did the work of his life in Syracuse, and Hipparchus at Rhodes and elsewhere. He did not observe in Alexandria.

Mr. Benjamin's references are not seldom inaccurate. The following is a single specimen: "Vincenti Bellovacensis: Speculi Naturales, etc., tom. ii., lib. ix., c. 19." On one of the first pages there is a faulty reference to a passage in Pliny, which is all the worse because Pliny is not quite accurately reported. Even the scientific statements are often careless. Thus, we are told that the orientation of the Great Pyramid is in error by 19′ 58″, and that a surveyor "with the best modern compass" could hardly do better. Now, to begin with, the error of orientation is only about 1¼′, which, being the *minimum visibile*, is as small as the probable error of the best possible naked-eye observation. No modern surveyor, when he wants to do nice work, dreams of employing a compass; and, for that reason, there has been no attempt to develop a compass of precision. But in all magnetical surveys the deviation of the needle is ascertained far more closely than the figure given.

But let us come to the substance of the work. The author has unfortunately a theory. If it were a very broad and instructive theory, especially if it were very solidly founded, this would be no misfortune. But it is neither broad nor solid. It is that the knowledge of the earliest form of mariner's compass came from the Baltic town of Wisby, that it came to Wisby from the Finns, and that it had been, perhaps, an ancient heritage of the great "Turanian" race. Apparently because that theory is sadly in need of support, the author accepts without the slightest reserve the theory of Mr. Terrien de Lacouperie of the Elamite origin of the earliest Chinese civilization. Singularly enough, however, when it comes to accounts of the Chinese possessing compasses before the Europeans, he becomes unexpectedly sceptical. The letter of Klaproth of 1835 is generally supposed to have proved the proposition that the Chinese, some time before A. D. 400, at latest—that is, many ages before the Europeans—knew that a needle could receive directive force from a lodestone. As for the Egyptians, Dr. Benjamin reaches the sane conclusion that they knew nothing about magnets, though the process by which he reaches that result is open to some objection. As for knowledge of the magnet on the part of the Greeks and Romans, it is easily stated. Dr. Benjamin drags in irrelevant matter from Rossignol's essay on the mythology of Greek miners; but, for the matter in hand, the well-known passage in the 'Ion' of Plato gives all

the information there is. Namely, the Greeks knew that a lodestone would lift an iron ring, and that another, and so on; but they knew nothing of the polarity of the magnet.

It is next to impossible to prove the negative proposition, that the mariner's compass (in some crude form) was not known at a given date. Such is the stupidity of man that it would be known for a very long time before it came much into use. On an Arabian vessel we first hear of it, Mr. Benjamin assures us, in A. D. 1240. Since the needle was floated on water, and was magnetized then and there (only soft iron being at hand), it would be used only on cloudy nights when the sea was pretty calm. It might go a long time unrecorded in a book; and it might be recorded in numbers of books before it was recorded in one which Western scholars have read. To show how slow progress was in those days, the compass is mentioned (as Klaproth shows) as a familiar thing in the laws of Alfonso X. of Castile dated A.D. 1263; and yet the evidence seems to be (we are indebted to Mr. Benjamin for this) that Spanish galleys were never supplied with it before 1403. The rational conclusion seems to us to be that it was probably known in the Mediterranean before A.D. 1200; but, owing to the choppy seas, it was little used in these waters until it was balanced on a point.

We now turn to northern waters. The Norsemen used to follow the method of Noah, except that they sent out ravens instead of doves. The earliest description of the mariner's compass (in precisely the same form as that of the Arabians of A. D. 1240) which Mr. Benjamin finds is in Neckam's book 'De Natura Rerum,' written about 1180. He gives a flattering portrait of Neckam, and compares his book with the 'Origines' of St. Isidorus. But surely the two greatest merits of an encyclopædia are to be full and to be compressed. The work of St. Isidorus in twenty books has both those merits in an eminent degree. Considered as an encyclopædia, the work of Neckam is contemptible, being both small and garrulous. Within a few years after Neckam, notices of the compass in northern waters multiply. M. Paulin Paris gave in 1842 some verses by Guyot de Provins and some others by another poet. Dr. Benjamin has very prettily translated several of these; but the originals would have been quite worth giving, too. Within fifty years of the first passage in Neckam we know of near a dozen passages referring to the compass. The contrast between this state of things and the single Arabian passage may be attributed to the thorough overhauling of early European literature. The inference is, that the compass could have been very little known, if at all, in Normandy much before the earliest of these quickly succeeding notices. Therefore, although the balance of evidence inclines toward the supposition that the compass was known in the north before it was known in the Mediterranean, it inclines only slightly that way. As far as investigation has gone, there is no evidence whatever of the compass having been known in those early days in the Baltic. True, it is mentioned as of great importance in the laws of Wisby; but it is probable that that law was a late insertion. We should expect that the compass would in its early shape have been used in the Baltic, owing to the fogs and the smooth sea; but positive evidence is altogether wanting.

Mr. Benjamin seems to regard the invention of the early mariner's compass as an exceedingly difficult one. If that be just, then decidedly the probable hypothesis about its introduction is that of Klaproth, that the Arabs got it from the Chinese, and that from them the knowledge was carried through, or crept round, Europe to the north. But it may be doubted whether the invention is so difficult that it might not, without improbability, be supposed to have been independently invented in different places. Is it incredible that a man playing with two lodestones should find out their polarity, and then magnetization, and then the directive virtue of the needle?

The latter half of Mr. Benjamin's history, after taking leave of Gilbert, is, on the whole, much the more interesting. To be sure, no startling discovery was here possible. The succession of discoverers was Von Guericke (Hauksbee?), Gray, Du Fay, Watson, and Franklin. Mr. Benjamin modifies a little here and there our notions of what each did. It appears that that Sagredo who takes the leading part in Galileo's dialogues, not only was a living person, like the personages of Aretino's dialogues, but also probably discovered the secular change in the variation of the compass. He mounted a lodestone of five pounds so that it would support twenty pounds. It was in experimenting with that lodestone that Galileo found out the effect of the armature in causing the magnet to grow in strength. The Jesuit Nicolaus Cabæus is another old physicist whose achievements, as Mr. Benjamin states them, are of quite another order of importance from what we had supposed. To make our meaning clear, let us say that there are five departments of work in any branch of pure physics, like electricity; namely, (1), the phenomena have to be brought out and seen; (2), suitable instruments have to be invented for their study; (3), the process of experimental analysis, or cross-questioning of Nature, must be applied so as to produce statements of the laws of the phenomena; (4), measurements have to be made (though, of course, there was little of this in the pre-Franklinian ages); and (5), hypotheses, mechanical or other, must be constructed and experimentally verified to show the inward nature of the phenomena. What we have hitherto been told about Cabæus was that he extended the list of electrics; that is, he slightly increased the range of a known phenomenon. But it now appears that he observed that when little bodies are attracted to an electrified body and strike it, they are at once thrown off from it. Now this observation was the first step necessary in the experimental analysis of the phenomenon, ultimately leading to a knowledge of its laws. Nor was that all. For it seems that Cabæus was the first to plunge a lodestone into a mass of iron filings and notice the result; and, further, that he made an analogous experiment by plunging electrified amber into a quantity of sawdust. Here he took a step of the second kind, in our enumeration; for these things were instruments of observation of high importance.

In many places, Mr. Benjamin fills up the gaps of history in this way. Nor does he neglect the historian's more difficult tasks. He pictures the fad for experimentation that was caused by Charles II.'s interest in it. He shows that that interest was pretty deep, too, and that it had a most stimulating effect upon experimental science in England. In France, on the other hand, the hollowness of Louis XIV.'s endeavor to interest himself in science, combined with the total absence of interest on the part of Louvois, are fully proved to have had a very unfortunate effect on French science. All such general sketches have been executed by Mr. Benjamin upon a basis of thorough study.

There are few contested points in the history of electricity from Gilbert to Franklin. One of these is whether Cuneus, a gentleman of Leyden, had any hand in the discovery of the Leyden jar. In the first printed account of it by the Abbé Nollet, in the 'Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences' for 1746, it is said that Cuneus had seen some of the experiments upon which the celebrated Musschenbroek of Leyden was then engaged, to ascertain whether the effects of electricity would not be increased by enclosing the electrified body in glass, and that Cuneus undertook to repeat one of them at his home. But instead of leaving the flask in which the conductor to be electrified was placed, on the table, he held it in his hand, and thus got a strong shock. It was afterwards said that Cuneus had nothing to do with it; that that was a story got up to detract from Musschenbroek's credit. But Dr. Priestley, writing his history only twenty years later, was in a condition to collect testimony. He says: "The views which led to this discovery in Holland were, *as I have been informed*, as follows." He states that Cuneus accidentally made the experiment in repeating an experiment by Musschenbroek; but he does *not* say, as the Abbé Nollet does, that to Cuneus belongs the credit. As Cuneus never made any reclamation, the inference is that he immediately communicated his experience to Musschenbroek, and that the analysis of the phenomenon was completed by the latter. Perhaps Cuneus did not of himself find out that the shock depended on his holding the bottle in his hand. Mr. Benjamin inclines to disbelieve entirely in any share in the discovery by Cuneus.

Mr. Benjamin is quite wrong in speaking, as in one place he does, as if the use of experimentation as an instrument of discovery was at variance with the Cartesian philosophy. We will also venture to doubt his confident assertion that Sir Kenelm Digby, in his 'Two Treatises, in the one of which the Nature of Bodies, in the other the Nature of Man's Soule is looked into in the way of Immortality,' plagiarizes extensively from the 'Principia' of Descartes. The latter work appeared from the press of L. Elzevir in Amsterdam on July 10, 1644. Descartes had set out from the Hoef in May for Paris; for the censure (we presume) would not in those days permit "author's corrections" of the proofs. He arrived in Paris at some time between September 27 and October 1, inclusive, and there first received copies of his book. Digby had been in Paris all along. There is evidence that his book (a folio of medium thickness) had been substantially written in the previous spring. The dedication is dated in August. The last imprimatur was affixed September 26. Now, there could hardly have been time for extensive plagiarisms (for every hypothesis, if plagiarized, is modified) between the date at which Digby could have seen the 'Principia' and the date of the imprimatur. Descartes remained in Paris ten or twelve days, during which, though much pressed for time, he had several prolonged interviews with Digby. He never made the least reclamation, though he hinted that Digby was a bold theorist, for he says to the Princess Elizabeth, "Pour ce qui est de l'état de l'âme après cette vie, j'en ay biens moins de connoissance que Monsieur d'Igby." Digby and Descartes never corresponded, and Descartes was a cautious man in the matter of communicating unpublished ideas, while Digby, on the other hand, was a talker. Finally, although no man ever more widely missed the *style* of Nature than Digby did in his physical hypotheses, yet those hypotheses have a strong-

ly marked style of their own. They have nothing of the flavor of eclecticism. Nor can we admit that any hypothesis of the 'Two Treatises' is so precisely accordant with that of the 'Principia' that it is necessary to attribute them to one author. Digby, by the way, is a better psychologist than physicist. He treats of the association of ideas, and even proposes a physical hypothesis to account for it.

We find it very difficult to let this interesting work go without saying anything more about it. An excellent present for a scientifically minded young person would be Mottelay's translation of Gilbert on the Magnet (Wiley) and Benjamin's 'Intellectual Rise' (Appleton).

The Herschels and Modern Astronomy. By Agnes M. Clerke. [The Century Science Series.] Macmillan. 1895.

LITTLE could Dr. (afterwards Sir William) Watson, as he strolled through Walcot Turnpike, Bath, late in an evening about Christmas time, 1779, have thought that his stopping in the street to look through the telescope of a "moon-struck musician" was to lead the way to the immediate inception of one of the most remarkable careers in the history of astronomy. Such, however, was the fact. Frederick William Herschel, born at Hanover, November 15, 1738, into a family possessed of an irresistible instinct and aptitude for music, having landed as a lad at Dover with but a French crown-piece in his pocket, drifted through a series of ably filled engagements as a professional musician until, in 1776, he had become Director of the public concerts at Bath. But while all this time a musician in body, he was an astronomer in spirit, at no time losing sight of the vision of the skies; and it was in the latter capacity that he had the good fortune to attract an able and willing patron, whose friendship provided precisely that opportunity which was needed for full development of his powers. All the while that, in his official capacity, he had "to engage performers, to appease discontents, to supply casual failures, to write glees and catches expressly adapted to the voices of his executants, and frequently to come forward himself as a soloist on the hautboy or the harpsichord," he was absorbingly occupied with a self-imposed task of minutely reviewing all the heavenly bodies and every spot of the celestial vault. During the progress of this unprecedented task it was that the above incident happened; for young Herschel, then engaged in a series of observations on the lunar mountains, had brought his seven-foot reflector into the street in front of his house, and was gazing diligently when Dr. Watson chanced to pass by. Fortunately he did not rest with merely expressing great satisfaction at the view of the moon courteously afforded by the young German; he called the next morning to make his further acquaintance. Instantly this led to an introduction to a local philosophical society, then to the Royal Society of London, and in little more than two years to an audience with his Majesty George III. Thenceforward the great Herschel's life and work are the common knowledge of every astronomer—and it is a little singular that a century should have elapsed with no thoroughly competent history of that life and work, and no republication of Herschel's unsurpassed volume of technical papers, which have still to be sought in the original editions of the 'Philosophical Transactions.'

No less astonishing is it that his equally famous son, Sir John Herschel, now dead nearly a quarter of a century, has thus far experienced a like fate. Miss Clerke's 'The Herschels and Modern Astronomy' is almost the sole attempt to acquaint the lay reader with these great names. Sir William's sister, Caroline, has been more fortunate, and her accurate 'Journals and Recollections' form the chief authority for her brother's eminent life. Indeed, he often referred to her for the dates of events in his earlier years. Collateral information about him is meagre; but in the case of Sir John Herschel there is this important difference, that his long and intimate friendship with Sir William Rowan Hamilton led his conscientious biographer, the late Dean Graves, to make ample inclusions of Herschel's letters. Still, his life, as Miss Clerke modestly says, has yet to be written; and, as we are at liberty to judge from her excellent success with the little volume now before us, no one could tell the fascinating story of that life more entertainingly than Miss Clerke herself. Her evident sympathy with the breadth of his aims in physical investigation, her accurate knowledge of methods, and her singular felicity of expression all fit her worthily for this noble task.

But to return to Sir William. Miss Clerke has admirably told the authentic anecdote of the odd old German organ-builder, Schnetzler, who, exasperated at the staccato performance of Herschel's rival, became wild with delight when, on ascending to the loft, Herschel took from his pocket two leaden weights with which he held down an octave, all the while improvising a majestic counterpoint. "I vil luf dis man," cried Schnetzler, "because he gif my pipes time for to shpeak." And here is her crisp description of the very beginnings of Herschel's building of his own telescopes (page 15):

"In June, 1773, when fine folk had mostly deserted Bath for summer resorts, work was begun in earnest. The house was turned topsy-turvy; the two brothers attacked the novel enterprise with boyish glee. Alexander, a born mechanician, set up a huge lathe in one of the bed rooms; a cabinet-maker was installed in the drawing-room; Caroline, in spite of secret dismay at such unruly proceedings, lent a hand, and kept meals going; William directed, inspired, toiled, with the ardor of a man who had staked his life on the issue. Meanwhile, music could not be neglected. Practising and choir-training went on; novelties for the ensuing season were prepared, compositions written and parts copied. Then the winter brought the usual round of tuitions and performances, while all the time mirrors were being ground and polished, tried and rejected, without intermission. At last, after *two hundred* failures, a tolerable reflecting telescope was produced, about five inches in aperture; . . . but those two hundred failures made the Octagon Chapel organist an expert, unapproached and unapproachable, in the construction of specula."

It was with this new instrument that, in the following March, Herschel began his astronomical work by an observation of the great nebula in Orion, the record of which is still preserved by the Royal Society.

Herschel married at fifty Mary Baldwin, only daughter of a London merchant, and widow of Mr. John Pitt. Her jointure, we are told, relieved him from pecuniary care, and her sweetness of disposition secured his domestic happiness. Miss Burney records in her diary a tea at Mr. De Luc's, adding, of the newly married wife, "She was rich, too! And astronomers are as able as other men to discern that gold can glitter as well as stars." Their only child was John Frederick William, born 1792, and his biography is here presented for the first time by Miss Clerke with some approach to suitable fulness. The wider sympathies of the son make his life of greater general interest than his father's, and not a single phase of his beautiful character escapes that careful touch which marks the perfect biographer.

Astronomy, before the Herschels, had been mostly dry formulæ and drier figures, and the irresistible momentum imparted to modern physical astronomy by the elder Herschel received a marked accession of impulse from the life and work of his brilliant son. Before their day, astronomers had mainly been content with inquiry as to precisely *where* the heavenly bodies had been and would be; anything beyond the crudest speculation as to *what* these orbs might themselves be, rarely occurred. Not only has the older astronomy not been neglected, but the new astronomy of the nineteenth century has made uninterrupted progress with every decade; and this broad movement, begun by the Herschels in England, was ably promoted by Arago in France, nor has America failed to lend a hand. Not only was a "knowledge of the construction of the heavens" the ultimate object of the elder Herschel's observations, but his conception of the sun, as ruler, fire, light, and life of our planetary system, was more than a half century in advance of his time, and no less prophetic. As early as 1801 he wrote: "The influence of this eminent body on the globe we inhabit is so great, and so widely diffused, that it becomes almost a duty to study the operations which are carried on upon the solar surface." In our day many great observatories are charged with almost the sole duty of that study. Neither to the younger Herschel was astronomy merely a matter of right ascension and declination; of poising, clamping, and reading off; of cataloguing and correcting—a mere "inventory of God's property," as Thoreau has aptly said. "It was his peculiar privilege," remarked Dean Stanley in his funeral sermon, "to combine with those more special studies such a width of view and such a power of expression as to make him an interpreter, a poet of science, even beyond his immediate sphere."

Unintentionally we have left little space for Miss Clerke's chapter on Caroline Herschel—probably the best of all the brief treatments of her life extant. Traits of modest simplicity and singular self-effacement were preëminently hers, and the story of her self denial for her brother's sake will never grow old. Miss Clerke's welcome book is one which no philosophic student of modern astronomy can pass over, and its importance as pure biography places it in the first rank among the lives of famous pioneers in science.

The Oxford Church Movement: Sketches and Recollections. By the late G. Wakeling. With an Introduction by Earl Nelson. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

IN the great variety of books that have grown up about the Oxford Movement there have been many degrees of interest. Mr. Wakeling's place is near the bottom of the scale. It comes very near to being a *lucus a non lucendo*, there is so little in it about the Oxford Movement, speaking carefully. Dean Church, in his admirable history of the Movement, dates its conclusion from the condemnation of Ward in 1845. Certainly its influence upon the church for good or ill went on for a long time after that, but, though nearly related to the Ritualistic Movement, it was quite a differ-

ent thing. To read Pusey's 'Life and Correspondence' is to learn that he did not know the alphabet of that language of ceremonial observance which has too frequently been called "Puseyism." The spirit of Newman and Keble and Pusey in the early days of the Movement had its best representative after 1845 in Dean Church, and his indifference to the Ritualistic Movement is a striking feature of his beautiful biography. But it is of the Ritualistic Movement that Mr. Wakeling writes almost exclusively.

One of his earliest recollections as a boy was of some mention of the Tractarians in 1840. It follows that he was still a boy when the Movement collapsed five years later, and consequently all we have here concerning the Tractarians proper must be a matter of reading or mere hearsay. This fact is much disguised, we trust not wilfully, by the manner in which the matter of the book is presented. Everything in the arrangement is helter-skelter, and we pass back and forth across the line which divides the writer's personal knowledge from his second-hand material without a hint of the transition. Matters which occurred before his birth are produced as if he had sketched them on the spot. There is very little, however, about the Tractarians that we have not had before in better shape. The real interest and value of the book, so far as it has any, lies in its exhibition of the development of Ritualism. Even here, so wide is the field from which the facts are grubbed, only a small part can go to justify the "Recollections" of the title-page, and the whole is like the primitive chaos, without form and void. Only occasionally does a date emerge for us to cling to in the wide inundation of incidents and names.

The names are generally so unfamiliar that they go far to justify the complaint which has been made of the lack of conspicuous personality in the Ritualistic Movement. The incidents are trivial only to the unritualized mind, and there is something very entertaining in the naïve enthusiasm with which, page after page, such things are set down as these: "The choir were not in surplices till Advent, 1846." "The altar was the only part that there was a hope of making decent, and this, with the aid of dorsel and flowers at festivals, cross and candlesticks, was all that for some years was attempted." Many are the congratulations on the splendor of the later vestments, decorations, and observances, in comparison with the weak beginnings. Every change in this direction is recorded with the enthusiasm of one reporting moral victories. Here and there the triviality verges upon silliness, and, to make it more conspicuous, it is frequently injected into the body of a paragraph with which it has little or no connection, as if too good to lose. How incidents of such slight importance could have been remembered by anybody of good sound intelligence, it is difficult to conceive.

There is abundant evidence of improvement in the taste and decency of religious services. The parish clerk does not inform the rector nowadays between the prayers that the bear for the bear-baiting has arrived and that he is a fine animal. Daily service and weekly communion are the rule, and we should seek in vain for "the old country rector who, without the least conscious profanity, at the monthly celebration would consecrate nearly half a loaf, giving it at the end of the service to the poorer communicants who flocked to the altar rails." The heinousness of this, of course, depends somewhat upon the point of view. One habit, not distinctly moral, seemed rather to increase than to diminish under the new dispensation. "Mr. Keble mentions a saying of Justice Coleridge, 'If you want to propagate your opinions you should lend your sermons; the clergy would then preach them and adopt your opinions,' and this has really been the effect of the Plain and other Sermons. It seems a pity that the price of the volumes was so high." "What a boon these sermons must have been to hard-working parish priests who certainly could not secure the leisure to write more than one good sermon a week!" This sermon-stealing sometimes led to painful situations, and a sickly gleam of humor plays for a moment across Mr. Wakeling's solemn page when he tells of a few sermons, printed with a memoir, which the subject of the memoir had not written. Mr. Wakeling has not exaggerated the triumph of ritualism in the English church. Ward was condemned and disgraced because, in his 'Ideal Church,' he insisted on the right of the Anglican to the free use of the entire Roman ritual and doctrine. That was just fifty years ago. Now there are hundreds of Anglicans making good his claim, with no one to molest or make them afraid. The Church of England has given the Church of Rome an effectual check in England by the encouragement of home manufactures as nearly as may be resembling those of the Eternal City.

The Life of John Livingston Nevius. By Helen S. Coan Nevius. Fleming H. Revell Co.

It sometimes happens that the best works accomplished by a man during his life are left out of his posthumous biography. We are not sure but that something like this has happened in the present instance. Dr. Nevius was for nearly forty years a missionary in China, and the story of his life as told by his wife is one of great moral and spiritual beauty. He entered Shan Tung, the holy land of the Chinese, the birthplace and tomb of Confucius, when the people handed back the tracts and books of the missionaries, saying, "We neither approve nor desire them." He died after having, with his colleagues, planted Christian churches throughout the peninsula. This biography pictures him as husband, friend, teacher, author, and preacher. Yet, unless the reviewer mistake the impression left on his own mind by the Chinese themselves and by non-clerical and non-professional English-speaking people in China, Dr. Nevius was equally powerful and influential in other ways. His practical common sense, his knowledge of manual expedients, his power and willingness to aid the Chinese in applying the arts and sciences of the West, his willingness to meet them on their own ground and to respect their traditions and their sensibilities, were not least among the secrets of his power. These made him everybody's friend, and kept his influence ever potent. Without belittling "the power of the Gospel" or the ordinary means used to spread it, it is none the less true that the quality of manhood in the messenger is, at first, even more potent than the message. Among the hundreds sent out as missionaries to China there is still much room where Dr. Nevius dwelt when on earth—at the top.

John Nevius was born in the beautiful region of the "finger lakes" in central New York, spending his boyhood between those named Seneca and Cayuga. The name Nevius, from the French Neve but Latinized, proves, along with well-supported traditional and documentary evidence, that the ancestral stock was Huguenot and Netherlandish. His first venture in early manhood, after graduation from Union College, was as a school-teacher in Georgia. After a year of pedagogy he decided to enter the ministry, and went to study in Princeton Seminary. He married Miss Helen S. Coan (who survives him as biographer), and, after a six months' voyage, reached Ningpo in 1854, where Dr. D. Bethune McCartee had come as pioneer. In Ningpo, as a well-equipped speaker and writer of Chinese, he was finely prepared for his main life work in the province of Confucius. He died at his post and in his own home, in presence of his wife and among his books, after only a few hours of illness. His grave is at Chefoo. He visited Korea once and Japan several times. One is not surprised to have Mrs. Nevius write:

"As to the people of Japan, the opinion we formed of them so long ago [1860] has never changed. There is a certain shrewdness and vivacity and readiness to learn of others, in which they undoubtedly are superior to the Chinese; but in most respects I think the inhabitants of the 'Middle Kingdom' are fully their equals."

Rather above the average of missionary biography in piquancy of style, liveliness of narrative, and quality of details, this literary picture of an American gentleman who so grandly combined the ideal and the practical, deserves the study of young men as it will command the delighted attention of Dr. Nevius's old friends. There are illustrations, a map, and a good portrait, but no index.

Side Talks with Girls. By Ruth Ashmore. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Miss Ashmore speaks to girls with the wisdom of experience. This is just the sort of wisdom which, unless displayed with much discretion, girls are little disposed to profit by. The book is very discreet, the author putting herself easily on terms of equality with her audience, imparting advice tactfully, and, in every way, doing her best not to excite that rebellious spirit which prompts the daughters of each generation to think themselves wiser than their mothers. The most valuable chapters (for they discuss matters beyond the experience of many mothers) are those addressed to girls who leave comfortable homes in order to seek fortune in large cities. The descriptions of the life of the average actress, artist, and shop-girl are unexaggerated statement of fact. Any error is in understatement of the hardship and discouragement which the homeless working-girl must face, and of the demoralization which frequently ensues. For the girl whom actual necessity drives to scramble for a living as best she may, there are useful hints and suggestions of employment not leading to glory or fortune, but fairly remunerative and quite compatible with preservation of bodily health and personal decency.

In her comments the author emphasizes the joy of being a good girl at home, rather ignoring the sometimes besetting temptations to be a bad one. Fathers, mothers, and occasionally brothers, are not always compact of good temper, justice, and love; if they were, Miss Ashmore's talks would be largely superfluous, and the "Advanced Woman" whom she scourges might possibly never have come into existence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Almanach de Gotha, 1896. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Westermann.
Chambers, R. W. The Red Republic: A Romance of the Commune. Putnams. $1.25.
Channing, Grace E. The Sister of a Saint, and Other Stories. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

Chittenden, Capt. H. M. The Yellowstone National Park. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co.
Cortina, R. D. Modelos para Cartas en Español y en Inglés. New York: R. D. Cortina.
Coy, E. W. Latin Lessons for Beginners. American Book Co. $1.
Daggett, Mrs. C. S. Mariposilla: A Novel. Rand, McNally & Co.
Depew, C. M. 100 Years of American Commerce. New York: D. O. Haynes & Co.
Emerson, P. H. Marsh Leaves. Illustrated. London: David Nutt.
Gardner, E. C. The House that Jill Built. Springfield, Mass.: W. F. Adams Co. $1.
Gleason, C. W., and Atherton, Caroline S. First Greek Book. American Book Co. $1.
Gordon, A. C. Congressional Currency. Putnams. $1.25.
Hough, E. The Singing Mouse Stories. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $1.
Knapp, Charles. Stories from Aulus Gellius. American Book Co. 30c.
Lindsay, T. B. The Lives of Cornelius Nepos. American Book Co. $1.10.
Mercer, H. C. The Hill-Caves of Yucatan. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Miller, Prof. Konrad. Die Ältesten Weltkarten. III. Heft Stuttgart: Roth'sche Verlagshandlung; New York: Westermann.
Reekie, Charles. Day Dreams. New York: L. D. Robertson & Son.
Reichel, Rev. G. V. What Shall I Tell the Children? Object Sermons and Teachings. New York: W. B. Ketcham. $1.50.
Schipper, J. Grundriss der Englischen Metrik. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.
Schultz, F. W. Politics and Patriotism. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 50c.
Sherman, John. Recollections of Forty Years in the House, Senate, and Cabinet. An Autobiography. 2 vols. Chicago: The Werner Co. $7.50.
Stevens, B. F. Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America, 1773-'83. Vol. XXIV. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stevenson, R. L. A Child's Garden of Verses. Illustrated. London: Lane; New York: Scribners. $1 50.
Stevenson, R. L., and Henley, W. E. Macaire: A Melodramatic Farce. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.
Stevenson, R. L. Works. Vols. 6 to 11, and 16. [Thistle Edition.] Scribners.
Stowe, Harriet B. Uncle Tom's Cabin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Thackeray, W. M. Novels by Eminent Hands. Putnams. $1 75.

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JANUARY

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 9, 1896.

The Week.

ONE effect of the Venezuelan business has been to open the way for a short session of Congress. Before the end of the first month the House had passed both a revenue bill and a bond bill, each of which measures, in the natural course of things, would have taken some weeks. The Senate, of course, may use up a great deal of time over the two bills, but at any rate the upper branch has them in hand months before anybody expected it would when Congress met. The House can now devote itself to the appropriation bills, and should easily be able to dispose of all the routine business before the end of spring. It seems to be taken for granted that no other tariff bill will be brought forward in the House, even if the one recently passed should go through the Senate and be vetoed by the President. This alone would mean a great saving of time, and Speaker Reed can be trusted to do all in his power to get Congress off his hands before the Republican national convention meets. He understands that he could not do a more popular thing than to secure adjournment before the opening of summer. But he cannot "run" the Senate, and the old rules, under which time can be wasted by wholesale, still govern the upper branch.

The House bond bill for the relief of the Treasury was a very inadequate measure. It was not at all adapted to the situation, since it provided only for the issue of bonds at a lower rate of interest than could be sold under present conditions—that is, with a threat of war hanging over the country—and provided that these should be sold only by what is termed a "popular loan"—a method that has no existence in this country. Worse than this, the House bill provided that no future bond sales, under any law or laws, should be made except on the "popular" plan. This bad bill was not nearly bad enough for the Senate. Yet the imagination of man could hardly have conceived the kind of substitute that body is about to offer, namely, the free coinage of silver. To call this a substitute for a bond bill is clownish in the extreme. It would be dangerous but for the fact that it will not be accepted by the House and cannot possibly become a law. The majority there, though not composed of sound financiers, is at least anti-silver. Whatever happens in the Senate, and whether the Speaker interferes or not, the chances are all against a free-coinage bill going to the President by a vote of the House. To that extent the public mind may feel more composed now than six years ago.

It was undoubtedly an apprehension in the President's mind that the Elkins resolution would pass Congress that led to a change in the plan of the new $100,000,000 gold loan. That resolution provides that no bonds of the United States shall be sold by private contract, but that all shall be advertised and sold to the highest bidder. A Senate resolution does not possess the force of law, yet if it should alarm capitalists and break up the bond syndicate, it would have all the effect of a law. Undoubtedly it would drive all foreign participants out of the field and scare away all but the most intrepid of our financiers. Hence the change of plan announced in Mr. Carlisle's circular is forced upon the Administration. They could not take a step which might be interrupted at any time by a joint resolution of Congress. The new gold loan has now been advertised, and we shall see the result. If the public come forward and take the bonds and furnish the gold without first withdrawing it from the Treasury, so much the better. But how will the public get the gold to pay for them? There is no law to prevent subscribers for the new bonds from drawing the gold to pay for them out of the Treasury itself. The syndicate could prevent that operation by agreement among themselves: it was only necessary to send notice to all concerned that no subscriptions would be received which were to be paid with gold drawn from the Treasury. "The public" cannot be controlled.

Senator Sherman, by his speech on Friday, added as much confusion to the national finances as it was possible for one man to do. Most of his old misrepresentations were repeated. These it is not necessary to notice again. He has furnished some new ones, however, that possess a curious kind of interest. For example, he chides the Administration for not withholding all appropriations not made mandatory by Congress. "All appropriations which are not provided to carry into effect existing laws," he says, "are permissive, but not mandatory." Mr. Sherman holds that if the Secretary of the Treasury had refused to pay any appropriations that were not mandatory in form, "there would have been no difficulty about the gold reserve." This will be an invaluable guide for future Secretaries, until Congress impeaches one of them for following it. Mr. Sherman's next discovery is that although there is an actual surplus in the Treasury of $178,000,000, the deficiency of revenue is the cause of the decline of the gold reserve, and that all that is needed to bring it up to its normal figure is to increase the revenues by a tariff on wool and some other things. It is humiliating, he says, to read that the Government is negotiating for money with associated bankers, and that gold has been offered to it by a friendly power (which is officially denied), as though it were tottering on the verge of bankruptcy. To avoid this humiliation it is only necessary to increase the taxes, and meanwhile to borrow what you need from the people of the United States; Mr. Morgan and the associated bankers being, in Mr. Sherman's view, foreigners.

There are indeed many humiliating things nowadays. Among them must be counted a speech from an ex-Secretary of the Treasury abounding in such nonsense as this. But we have not come to the end of it, or anywhere near it; for Mr. Sherman makes a new suggestion for protecting the Treasury gold, and that is to require the national banks to keep their reserves in legal-tender notes exclusively. In other words, they should not be allowed to count their gold as a part of their legal reserve. These banks, he says, are the creation and instruments of the Government, and they should not be allowed to discredit the greenbacks by showing a preference for gold. Nor should the Government itself pay out gold for current expenses, because that tends to weaken the confidence of the people in the greenbacks. Immediate action should be taken by Congress to prevent this, he exclaims. A bill to embody these ideas would provide that no national bank shall be allowed to hold gold or to draw gold from the Treasury, and that the Treasury shall not be allowed to pay gold to anybody but exporters. A more efficient and intelligible measure, we submit, would be an act to fix the gold reserve at $100,000,000, and then prohibit all public officers from paying any out, and all private persons from drawing or attempting to draw any, under pain of instant death. In this way the reserve would be kept intact. Mr. Sherman is reported to have said lately that the root of the political and financial trouble is in those eight far Western States whose entire population and wealth does not equal that of New York, because in the Senate they cast sixteen votes to New York's two. What a vast improvement would follow if these sixteen Senators were all like Mr. Sherman!

Nobody at Washington expects the wool tax to become law, and the general opinion of the trade seems to be that it will fail either in the Senate or in the White House. To get it through the Senate unamended is sure to be a hard job, if for no other reason, on account of the desire of so many Senators to make friends of the mammon of protection in their own States by at least offering amendments and discoursing loudly upon the needs of their constituents. The most serious

difficulty of all is reported by the Washington correspondent of the *Dry Goods Economist*. He says that Senator Burrows is fully persuaded that the bill as it passed the House is absolutely unworkable, as it leaves rates conflicting in various schedules. So firmly convinced is he "that it would be impossible to administer the Dingley bill" that he says its form must surely be changed, even if its aim and substance are left untouched. As all depends, in tariff bills, upon their being susceptible of "administering," Senator Burrows's objection is certainly fatal. But it does show what a genius and superior capacity for legislation the Republicans possess, as they themselves admit.

Naval authorities—especially naval contractors and naval Congressmen—agree that more ships are likely to be voted by this Congress than have been authorized in some years. The Venezuelan war is good for large appropriations, they think, if for nothing else. The Chilian war scare was thought to have frightened two extra ships out of a reluctant Congress, and the Venezuelan business ought to mean at least half-a-dozen. Very likely it may. But it must be remembered that building a modern navy is one of the slowest jobs known to man. It is considered little short of a marvel that the two latest battleships to be added to the British fleet were turned out in two years' time. This means a vast change since the day when Pitt could demand the creation of a fleet in three months' time, and threaten to impeach the First Lord of the Admiralty if he did not produce it on the day fixed. But the two years necessary to build a new ship is often enough to antiquate two already in commission, and thus leave the fleet where it was before. Often, in fact, as in the case of our own *Texas*, just through with her trial trip, it is found that a ship is no sooner off the ways than her turrets "work badly," it takes her two hours to discharge a gun, her bottom is "shaky," and she must at once go out of commission for "extensive repairs."

The further one goes west from the Atlantic seaboard, the greater is the readiness for war with England over the Venezuelan boundary. An excellent authority in Indiana informs us that public sentiment in that State is substantially unanimous in support of President Cleveland's position. Still further towards the Pacific the feeling appears to be even stronger in favor of a fight. The Portland *Oregonian*, which recently pointed out that any backwardness in supporting extreme measures on the Atlantic Coast should count for nothing because this section was equally unpatriotic in the last war with England, gives prominence to a letter from "American," who argues at length that a war with England would be a good thing and would benefit the United States. As an index to a good deal of public feeling, this letter is worth summarizing. The correspondent urges that such a war "would unite all Americans and do away with all party feeling," and "would unite all South and North America, and make of them one of the greatest nations on the earth"; that the American people want a war, because "they all know that the wealth of the world has got into the hands of a few and that there is no relief for the masses," because "business is at a standstill and will remain so until something happens," and because "war is our only salvation," since "we are at the mercy of England as far as our finances go, and that is our only way out"; and, finally, because

> "War would be a good thing in many ways. It would set every idle man to work, either in the army or helping to supply the army. It would give men a chance to become famous who are unknown to-day. Too much peace brings strikes, idleness, and all kinds of crimes. Give the American people a chance, and they will drive the British flag into the sea, capture Canada and all England's possessions, and make America the greatest nation on earth. Then for another generation business will boom and confidence will be restored."

There could be no surer indication of the scatter-brained condition of the Jingoes as regards the Venezuelan controversy than the vast amount of comfort they extract out of the London *Chronicle's* Washington despatches. That paper's correspondent is engaged in reading the published documents, apparently for the first time, and his discoveries are so novel and startling to himself that he at once cables them as momentous to the civilized world. Then they are cabled back as evidence that England is at last "getting at the facts." Mr. Norman has now pushed his studies up to the time of the removal of the posts set up by Schomburgk, and wags his head gravely at finding no evidence for Salisbury's assertion that, when the posts were removed, "the concession was made on the distinct understanding that Great Britain did not thereby in any way abandon her claim." This may comfort the Jingoes and fool the *Chronicle*, but it will not deceive the Venezuelans. They know that what Salisbury said is strictly true, for in their own statement of their case they summarize the letter of Lord Aberdeen, dated March 30, 1844, as follows:

> "He says, in the first place, that the Government of her Majesty, in consenting to the removal of the marks, did not cede any of the rights which it might consider itself authorized to claim in the future, and that it had been moved solely by friendly deference to the requests of the Government of Venezuela."

Moreover, in Senate Document No. 226, dated July 26, 1888, containing "the correspondence relating to the pending dispute between the Government of Venezuela and the Government of Great Britain concerning the boundaries between British Guiana and Venezuela" (this correspondence begins in 1876 and runs on to 1888), there are no fewer than twenty-two references to the matter.

The *Evening Post* of Thursday printed two despatches which appeared in the San Francisco *Chronicle* of April last, and which throw a flood of light on the use which Venezuela expects to make of the territory over which she is disputing with Great Britain. It explains, too, in part, the prodigious Jingo racket about Venezuela which began early last year, and to which we unceasingly called the attention of the American public, as well as the "hollering" for a more "vigorous foreign policy" which the *Tribune's* old pensioner in Washington emitted three or four times a week. The speculators, as we see, expected a more vigorous foreign policy about this time. We have reason to believe that some of them, including United States Senators who are to sit on these questions of peace or war, waited on Secretary Gresham, not long before his death, to urge this policy on him; but, being a clear-headed man of peace, he not only declined their proposals, but took the liberty of pointing out to them the impropriety of their having anything to do with an affair which was likely to become a matter of international controversy. We are far from insinuating that they ever made any similar application to Mr. Olney, but he certainly did just what they wanted. The Jingo poison prepares a man's system for the speculative bacillus. It weakens his sense of propriety. It clouds his understanding and destroys his foresight, as we see in the havoc which Mr. Cleveland played with his own financial plans. In short, it often makes Americans fifty years old as thoughtless and rash and unreflecting as lads of twelve. Mr. Cleveland's discovery that patriotism could not be made to take the place of a sound currency shows the awful effects, even on strong characters, of this painful malady.

Even stranger "developments" of the Monroe Doctrine than those with which Mr. Olney has astonished us may yet be brought out. As far back as 1826 and the Panama Congress, the Southern Senators were invoking the Doctrine as a bulwark for slavery. Senator Berrien of Georgia said that it was all very well to brave the wrath of European Powers, but that "we must hold a language equally decisive to the South American states. We cannot allow their principle of universal emancipation to be called into activity in a situation where its contagion, 'from our neighborhood, would be dangerous to our quiet and safety'. . . . Will he [the President] quail before the new republics of the south when a dearer interest is at stake?" This shows how easy it is to get queer things out of the Monroe Doctrine when you let your logical faculty run riot without regard to the facts. We may yet see the Doctrine called into play to prevent the incursions of the gold standard in South America, or to demand the abandonment of the Catholic religion, the adoption of an eight-hours'

day and the English language, the buying of our newspapers in enormous editions, and the acceptance of many other of our peculiar institutions. When you begin to argue about what other people are bound to do in the interests of your peace and safety, you never know where you may fetch up.

An analysis of the occupations of members of the new Congress shows that more than one-half of the Senators and Representatives are lawyers. This does not vary materially from the usual proportion. A great preponderance of lawyers is also the rule in the State legislatures, except in the purely agricultural commonwealths. In other words, our legislation is largely, as it always has been, in the hands of lawyers. The character of the legal profession is therefore a matter of vital importance as regards the character of our law-making bodies. Is the standard among lawyers rising or falling? Is the tone of the profession higher or lower now than it used to be? Chief-Justice Field of the Massachusetts Supreme Court made some remarks before the alumni of the Boston Institute of Technology, the other day, which answered these questions, and answered them in a discouraging way. Among other things he said:

"When I look upon this audience and think of the great progress which has been made in the sciences and arts in this generation, I cannot but feel some shame to confess that no similar triumph or progress has been made in the profession to which I belong. The cause of legal education has been advanced; the mode of the profession in Massachusetts has been improved; but the leaders in the profession of the present generation, I should hesitate to say, were much in advance of the leaders of the last generation or of the generation before that. I doubt whether there has been much advance in civil government in Massachusetts in the last generation or two. I shall not inquire into the causes. I doubt very much if the men in public life to-day are wiser than our fathers or grandfathers."

The "doubt" and "hesitation" here expressed seem plainly to be only a courteous method of expressing a conviction that neither the legal profession nor the standard of public life in New England now is as high as it was a generation or two ago. Considering the inbred repugnance of every lawyer to making an admission which reflects upon his brethren, the opinions expressed by the Massachusetts Chief Justice seem very significant.

Utah is now a State in the Union. The State officers were installed on Monday, and the Legislature met, its most important duty being the choice of two United States Senators. The Republicans control the body by a vote of more than two to one, but, so far as the financial issue is concerned, the partisan complexion of the Legislature is a matter of no consequence. The two Republican Senators will be "red hot" for free coinage; and if the men chosen were Democrats, they would be of the same mind on this question. The sound-money cause will thus be put at a further disadvantage in the Senate, where its representatives are already in a minority. The next thing to be expected is a strong movement for the admission of Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, and the consequent strengthening of the free-coinage element in the upper branch by six more votes.

The newly elected Legislature of Massachusetts has begun the new year brilliantly. A caucus of Republican members was held, in which all the other officers of the last General Court were renominated by acclamation except the Clerk, Mr. Edward McLaughlin, who has served fifteen years—longer than any of his predecessors, and to the entire satisfaction of everybody. He was defeated for renomination by some ten votes, in favor of an unknown and inexperienced person. The operation was understood to be conducted by A. P. A. influence, Mr. McLaughlin being a Democrat and a Catholic. Some of the most distinguished Republicans protested in the caucus, but others declared that the whole country had its eyes fixed on the Massachusetts Legislature, to see if the Republicans would stand true. One member declared he needed time to rub his eyes, as it seemed that he was not in a Republican caucus, but one controlled by Democrats or Mugwumps; and another characterized those who proposed to keep Mr. McLaughlin in office by the elegant name of "snivel-service reformers." The attempt barely succeeded in the House itself, the raw recruit having only 122 votes out of 232. Mr. McLaughlin himself pointed out that, if the dominant party were bound to make a change, they might have promoted the Assistant Clerk, who was of the right party. But no; the same influence that trampled on all law and decency in the veterans'-preference bill of last year, prevailed to violate precedent, reason, sense, and good feeling to turn out a fit man from a place with which politics, race, and religion have nothing on earth to do, and put in an untried man of the right sort. When Massachusetts is determined to disgrace herself, she certainly knows how.

Mr. Olney informed Lord Salisbury that it would be "preposterous" for any American state to involve itself in a contest over "the fate of Turkey." Nothing can be more certain, however, than that his threatening letter and the President's talk of war have involved us most closely with the Turkish question. We may not have meant to have anything to do with the fate of Turkey, but we have, the best European authorities agree, sealed the fate of the Armenians. Their rescue and salvation depended upon a perfect concert among the Powers and an unyielding and threatening front all along the line, especially on the part of England. These things we have done our best to destroy, and have, in a measure, already destroyed. The Sultan's desperate play against time, his waiting for some European nation to blunder, would all have been in vain had not the blunder come from the great Christian nation of the West. Just after protesting and appealing in the name of humanity, just after holding great public meetings and organizing associations in behalf of the smitten Armenians, we struck at their stoutest protector and strongest hope, and left them, so far as in us lay, helpless. Mr. Cleveland's war message could nowhere have been greeted with such rapture as when, done into choice Turkish, it was read in the Yildiz Palace. We are glad to see that a sense of the enormous mischief thus wrought is beginning to get into the American mind. The Baptist preachers of this city have resolved that, if we must have a war, we should cut a much better figure fighting to save the Armenians than to kill Englishmen. Of all the hollow petitions ever laid before Congress, those praying for prompt interposition in behalf of the Armenians are the hollowest. The American Congress has already acted on the Armenian question, and its unanimous vote has been that the Turkish butcheries may go on.

The Cuban insurgents are evidently doing some pretty effective raiding, and the Spanish troops are active, but neither side is waging war with anything like the fury of the newspaper correspondents. How much their rivalry (which is often little more than a rivalry in lying) tends to befog all foreign news, especially any news connected with war or rumors of war, the general public is but dimly aware. Some three weeks ago one of the associations had Havana all but captured, and on Saturday its fall was only a question of days. But on Monday that news agency withdrew for a time from the war, admitting that there was no likelihood of the insurgents making a serious attack upon Havana. This left its competitor a clear field, and accordingly it, in its turn, was undertaking on Tuesday to capture Havana out of hand. Now it may be that the Spanish generals have gone utterly daft, or that their men won't fight, or that the insurgents have invented a new art of war. But if not, the chances that Havana will be taken, in the present stage of the conflict, are too small to be worthy of consideration. Admitting the highest claims of the insurgents, the Spanish troops outnumber them three or five to one. The one great aim of the Spanish generals has been to protect commerce, to hold the cities, especially the seaports, meanwhile praying heaven that the elusive insurgents might be caught where they would have to deliver battle. To guess, therefore, from what is probably only a daring raid of flying guerillas near Havana, that a regular and successful assault is to be made upon that city, only betrays the nervous strain to which the news-gatherers are subjected in their determination to let no "scoop" escape.

THE VENEZUELAN COMMISSION.

JUDGE BREWER of the Supreme Court is a man of solid reputation for learning and impartiality. It is believed by those who know him that Judge Alvey possesses similar qualifications. President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University and ex-President White of Cornell are too well known to need description. Mr. Coudert was one of the American counsel in the Bering Sea arbitration, and is understood to be a supporter of the President's contentions in the Venezuela dispute. Looking at the character of the commission as a whole, it seems to portend peace.

These commissioners are to "investigate and report upon the true divisional line between the republic of Venezuela and British Guiana." They are not to be envied. The task set for them is not to consider the actual condition of affairs, past and present, and suggest a fair and reasonable boundary, with a view to reconciling the conflicting interests of the British colonists and the Venezuelans. They are to find the "true divisional line." They might as well search for the true boundaries of Liliput; for there never has been such a line. If they could go as mediators, for the purpose of bringing both sides to agree on a compromise, their going would at least have a humane and rational motive. Unfortunately, our Government, by its mismanagement of the whole matter, has condemned them to go with an attitude of threatening and hostility towards one of the parties, and has limited their function to a very narrow scope.

As regards the basin of the Essequibo and its tributaries, an impartial commission would probably have no hesitation in pronouncing the English claim well founded. The old and generally accepted rule that, in the occupation of new regions, possession of a river at its lower course carries with it the sovereignty of its upper waters and tributaries, gives a clear principle for the decision of the Cuyuni question. So conscious are the Venezuelans of the weakness of their case at this point, that they have felt themselves compelled to maintain the obviously untenable contention that the Dutch did not really hold the Essequibo—that they only held "up to it." Now nothing can be clearer than that the Dutch held both sides of the river. No reasonable man can read even the Venezuelan case without seeing that very clearly. As to the title to the wilderness of the Essequibo basin, then, there can hardly be much difficulty. A boundary based on this principle would undoubtedly be awkward for Venezuela; but that our commissioners are not to consider.

Unfortunately, the possession of the upper basin of the Essequibo is not the burning part of the controversy. The real difficulty arises as to the line of division on the coast. The Venezuelans adduce a variety of treaties and records, with a labored and declamatory effort to show that they prove something in their favor; but the result falls lamentably short of a demonstration that the Venezuela claim is good. Their argument rests on an assumption for which they can hardly expect much favor in the United States—the assumption that the whole continent of South America belonged to the Spaniards, and that no other people could acquire a legitimate title to any part of it except by cession from Spain. By a constant use of this assumption, they ask us to hold that Venezuela, as the heir of Spain, has a just title to everything in the region of the Essequibo and the Orinoco which Spain cannot be shown to have ceded to the Dutch. Strike out this fundamental assumption, and their whole case is gone. If the contestants stand on equal terms, if we adopt the just principle that proof of occupation is as necessary for Venezuela as it is for British Guiana, in order to make good a claim, then we are forced to the conclusion that Venezuela's contention is as empty as it well could be.

Evidence of occupation by Spain of any post or place between the Orinoco and the Essequibo is wholly lacking in their voluminous case. Such evidence of occupation as this supplies goes in favor of the Dutch. Their papers make it clear that the Dutch had a fort on the Pomeroon, a small river of the disputed coast, and that they used the interior passages between that point and the Orinoco. Further, it is pretty clear, even from the Venezuelan evidence, that the Dutch had a hold of some sort on the mouth of the Orinoco. The Venezuelans endeavor to meet these facts by asserting that whatever the Dutch held between the Essequibo and the Orinoco was "usurped"; that their occupation therefore gave no title in the absence of cession by the original owners, the Spanish. Fancy the smile of an old Dutch skipper at the suggestion that the Dutch must humbly ask leave of Spain before occupying wild lands in America. If the English and the Dutch had proceeded on that principle, America would have been a very different country to-day.

The two treaties on which the Venezuelans rest so much have simply nothing to help our commissioners in fixing the "true divisional line," because neither of them says anything about a line. The treaty of Munster of 1648 was primarily a very tardy acknowledgment by Spain that her rebellious Dutch subjects had made themselves an independent nation. It further provided that both parties should keep whatever territories they possessed in America at the date of the treaty. But it makes no mention of the limits between their possessions, has not a word about boundaries. It pledges Holland not to take any more land from Spain, but it leaves Holland free to acquire any lands not occupied by Spain. To say that it binds Holland not to extend over the wild lands between the Essequibo and the Orinoco is to beg the whole question, for it is to assume that Spain was occupying that territory, and for such occupation not a tittle of evidence has been produced.

The other treaty on which Venezuelans place chief reliance, the one which they say has "insuperable probatory force" in their favor, is that of Aranjuez, made between Spain and Holland in 1791. This was simply an extradition treaty in which mutual return of fugitives is agreed on, between the Spanish settlements on the Orinoco and the Dutch settlement on the Essequibo. But it tells us nothing as to boundary between these settlements. The Venezuelans profess to see in it insuperable proof that the Essequibo was the boundary; and in this their patron, Senator Lodge, seems disposed to follow them. But the treaty is quite as favorable to the conclusion that the Orinoco was the boundary. A case that needs such inferences for its support must be in desperate need of materials.

One important piece of evidence as to actual boundary seems to have escaped both the Venezuelans, who offer it, and Senator Lodge, who avows his impartial study of the whole matter. It is found at page 26 of the Venezuelan case, as published in volume ii., Senate documents for 1888. We will add that it is the only clear bit of evidence as to the old boundary that is to be found in the whole mass of papers submitted. The document in which it occurs is a Spanish royal order of the year 1780, "in which were established rules to people the province of Guiana and to occupy lands." Here is the opening sentence of the Venezuelan account of this royal order:

> "It is there declared, in the first place, that it was of the most importance to secure the limits of the said province, which commenced at the windward of the fall of the river Orinoco into the sea, on the border of the Dutch colony of Essequibo."

This, we repeat, is the only clear bit of evidence as to the old boundary between Dutch and Spanish that can be found in the whole collection of papers. It is therefore somewhat precious, both as to its date and the source from which it comes. It leaves no doubt that in 1780 the Spanish Government admitted the extension of the Dutch possessions to the mouth of the Orinoco. We commend the extract to Mr. Lodge's attention.

There is one trick of the Venezuelan spokesmen in which Mr. Olney and Mr. Lodge diligently copy them. This is the device of representing every offer of compromise made by England at any time as her "extreme claim." We are not at all concerned to justify England, but we think she is entitled to have her case truthfully represented. We owe it to ourselves, if not to her, to state the case as it actually stands and has stood. England's claim, as a claim, has always been just what it is now. Her claim as of right has always been that she was entitled to the basin of the Essequibo and to the coast as far as the Orinoco. Lord Aberdeen appears to have stated it so to For-

tique in 1844. It is true that, in his effort to make a peaceful settlement with Venezuela, he offered concessions in order to fix a boundary of mutual convenience. His offer was open to Venezuela for six years, and, not having been accepted, was withdrawn in 1850. At the time of making it, notice was given that it implied no abandonment of the larger claim of right. The same was true of every later offer of a compromise line. To represent these offers as identical with the whole claim, and to say that "the claim" has been enlarged, or "developed" from stage to stage, is only the trick of the pettifogger. Mr. Olney ought to have left it to the Venezuelans.

DE DOCTRINÂ AND DE FACTO.

We have no doubt many a simple-minded Jingo will be surprised to hear that in the negotiations for the only application of the Monroe Doctrine to Spanish-American affairs which we have ever made—the expulsion of the French from Mexico—there was no mention of the Monroe Doctrine at all. Neither Mr. Seward, who was in the State Department, nor Mr. John Bigelow, who conducted the correspondence in Paris, said a word about the Doctrine. They approached the situation from the *de-facto* side solely. A foreign army was imposing on the Mexican people a foreign ruler and a new form of government by force. Mr. Seward said he did not undertake to dictate to the Mexican people what kind of government they should have. They might have Maximilian if they pleased, but they must be free to choose, and therefore the French troops should be withdrawn. In this Mr. Seward was adhering strictly to the ground taken by Calhoun in 1848 in the Senate, when, contesting the very use now made of the Monroe Doctrine, he said:

> "It goes infinitely and dangerously beyond Mr. Monroe's declaration. It puts it in the power of other countries on this continent to make us a party to all their wars; and hence I say, if this broad interpretation be given to these declarations, we shall for ever be involved in war. But no general rule can be laid down to guide us in such a question. Every case must speak for itself. Every case must be decided on its own merits. Whether you will resist or not, and the measure of your resistance—whether it shall be by negotiation, remonstrance, or some intermediate measure, or by a resort to arms—all this must be determined and decided on the merits of the question itself. This is the only wise course. We are not to have quoted on us on every occasion general declarations to which any and every meaning may be attached."

This is exactly what is now happening. Everybody who has the handling of the Doctrine is "developing" it to suit himself.

Now there is nothing more dangerous, not to say disastrous, for any nation than attempting to live *de doctrinâ* instead of *de facto*. Doctrinal government has all the inconveniences of theocratic government, because doctrines do not change with circumstances or make allowance for human necessities. The Government of Turkey is a doctrinal government, that is, is ruled by a "sacred law," which makes all reforms in the state impossible and has led to the ruin of the Ottoman Empire. Doctrinal government, too, was tried by the Puritans in England and here, and perforce abandoned as unsuitable to modern societies. Its leading characteristic is an *à-priori* rule of conduct which leaves no room for the play of convenience or policy, or considerations of time or place, and takes no note of facts. The Monroe Doctrine, for instance, assumes that now, as in 1823, the Spanish-American states are in imminent danger of conquest at the hands of European Powers. The changes of seventy years both here and abroad make no more impression upon it than on the Koran. When the President hears of a dispute between a European Power and a Spanish-American state, it compels him to assume sinister designs on the part of the former, and make his preparations for war accordingly in advance of any inquiry as to facts. Under *de-facto* government, the first thing he would do would be to ascertain the facts and be guided by the result in his subsequent action. Under the Doctrine, Great Britain is a giaour, whose designs are always, under the sacred law, open to suspicion, and he pronounces her guilty before investigation. The Doctrine in like manner produced Secretary Olney's despatch, which was really a sermon, not treating of actual facts—in truth, full of statements which were not facts at all, but developments of a sort of divine law, such as one hears in the pulpit, and which, while full of edification, is totally unsuited to the needs and risks of actual life.

If any one thinks we are overstating, in this description of the position which the Monroe Doctrine has come to occupy in the mental furniture of the average Jingo, we advise him to read the articles in the country papers, and the occasional speeches of politicians, and the resolutions of Jingo clubs called out by the present crisis. He will find the Monroe Doctrine treated very much like the Ten Commandments, as part of the foundation of national life, behind which no one can go in tracing out our foreign policy. Not one in one hundred knows what it is, or what it means, or how or where it should be applied. But all agree that it imposes on all rulers an attitude of hostility to foreign Powers and calls for what is termed "a vigorous foreign policy." Asking a Jingo whether the Monroe Doctrine was a good thing to live under, and whether it would not be better to live under the facts of each year, would be very like asking the Sheik-ul-Islam whether the English common law would not be a good substitute for the Koran. It marks you as a "bad American," a paid emissary of some foreign Power. And yet, seeing the use that has been made of it by one of the most conservative of our Presidents and by a corporation lawyer from Boston, one of the most cautious of types, is it rash to say that it contains in it the seeds of endless misery and turmoil for the American people? As now used and interpreted, it might do for a conquering horde like the Ottomans, or a strictly pastoral people like the Paraguayans, but for a people with vast commerce and a huge edifice of credit, it contains the sure seeds of decline and destruction.

Daniel Webster's test of the necessity of interference in Spanish-American affairs was "manifest and imminent danger to our essential rights and our essential interests." The notion that we cannot perceive this when it arises, and act accordingly, without a "doctrine" behind us, would be diverting if its consequences were not likely to be so grave. What these consequences are likely to be, was well pointed out by Calhoun, in speaking of the interpretation then (1848) put on the Doctrine by some, and now adopted by many of us, when he said:

> "And if it should ever become so to the wide extent to which these declarations have been interpreted to go, our peace would ever be destroyed; the gates of our Janus would ever stand open. Wars would never cease."

THE AFRICAN TROUBLE.

Although the news of Dr. Jameson's filibustering expedition against the Boers of the South African Republic has taken the world by surprise, it is very much what one might have expected from the history of that region during the past six or seven years. The Boers have a restricted suffrage—that is, it is confined to males resident in the Republic before 1876, or who took an active part in the war of 1881 with the British, and their children from the age of sixteen. These form a class apart, of "first-class burghers," and elect the President and the commandant of the militia. The "second-class burghers" are a class composed of naturalized aliens, who can become first-class burghers only by a special resolution of the Chamber after twelve years' residence. Two years' residence and the payment of $10 are necessary to naturalization. The total population, native and naturalized, in 1894 was 370,148, about equally divided between the sexes; but no very reliable census has been taken. Now, these first-class burghers being mainly Dutch Calvinists, and excellent fighting men of the type of Joshua and Gideon, it can be readily imagined that they do not smile upon the 30,000 or 40,000 adventurers, mostly English, who have swarmed into the gold and diamond fields which, unfortunately for the Boers, have been discovered in the territory of the Republic. These men, who have done great work in developing the resources of the country, and have filled its treasury to overflowing with their taxes, are, however, shut out from all share in the government, and are not provided by it with police, schools, roads, or any of the ordinary instrumentalities of civilization. Moreover, they are

regarded by the Boers with great contempt, which is but ill concealed.

The case is, in fact, somewhat like our settlement of Texas—a sudden influx of foreigners into a state held by a weak government, and which the foreigners after a while determine to seize, and fight for it, as their numbers increase and their discontent grows. Moreover, the antecedents of the foreigners are distinctly bellicose. Dr. Jameson, the leader, organized and successfully led the first armed expedition against the colored natives of the South African Company, whose organization and operation up to this point recall the early history of the East India Company, the only other fighting corporation Great Britain has ever sent out. The members of this expedition were very proud of their exploits, and they have naturally fired the imagination of the more recent arrivals, who are generally adventurous spirits; so that it might almost be said to be "on the cards" that the "Jameson crowd," as we should say, would eventually swallow up the Republic. Indeed, in the ordinary course of events nothing was more certain than the ousting of the Dutch from power by the mere growth of the aliens, so that there has been no excuse for fighting. But the truth is, that Jameson has been reinforced during the past two years by a very large number of younger sons and scions of aristocratic families, who find nothing to do at home, and much prefer fighting to mining and agriculture. They were as eager for an encounter with somebody as our Jingoes here, with this difference, that they were ready to serve in the field, while our Jingoes mostly intended to confine themselves, in case of war, to reading the "extras." The imagination of this class in England is kept in a blaze from childhood up by the stories of Clive and Rajah Brooke, and the exploits of Wellington and other Indian heroes against inferior races. If they could have ousted the Boers, they would all have become rulers of the Republic, and their fame, like that of Rhodes and Jameson, would have filled all the land at home, and especially the football teams in the public schools. The Boers were an unfortunate selection, however, as materials for fame and dominion. They are probably as tough fighting-men as ever took the field, and will probably be hereafter avoided by amateur empire-builders.

The latest advices show that the expedition has been defeated and the survivors locked up. They will probably be treated leniently or kindly, for it would be very foolish for so small a community as the Boers to embitter the rising foreign host which stands behind these men. Their only salvation would lie in the prohibition of immigration, but this is no longer possible. The flood of English adventurers is rising higher every day in the Transvaal. If the Boers continue to deny them representation and a fair share in the government, attempts like Jameson's will be repeated on a greater scale than ever, and the Boer domination be certainly overthrown. If, on the other hand, the Boers admit the foreigners to the franchise on equal terms, they will soon be outvoted and ousted from the administration of their own country, and annexation to the Cape Colony would speedily follow. In fact, there is only too much reason for believing that Jameson's attempt was secretly instigated by Rhodes. It is difficult to account for his making it in any other way. This attempt was probably made only by the more adventurous spirits. In the next a large number of the more sober-minded "uitlanders" would probably participate. The disappearance of the Boers as a community would be very regrettable, for they are a race with great qualities and a splendid history, though archaic and non-progressive in their ways; but their doom was sealed when gold was discovered in their territory. Neither thrones, principalities, nor powers can stand up againt a rush of Anglo-Saxon gold-hunters.

The German Emperor has sent a despatch to the Boers over the heads of the British authorities, who, by the convention of 1884, are the sole representatives of the Transvaal in foreign affairs, congratulating them on the repulse of a band of British malefactors. This in England is, excusably enough, considered insulting, and might cause a war between him and his grandmother, in which he would unquestionably get the worst of it. In the first place, his little navy would either have to venture out to sea and fight—in which case, it would be promptly destroyed—or it would have to shut itself up in port. In either case the German ports would be all blockaded, and their foreign commerce destroyed, except what could reach the sea through other countries. In the next place, he could not bring a regiment of his fine army into play against the British anywhere, and could not get within two thousand miles of the Boers. In the third, he would promptly lose all the German colonies abroad, including the principal one, New Guinea, which the Australians are only too ready to seize. He would be unable to defend his colonies in Africa, which Rhodes and his men would be too happy to appropriate. The only contingency in which he could make even a decent struggle would be through an alliance with France, but to get this he would have to surrender Alsace and Lorraine. France is the only Power in Europe which has a navy that could successfully stand up against that of Great Britain, but in the next naval war most of the ships engaged will probably be sunk on the spot, leaving the Power with most ships mistress of the seas, and that Power will probably be Great Britain, who would, after a general war, in all likelihood occupy the position in Europe she occupied after Trafalgar. All persons proposing to attack her ought to consider all these things seriously. She is never such a dangerous enemy as in the face of a combination against her.

LAUREATES AND POETS.

The general sense of disappointment at the choice of Mr. Alfred Austin as Poet Laureate is not wholly personal to himself. If better men were passed over, it must be remembered that some of them at least were not eligible to the office. Swinburne and Morris are not the sort of men to be moved to lyrics by a Queen's great-grandchild; certainly neither of them could be expected to burst into unpremeditated song, as Mr. Eric Mackay did, over the Duke of York's marriage, apropos of which heroic feat he wrote:

"He has fulfilled new duties, not set down,
But done for pride of Country and of Crown!"

Among the eligibles, Mr. Austin was perhaps as well qualified as any. He had serious disqualifications in his political and journalistic relations to Lord Salisbury (he is the principal leader-writer of the *Standard*), but the impropriety of overlooking these is the Premier's, not Mr. Austin's. The slight shock of surprise which his appointment caused was partly due to the rude ending of the hope which had come to be generally cherished that no appointment at all would be made. It was partly due, no doubt, to the revived sense of Tennyson's loss, which the choice of a new Laureate will make vivid in many minds. But this is not the whole of it—not that Mr. Austin takes the laurel greener from the brows of him who uttered nothing banal. A good part of the dissatisfaction arises from an enlarged conception of poetry in the modern world, from the more exacting demands made upon it, and from a feeling that a man who might have done well enough as Laureate fifty or a hundred years ago is no longer of the stature required. If Scott lived to say that it was lucky for him that he had written his poetry in a time when poetical taste was unformed, if Southey and N. P. Willis could be ranked among the immortals on the strength of poems which are now almost absolutely unreadable, it can scarcely be denied that the standards have become higher, the demands severer.

That we should demand the best in poetry, and be content with nothing less, was Matthew Arnold's frequent word of exhortation. But what it meant, as a poet, to produce his best, he tells us in a striking passage in his 'Letters.'

"People do not understand," he writes to his sister, "what a temptation there is, if you cannot bear anything not *very good*, to transfer your operations to a region where form is everything. Perfection of a certain kind may there be attained, or at least approached, without knocking yourself to pieces; but to attain or approach perfection in the region of thought and feeling, and to unite this with perfection of form, demands not merely an effort and a labor, but an actual tearing of one's self to pieces, which one does not readily consent to (although one is sometimes forced to it) unless one can devote one's whole life to poetry. Wordsworth could give his whole life to it, Shelley

and Byron both could, and were besides driven by their demon to do so. Tennyson, a far inferior natural power to either of the three, can; but, of the moderns, Goethe is the only one, I think, of those who have had an *existence assujettie*, who has thrown himself with a great result into poetry."

Now, it is altogether certain that such a standard, accepted as it is doubtless coming more and more to be, is giving a new meaning to the phrase, "poésie oblige," and is proving fatal to at least two types of poetry and poets. One of them is what we may call the business poet, who produces his poems in the spirit of the Englishman who said to Canova's son that he supposed he would carry on his father's "business." Southey is perhaps the best example of the plodding, industrious poet, doing his daily stint with the conscientiousness and set face of a bicycler completing his "century." He always gave good measure—not a line scamped, his butter-woman's jog trot never easing down into a walk for twelve thousand verses. He would lay out his Roderick the Goth or his Madoc the Celt with the precision of a military engineer, and would plough his way through to the bitter end without remorse. Seizing his pen before breakfast (as if, as Bagehot says, any man could write poetry before breakfast!), he would go on for hours turning out a good, sound, honest, perfectly business-like, and deadly dull article of poetry. If we have not changed all that, we have at least made it impossible that such a man should longer be called a great poet. Not of such a poet or such poetry was Matthew Arnold thinking when he asserted that the future of poetry is immense.

Nor was he thinking of another and larger class of poets, more numerously and assertively with us. We mean those of a certain natural poetic sensitiveness, who often charm us in their youth with their fine perception, their responsiveness to nature and art, and who lure us on to expect great things of their maturer powers. But this early promise they never fulfil. They remain at forty or fifty essentially immature, always in search of external sensations, of novel and taking themes, singing not because they must, but because they want to. Nowhere in their verse do we find the "breath and finer spirit of knowledge." All too seriously as they take themselves, they fail because they do not take the poetic calling seriously enough. They imagine that good intentions may do in place of strenuous thought and self-discipline, that poems to uplift and sustain may be struck off extempore, or in the intervals of restless activities, professional, social, or philanthropic.

Mr. Austin appears to be a union of both types. He has written a lot of long poems of good marketable texture, but you have to rummage the dictionary, not your memory, to find even their titles. In the course of a long *existence assujettie* he has produced much descriptive and mildly exclamatory verse. Of the tearing himself to pieces in order to unite perfection of thought and feeling with perfection of form, of being "happy in the toil that ends with song," of poetry as a criticism of life, he appears to be innocent. It is something, then, to find from his appointment as Laureate that the public taste has advanced so far as to see that the appointment should not have been made.

THE EASTERN QUESTION.

ROME, December 22, 1895.

THE sudden halt in the English action in the Armenian redemption has surprised every one, and irritated some of the political agencies which had hoped, for various and different reasons, to see England plunge into the solution of the interminable and insoluble Eastern question, and are correspondingly either dismayed or disappointed by the sudden and hitherto unaccountable recoil from the advanced position Lord Salisbury had taken. It is well known that Russia had at all times opposed the English plans, because they promised a solution of the problem of what to do with the Sick Man, by eliminating the cause of the malady, viz., the gangrene of Mussulman misrule—deposing the Sultan and imposing a ruler who would have to admit the right of Europe to dictate the conditions of government where it had the duty and the charge of protection; or of finally dividing the country according to the general interests of the protecting Powers and of the populations. I suppose that it may be taken as indisputable that there were those among the powerful, if not among the Powers, who desired that England should precipitate the eternally impending conflict in Europe, to give them a chance to settle some outstanding accounts of their own; and others who really desired the final regulation of the Eastern question in the real interests of European tranquillity. Others there were who fully expected, without any especial interest, that England, having put her hand to the plough, would go through the furrow. All were alike surprised at the sudden halt. Writing to an esteemed correspondent in London, one of the oldest and best informed journalists of England, I had expressed some of these feelings as entertained here and by myself, as warmly interested, through past experiences, in the Turkish problem, and was surprised to receive from him the following reply:

"It is never of much use to prophesy in politics, but I venture to differ with you about Turkey. It is the old story. England is always defeated, as she was about Egypt, until suddenly she strikes some tremendous stroke, and then the world says, Who would have thought it? Of course if Mr. Cleveland is seeking war with us, all calculations are vain; but if not, I venture to say that nothing but the removal of this Sultan can save Turkey from partition. Very slowly and very silently the English are getting to their white heat. However, it is useless arguing about the future. At present the only thing certain is that we are going to add two millions a year to the grant for the navy."

Not having been looking westward for some time, absorbed in Eastern questions, I had no knowledge of the controversy, rather than negotiations, going on between the United States of America and England with regard to Venezuela, and I replied, supposing I knew something of public opinion in America, that there could be no danger of such a fire in the rear, and that nothing in the Venezuelan question justified a fear that the United States would provoke a quarrel when this so important question was pending of the existence of millions of Christians in Turkey, whose only hope was in the efficacy of English intervention. I could not believe that Cleveland could so far melt into the Jingo as to join in the hullabaloo of the shallow-pated crowd whose highest ambition seems to be to "twist the lion's tail."

It seems that I was mistaken, and now I recur to an earlier letter of the same respected correspondent, written in November, in which occurs the following passage:

"If you will read attentively the latter part of the speech of Lord Salisbury at the Mansion House, you will see that in his own mind he has doomed the Ottoman Empire, and he has a majority of 152. I dare say you know, better than I do, that the confidential reports to this Government represent the massacres in a much worse light than the papers do.* The Sultan has resolved on the extermination of the Armenian people. I expect some 'incident' hourly which will bring matters to a head—perhaps a great massacre of American missionaries, in which case we should act instantaneously, even if all Europe opposed and threatened us. Inferior Turks know nothing of America, and are furious with the missionaries."

The writer of the above is an eminent Liberal, not a partisan of Salisbury, a consistent and devoted Christian, and, like the greater part of the English people, interested in the work of our missionaries and in the pure humanity of the Turkish problem. The position of the English nation was greatly controlled by this sentiment, and perhaps, of all the late great movements of English public opinion, this was the least selfish and profoundest in its appeal to the best part of the English nature. Adequately supported, it must have settled the question of how long Christian Europe would let the slaughter of unoffending Christians be carried on by a fanatic Sultan, served by a bloodthirsty mob and an equally bloodthirsty and fanatical soldiery, under the protection of the Christian Powers. From Russia nothing was to be hoped for, as the Russian (people or Government) detests the Armenian only less than does the Turk; and as the Armenian is the most civilized and teachable of the many races in Asia Minor, he is that one who will most easily be brought to the work of putting in order the reformed Empire—which does not suit the schemes of Russia.

Thanks to President Cleveland and his fire in the rear, England has been stopped in her benefaction, and it is Christianity, not English interests, which must pay the bill; for, with this nefarious attack at such a critical moment, it is out of the question that England could allow herself to be engaged in any difficulty on the other side of the Atlantic. England has only to do her best that the attempted solution shall not lose ground and human interests go backward, and hope in the spring to be able to resume the action where it was left off, with the tide perhaps at the ebb, while it was before at the flood, with Russia thoroughly prepared and her ascendency over the Sultan assured beyond any contest. The missionaries are not murdered because the Power that could have protected the Armenians, and would not, would have the missionaries protected for fear of the intervention becoming more prompt and effectual; but the murdering and outrage go on as steadily if not as multitudinously as before, and the extermination of a Christian people goes on from day to day systematically and deliberately, though in such a way as to permit the great Powers not to be driven, despite themselves, to recognize the fact that nothing has been done to redeem the situation,

* This I did know. The confidential reports received in Rome far exceed all that the governments have allowed to appear in print.

and that when the spring comes with the Russian intervention ready, there will be the new pretext that the remnant of the Armenian population is not large enough to justify the chance of war on their behalf.

This is the triumph of Mr. Cleveland. It is hardly necessary to say that throughout Italy, where there are no enemies of the United States, but mostly warm friends, the voice of condemnation for this unprovoked and unnecessary crisis, which disturbs the best intentions of Italy as well as England, is universal. Not a single journal or public man speaks otherwise than in condemnation of the course of our Government; and in a land where constitutional law has a special study, not a constitutional lawyer can frame an excuse for the same. X.

SUDERMANN'S "LOVE IN A COTTAGE."

LEIPZIG, December 16, 1895.

SUDERMANN'S latest play, now running with fair success in several German theatres, is a matrimonial drama which is saved from a tragic ending by the forbearance of the husband; a forbearance which some will call Christian, others Philistine.

Imagine a handsome girl, of passionate but noble nature, left a penniless orphan in the hands of aristocratic relations. She is passed about from one to the other like an ownerless commodity, until she longs for a home and—an owner. She becomes the guest of her friend Bettina, Baroness von Röcknitz, a dullish woman, who is neglected by her horsey libertine of a husband and seeks nepenthe in sleep. While Bettina dozes out the long summer evenings, Elizabeth talks intelligently with the Baron of his plans. The pair fall in love with each other, and presently the inflammable Baron makes advances which cause her to run away from him in alarm. As she is weeping alone in the castle garden, she is found by the Baron's old tutor, Wiedemann, an elderly widower with three children. Wiedemann comforts her and asks her to be his wife. She accepts, and they are married. This much is presupposition. The play opens three years later.

The humdrum schoolmaster and his whilom aristocratic wife are living happily together in their humble cottage. At least they call themselves happy, and look with sovereign contempt upon the busybodies who have not yet ceased to wonder how such a woman could be content with such a lot. Wiedemann teaches a common school with devotion, and Elizabeth looks after the little garden and makes things meet at the butcher's and grocer's. She is idolized by her stepdaughter. In secret, however, Wiedemann has his misgivings. Then, one day, Röcknitz and his wife come and quarter themselves upon the schoolmaster for a visit. The Baron blurts out his opinion that Wiedemann is much too good for the life he is leading, and that Elizabeth cannot be happy in such a place. In short, he is going to Parliament, and he would like a good and trusty man like Wiedemann—man of ability and character—for manager of his estates. The schoolmaster sees a chance of bettering his position and nibbles at the bait, but—he must consult his wife. The Baron asks that, after a preparatory hint, the task of persuading her be left to himself. Then comes the great scene of the play. Received coldly by Elizabeth, the Baron remonstrates and recalls their pleasant acquaintance at his castle She asks him bluntly why he had wished to make her his mistress, her of all women in the world. He demurs; for two years he had been madly in love with her, but had understood her perfectly, had known that dishonor would be death to her. At last he had brought himself to the point of "sending his good wife to the devil," but she, Elizabeth, had misunderstood him, refused to see him, and returned his letters unopened. Now he implores her to save him from himself. Without her he has been growing mean and rough. He works hard, but his life signifies nothing. He promises with a solemn oath never to speak to her of love; he only wishes to see her now and then, to have her near him as an inspiration to better living. Elizabeth replies with desperate calmness that this is all very alluring, but out of the question, because she—still loves him. Losing control of herself for an instant, she throws herself into his arms with expressions of passionate endearment, and then recoils with horror when she realizes what she has done. The Baron thinks he has her in his power, and urges his proposal with fierce, almost brutal, importunity. There shall be no more resistance; he *will* have her, and what he wills he puts through. Finally, he gives her until evening to decide "yes or no," and leaves her with a vague threat of awful revenge if she refuses.

The third act opens upon an evening party given by the Wiedemanns in honor of their guests. The Baron is present, and takes occasion to press his brutal "yes or no" as Elizabeth is pouring his coffee. She has resolved to drown herself, and asks him to wait until morning for an answer. The manner of her leave-taking alarms Assistant Dangel, who communicates to Wiedemann his suspicion that she is about to run away. Wiedemann sits up alone after the guests are gone. As Elizabeth emerges from her room he receives her, of course not aware of her suicidal purpose, with infinite sadness, but without a word of reproach. If she has tired of him she shall go—the door is open. But why creep away in the night without a word of farewell, when they have lived so happily together? This recalls the night of his wooing, and she tells him that she is fleeing now from the same man who had frightened her then. "Then this house should be your best protection," he urges. "That protection I have forfeited," she answers. Then she confesses her indiscretion, and tells the story of her long pent-up love for Röcknitz which had burst forth in one moment of uncontrollable passion. "Now drive me from the house," she says. The answer is: "Will you stay with us?" "How can I," she asks, "with this stain upon my soul?" Then it is his turn to confess—that he had married her fully believing that she had been betrayed by some member of her aristocratic circle. The play ends with the exclamation of Elizabeth: "It is as if I saw you now for the first time."

The German title, *Das Glück im Winkel*, literally "Happiness in a Corner," invites us to suppose, apparently, that, after the confessions of the final scene, the clouds that have lowered o'er the house are to vanish, and the happiness of the ill-mated pair is to enter upon a new and better era. Can we easily suppose this? the German critics are just now asking. The question has an ethical and an artistic aspect. In a common-sense view of the matter there is no reason why the heroine should drown herself, or leave her home in the style of Ibsen's Nora. To be sure, her husband has misunderstood her character in a rather humiliating way, but for all that he has treated her with unvarying tenderness. It will be so in the future. What is she to do if she leaves him? As a "dutiful nature," she can have nothing to do with the Baron, whose character she has now come to understand, without a triple treachery that would make existence unbearable. If she leaves her home and avoids Röcknitz, she returns to a worse *misère* than that from which she has been glad to escape. And, finally, the river is a gruesome bed for a young wife who has for three years been finding life quite livable in spite of the blighted buds. What wonder, then, if she is won by the gentle appeal of her husband, who says, as he caresses her: "My youth, indeed, I cannot give back to you. But your youth, too, will slowly pass away. The wishes will become more quiet, the longing will fall asleep. Every one, even the happiest, must learn resignation. And perhaps there may yet be happiness in our familiar nook." It is the old problem of Goethe's "Prometheus": "Shall I hate life because the dream-blossoms do not all ripen?" The distracted wife answers wisely.

But how about the husband? one asks. Is it probable that a humble schoolmaster, commonplace, but not sordid, would marry a poor aristocrat of whose purity he had doubts? This rather delicate point, which is vital to the dénouement, is managed by Sudermann with a skill of portraiture which all but carries the day. Wiedemann has been unable to get on in the world, and is beset by a gnawing consciousness of mediocrity. His friends look upon him as a man of ability. They tell of others, he sees others, who have outstripped him on less of intellectual capital. But it is of no use. After a youth spent as private tutor, he secures a position where he can earn his bread as teacher of a common school, and there he stops. He has not even been able to pass the examinations which would admit him to teach in a gymnasium. He appears at the Röcknitz house as a tolerated guest, the master's old tutor. He becomes acquainted with Elizabeth and looks up to her as to a madonna. As he finds her weeping alone one night, the suspicion that she has been betrayed seems to bring her nearer to him, and to make it possible to win her for a wife. He too has something to conceal. His failure to rise offsets in his mind her supposed fall. And so they marry under a mutual pledge of silence in regard to the past.

As I intimated a moment ago, the drawing almost saves the dénouement from the appearance of an inartistic concession to the popular preference for happy endings. The play is interesting to the very end. The small realism is cleverly managed, and the characters of Röcknitz and Elizabeth are noteworthy additions to the repertory of the German theatres, although neither of them quite equals in dramatic interest the superb figure of Magda in Sudermann's "Home"—the most powerful creation known to me in the recent dramatic literature of Germany. When all has been said, however, this last play does not leave a perfectly satisfactory impression. Melpomene presides austerely over the first two acts, and then turns over her sceptre to Common Sense, who had no reputation as a dramatic muse. Röcknitz, the real hero, is not well disposed of. Just before the end, Wiedemann rises to heroic height and exclaims: "To-morrow our house shall be purified; trust me for that." That is, Röcknitz is to be choked off as a baffled villain. But nothing has prepared us for this sudden exhibition of manly vigor on the part of the schoolmaster. It sounds stagey and hollow. One does not "trust" him, but feels that he will be overborne by the stronger nature and

will not so easily get rid of the imperious and self-willed Baron—at least not without the aid of the police.

It is too early for a judgment of the work as literature, since it has not yet appeared on the book-market. But this much seems to be certain: it must put an end to the notion that Sudermann is nothing unless a preacher and a social reformer. In a last year's book by Prof. Litzmann of Bonn, which lies before me as I write, he is described as "a born satirist, not one of the tame sort who only tickle and scratch, but one of the stamp of Juvenal, who swings his scourge with fierce satisfaction so that the blood starts from the soft voluptuous flesh," etc. The first plays of Sudermann gave, perhaps, a little color to this characterization, though it is much too strong even for them. "Honor" is directed against conventional ideas of that subject. "The Destruction of Sodom," which the Berlin wits mistakenly thought would be the destruction of Sudermann, is the tragedy of genius ruined by a vicious social environment. "Home" has for heroine a young woman who runs away from her father's tyranny, rises through sin and shame to great distinction as a singer, and then returns, "greater than her sin," to assert her imperious personality with tragic results in her narrow provincial home. In all of those one can see a little of the preacher, perhaps, but nothing of the bloody scourge. But the next play, "The Battle of the Butterflies," was a comparatively good-natured portrait of the vulgar mamma with marriageable daughters, while in this latest of all one can find no trace whatever of the war against society. Sudermann is a man of the world, a psychologist, and an artist, not a voice crying in the wilderness. The immortality of Juvenal or Jeremiah would not be to his taste. He has learned some things from Ibsen, but has a more genial artistic temper, and thinks the influence of Ibsen upon German literature has been upon the whole baneful. CALVIN THOMAS.

THE FRENCH ACADEMY.—II.

PARIS, December 19, 1895.

As soon as the States-General met in 1789, the French Academy was attacked as an oligarchical institution. On the 16th of August, 1790, Lebrun, speaking in the Finance Committee, proposed to continue for the current year the appropriation of 25,217 livres allotted for the expenses of the Academy. He proposed also to assign a sum of 1,200 livres for an annual prize. Lanjuinais attacked the proposition. "Privileged academies," said he, "are centres of a literary aristocracy." Mirabeau was charged with the mission of making a report on the academies (there were other academies than the so-called French Academy), and he charged Chamfort with the preparation of his report. Mirabeau died before he could use this report. Chamfort published it, and though he had been for ten years a member of the French Academy, he denounced that body in the most sarcastic manner, as a school of flattery, of servitude, speaking of "the struggle of small interests, of low rivalries, of the play of all those motley vanities between *lettrés, mitrés, titrés.*" Chamfort added that the work of the Academy was simply *nil*. He finally proposed its suppression. The last meeting of the Academy took place on the 5th of August, 1793. Very few Academicians were present; the great majority were out of France or in hiding. The Convention had already suppressed all the academies, and this last meeting was informal. In November, 1793, one of the Academicians, Bailly, was guillotined. Malesherbes and Nicolaï soon followed him. Condorcet poisoned himself. Vicq d'Azyr died of terror. Several other Academicians, the Duke de Nivernais, the Bishop of Senlis, Loménie de Brienne, Roquelaure, the Abbé Barthélemy, La Harpe, were thrown in prison.

The Constitution of the year III. created a "National Institute." This Institute was organized by the law of the third Brumaire, year IV. It was divided, and the division still subsists, into classes, though the denominations and objects of the classes have been altered. The first class, with its many sections, was assigned to the mathematical and physical sciences; the second to political and moral sciences (analysis of sensations and ideas, morals, social science, legislation, political economy, history, geography); the third class was dedicated to literature, and was at the same time the class of the fine arts. The old French Academy had not yet revived with its actual name of Academy of Letters, but it had reappeared in the various sections of Class II. and Class III. The work of the Convention was founded upon a classification of all human knowledge, and, with some changes, it has survived; the representation of letters has become more homogeneous, but the moral and political sciences have preserved their special representations.

The executive power chose the first members of the new academies. Article 8 of the law of the third Brumaire confided to the Directory the nomination of 48 members, two in each section, who should elect 96 other members, as the Institute was to be composed of 144 members. The Directory did not choose a single living member of the old French Academy; it chose, in the section of poetry, Chénier (not André, his brother Marie-Joseph) and Lebrun; in the section of grammar, two men now forgotten. In the class of moral and political sciences we find Volney, Bernardin de St. Pierre, author of 'Paul and Virginia,' Cambacérès, Sieyès. I have said that the Institute had to complete itself by the election of ninety-six members. Curiously enough, the definitive choice was to be made by the whole Institute—a very bad system, as the judges had not all the special knowledge which would have been a proper guide; the littérateurs did not know the scientists nor the archæologists. This incongruity distinctly appeared in the first solemn meeting of the Institute; a memoir on chemistry followed an "Ode on Enthusiasm."

Carnot was elected to the section of Mechanics, and in 1797 occurred the election of Gen. Bonaparte. He appeared for the first time on the 5th of January, 1798; he entered in a simple gray coat, and took his place between the two famous mathematicians Lagrange and Laplace. When Bonaparte soon afterwards started for Egypt, he took with him several savants—mathematicians, geographers, artists; he signed his letters of the time "Bonaparte, Member of the National Institute, General." During the campaign of Marengo, Lucien Bonaparte, who was Home Minister, proposed a reorganization of the Institute and the reëstablishment of the French Academy. Napoleon on his return did not show himself very favorable to the idea. The transformation took place only when Bonaparte, under the name of First Consul, became a real sovereign.

"Déjà Napoléon perçait sous Bonaparte."

On the 23d of January, 1803, appeared the decree of the Consuls which organized a new Institute. The system of the classes was changed; the class of the moral and political sciences was suppressed. The second class, without being exactly the old French Academy, and without bearing its name, was almost the counterfeit of it. The elections were to be made by the classes, not by the whole body of the Institute; this last innovation was of the highest importance.

The second class soon considered itself the legitimate heir of the old French Academy, and resumed all its traditions; but Napoleon would not tolerate the old name of French Academy. There were four classes instead of three; the physical and mathematical sciences formed the first, the French language and literature the second, history and ancient literature the third, the fine arts the fourth. All the members of the new Institute were appointed by the Government. The Academy of the Empire did not compare well with the old French Academy; it had no great *illustrations* in its ranks. Its principal function seems to have been to sing the praises of "the great genius who presided over the destinies of France." The eulogy of the sovereign became a necessary part of all the speeches of the Academicians. The new master would be placed above Alexander, Cæsar, and Charlemagne. "Quis deus nobis hæc otia fecit?" asked one in Virgil's phraseology, in his reception speech. Adulation never went further than Cardinal Maury, when he spoke of "something greater than nature, which does not seem to belong to time, as it is neither uncertain nor inconstant."

Napoleon kept his eye on the Academy, even during his campaigns. He disliked the allusions made to the events of the Revolution, and wrote to Fouché from Finkenstein: "Don't allow any reaction. Mirabeau ought to be well spoken of. There are many things in this session of the Academy which don't please me [this was after the reception of Maury]. When shall we be wise? When shall we abstain from reviving painful memories?" Chateaubriand read, as usual, his reception speech before a committee of the Academy; he tells, in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe,' how his speech displeased the majority of the committee: "Liberty," said Chateaubriand, "is so naturally the friend of science and of letters that it takes refuge with them when it is banished from the midst of the people." Napoleon asked to read the speech; he declared that it was of the utmost extravagance and would not allow it to be delivered. He said to Fontanes, a friend of Chateaubriand and a member of the Academy: "Since when, sir, does the Institute consider itself a political body? Tell it to write verses and correct faults of grammar, and not go out of the domain of the muses. . . . Am I a usurper [Chateaubriand had made a faint allusion to Louis XVI.]? I dethroned nobody, sir; I found the crown in the mud, and the people put it on my head. . . . If you missed me to-morrow, there would only be new massacres." Chateaubriand refused to correct his speech, and the confirmation of his election was suspended. He could not take his place among his colleagues, but his election remained valid.

A new age of Augustus is the dream of absolute monarchs; if such was the dream of Napoleon, it was never realized, and the imperial epoch left no great poetical or literary work. Mme. de Staël and Chateaubriand preserved the power of their genius only by establishing themselves in an entirely independent position. In vain did Napoleon multiply pensions and

academical prizes; he refused to the Academy what letters need above all—liberty. In 1804 he established the great prizes, to the number of 22 (9 of 10,000 francs, 13 of 5,000 francs) destined for the best works and inventions which had honored the sciences, letters, and the arts in a period of ten years. He was to award these prizes with his own hand, but he really never did so. In 1809 he instituted new prizes, but he gave to the Institute merely a consultative power. The prizes were to be bestowed by an imperial decree. The function of the Institute was reduced to the drawing up of reports and to propositions made to the Emperor. Napoleon probably found that the productions of those who competed for the prizes were unworthy of the greatness of his reign; he did not distribute them in person, and a list of them would show that he was right. He was more fortunate when he granted important sums to the new edition of the Dictionary of the French language, to a 'Dictionary of the Language of the Fine Arts,' and to the continuation of the 'Histoire Littéraire de la France,' which the Benedictines had begun.

The first return of the Bourbons did not cause any change in the regulation of the Institute. The literary life of the country was, so to speak, in suspense during the Hundred Days and after the disasters of France. The second Restoration made some changes in the organization of the Institute. By the royal ordinance of March 21, 1816, the Institute was preserved as a whole, but the French Academy reassumed its former name and its old status; some new members were elected by the royal ordinance, and eleven Academicians were excluded—Bassano, Garat, Cambacérès, Cardinal Maury, Merlin, Sieyès, Roederer, Lucien Bonaparte, Arnault, Regnault de St.-Jean-d'Angély, Étienne. The Institute by the ordinance of 1816 was composed of four academies, the French Academy taking precedence; afterwards came the Académie des Inscriptions et Belles Lettres, the Academy of Sciences, the Academy of Fine Arts. All these denominations still stand, but a fifth academy was created later with the name of Academy of the Moral and Political Sciences. The academies were to have each its independent statutes and constitution; they were bound to have every year a public sitting, at which all were to be represented.

The four academies reorganized by the ordinance of March 21, 1816, had their inaugural session on the 24th of April. The presidency of the first assembly of the new Institute belonged by right to the French Academy, and consequently to the President chosen by this Academy. By a curious coincidence, it happened to be the Duke de Richelieu; thus reappeared, at the moment of a new transformation, the name of the famous founder of the Academy. Fontanes, elected Vice-President, said in a speech which he made on that occasion:

"Physical and mathematical sciences surely have a very great importance. . . . It is to their application that industry, commerce, the arts owe so many ingenious contrivances; but these arts, as Bacon energetically says, are rooted in the needs of man, and develop themselves by the efforts of interest and cupidity. The increase of wealth and of the commodities of life is a great benefit, it cannot be denied; but our heart has nobler instincts which have to be satisfied. Letters, viewed in their general relations, have a more direct influence on the moral and sensitive part of man. I am not afraid to say, 'A people which should be only *savant* might remain barbarous; a lettered people is necessarily sociable and polite.'"

The preëminence of the Academy of Letters over the others was thus asserted, and it must be said that generally it has not been contested by public opinion. The members of the French Academy have preserved the name of "Immortals," though the word is often pronounced ironically, and the irony would be well justified in going over the list, already very long, of those who have received this brevet of immortality. This list would show you the "rari nantes in gurgite vasto." The mind is its own place, and you cannot easily force it into categories.

Whoever may be interested in the questions relative to the organization of the Institute and to the prizes it has to distribute, will do well to consult the following work: 'L'Institut de France: Lois, statuts et réglements concernant les anciennes Académies et l'Institut, de 1635 à 1889. Tableau des fondations. Collection publiée par M. Léon Aucoc' (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale. 1889). The "Tableau des Fondations," which occupies pages 330-384, indicates the prizes which the Institute distributes annually.

Correspondence.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: So far, perhaps because of the pressure of the more important aspects of the Venezuelan matter, I have seen no condemnation of a certain happening which, it seems to me, marks accurately the depth of imbecile rage to which we have reduced ourselves. I refer to the dragging forth of Lowell's letter written in 1865 in which he says (I quote from memory), "There is but one thing worse than war with England, and that is, to be afraid of war," etc.

There are no present weapons effective enough for us, and so, forsooth, we bring dead men from their graves, and essay a feeble flourish of mouldering documents which by no means represent later convictions under changed conditions. It is a brave deed.

Celia A. M. Currier.

Iowa City, Iowa, December 28, 1895.

[Just so we are disentombing the Monroe Doctrine "under changed conditions."—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May the wild West dare offer you thanks and congratulations for voicing such Americans as think with their brains? It seems queer to thank people for being sane, maybe, but it stirs me to find truth and wisdom and patriotism in these days of the Jingo, so much that I wish I could go and shake your hand. It has not just the charm of novelty to find the *Nation* safe and sound, but custom does not stale the delight of it, perhaps because more and more we have to suffer from those who peddle their mouths.

I am young enough still to like fighting, and rather to believe in it, too—but not as an elective means of grace. The frontier may not exactly teach a Quaker-like abstinence from strife, but it certainly never develops Jingoes. The gentlemen who looked upon indiscriminate quarrels as good for the blood and muscle, have all joined some other graveyard than the ones which they respectively sought to swell. Few grieve for them; yet they were more virile, at any rate, and less venal than the persons who aim to sell papers by getting their substitutes killed. And as between their intellectual horizon and that of those who would dress a nation in the discarded togs of the Bad Man from Bodie, I can find little to choose.

A Republican when my party will allow me, a Westerner by every fibre of choice, I often find things in the *Nation* whose letter I cannot keep. But its spirit is one of the things I love and venerate and am proud of every day that I am an American; and with all my heart I wish it godspeed. L.

Los Angeles, Cal., December 27, 1895.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For thirty years now—that is, from the foundation of the paper—I have been a constant reader of the *Nation*. Long ago I fell into the habit of reading nearly the whole of every number—a larger percentage than of any other periodical. In shaping my habits of thought and such intellectual training as I have been able to give myself, I recognize the *Nation* as one of the most potent influences. Perhaps that is the reason why your recent denunciations of the folly and savagery of the President and the Congress appeal so powerfully to my reason. If I may judge from my own case, you have largely formed the intellects you address, and that is the secret of your power. But may I not, on the other hand, congratulate myself on having assisted to create the power that has made me what I am? But more (and this is the fact of which I am proud), in creating the power that has made me, I have helped to build one of the bulwarks that shall stem and roll back the tide of barbarism now sweeping over the land.

The country must be saved. It is a gigantic but not impossible task. I suggest the need of immediate organization and prompt action. In every city, village, and township there must be a few sane and sober-minded men opposed to war under the present circumstances or any conditions likely to arise. Let them unite, without regard to party or creed. Let them speak in unmistakable tones. Above all, let us be prompt. The "howling savages" are on top at present; and the longer they remain on top, the more difficult it will be to dislodge and overthrow them.

In the war upon war and savagery every man may be a hero without rapine or murder. Forward the light brigade of peace and civilization! "The path of duty is the way to glory." A. F. Hamilton.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While I agree with the general tenor of your comment on the recent war scare, it strikes me you are too despondent in your view of the general outcome of it. In the first place, though I am no adept in such questions, do you not greatly overestimate the financial loss already incurred through the panic? No doubt there have been heavy transfers of securities, in some cases out of hands which could ill afford to part with them; but what positive destruction of values has yet taken place?

Then, how healthful, if the evil exist, has been the revelation of the thinness of the veneering or varnish of our civilization, and of how much yet remains in us of the ape and tiger—the same brutal nature seen in the lynchings prevalent over a large part of our land.

But what an uprising, too, of the better portion of the people in both countries, with the willingness manifested to suffer "humiliation" if need be, in retreating from a false position and acknowledging an error, or even wrong,

committed. One could almost be glad of the excitement if it shall teach us that nations are amenable to the same principles of honor and integrity which govern individuals; that it is no more dishonorable for a nation to acknowledge mistakes and make reparation than for an individual; and that, as the duel with its code is fast becoming obsolete, so war must one day pass away.

It will be no small gain, too, if the Monroe Doctrine, so often invoked, yet evidently so imperfectly understood or defined, shall have its place and value in the world's code formally determined.

And worthy of mention, also, may be the impetus given to the restoration of good feeling between North and South among our own people.

We must deplore the wild and almost wicked talk which followed, though it did not begin with, the war message; but it is worth while to note some compensating benefits which have also followed.—Respectfully yours,

H. D. C.

EASTPORT, ME.

[The address adopted by the New York Chamber of Commerce on Thursday last does not make light of "the financial loss already incurred." This loss, "caused by the rude derangement of business and by the fall in the value of merchandise and of securities, is too painfully fresh to require discussion at our hands." If our correspondent will further take account of *prospects* as well as of current values, of the check given to all long-term enterprises as well as to the common confident calculation from year to year, he will discover a widespread loss which, if it cannot be calculated, can hardly be exaggerated. War devastates by repression as well as by destruction.—ED. NATION.]

POINTERS FOR THE COMMISSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Although it is difficult to see how American safety, interests, or honor can be affected by the boundaries of any of the insignificant despotisms of South America, yet one can scarcely help noting certain facts and principles of a general character which must present themselves at the beginning of any investigation of boundary, however cursory.

The territorial rights of nations are based on discovery and occupation, on cession or on conquest. Since Venezuela discovered nothing, and conquered nothing, except in so far as by successful rebellion she constrained a cession from Spain, her rights rest exclusively on such cession, and carry no title except such as Spain possessed. But the only paper title of Spain is derived from the Pope's bull of 1493, when his Holiness, possessing no knowledge of the New World beyond the discovery of one American island during the preceding year, took it upon himself, as vicegerent of God and owner of the world, to grant to Spain all lands that had been or might be discovered west of the Azores. If, therefore, Spain derived title to anything from that source, it is not confined to Venezuela, but extends to all the islands and both continents of America, including New York and Philadelphia, and even that bed of justice and seat of patriotic virtue, the capital at Washington. Mr. Cleveland's newborn and expensive zeal for parti-colored American autocracies masquerading as "republics" should therefore not be confined to pampering them at the sole expense of Great Britain, but should prompt him to hand over to the grantees of Spain the whole United States; and if it is right to do it at all, it should be done at once, because, if the grantees of Spain hold anything under the bull of his Reverence, they hold equal title to all of both Americas.

Descending from record to possessory title, it is an acknowledged principle of international agreement (which agreement, when universally accepted, is called international law) that the incipient occupation of new countries is chiefly defined and ascertained by their natural drainage systems. Thus, a settlement made in the valley of a river having its own independent debouchure at the sea, accompanied with a corresponding claim of right, is held to extend to all the territory drained by such river and its tributaries, whether immediately and fully occupied by such claimant or not; but to no more than such drainage system. If another valley is claimed, that also must be visibly occupied by at least one post or settlement, or will remain open to new-comers. Any other rule would be intolerable to the world, because it would enable the nation making the first puny settlement to claim and exclude others from an entire continent by establishing a single post of a dozen men.

It is a matter of history that the Spanish occupation of what is now known as Venezuela was for generations confined to the north side of the Orinoco basin, while the Dutch occupation (now passed to Great Britain by treaty) covered both banks of the Essequibo and certain points on the south side of the Orinoco basin, as shown by official maps of all the parties. There was some doubt as to the Dutch or English right to the posts held by them in the Orinoco basin, and they were consequently long ago abandoned to Venezuela on the condition of Venezuelan protection of the native inhabitants, although such points have never been reduced to actual occupation by Venezuela. England now claims, as she has always claimed, the entire basin of the Essequibo, and nothing else, and most of it is and has long been occupied by her settlers. Venezuela claims the entire basin of the Orinoco, which was long since conceded to her, and a large part of the basin of the Essequibo, no part of which has ever been occupied either by her or her Spanish predecessor, and which England, who is in actual possession, cannot surrender without yielding her plain rights by all the tenets of international law, her duty to forty thousand of her settlers now occupying the territory, and suffering an unprecedented debasement before the world. She is demanding no new territory, but claims only what she or her predecessor held before Mr. Monroe was born. It is a question whether it would not be to our interest if she should claim new territory, since her occupation would be equivalent to the introduction of free institutions and the dominion of settled industry and law into an uninhabited wilderness which may otherwise fall into the clutches of the cruel, corrupt, and irresponsible despots who succeed each other by revolution, every few months, in the plunder of one of the most despicable of all the Spanish *residua* in either America.

If it be true that intelligent diplomacy as hitherto defined is the art of making it easy for the other party to do what one wishes him to do, then Mr. Cleveland's burst of reckless zeal has succeeded only in making an honorable adjustment well-nigh impossible. Without troubling himself to ascertain the rights of the parties who are alone concerned, he has inflicted on a friendly nation of our own blood, and the only one that has never objected to the Monroe Doctrine, an insulting threat, before which no free government can yield without being overthrown by the passions of its own people.

It is now too late for the great republic of the world to escape this absurdity of schoolboy ill-temper, or the loss of hundreds of millions of its capital already destroyed, but the profounder ruin of national bankruptcy and the bloody destruction of war may yet be averted; and unless Mr. Cleveland is willing to stand for ever in the pillory of history, it devolves on him to discover an honorable way of allaying the passions of the ignorant rabble on both sides before they are irremediably aroused.

I. J. W.

PHILADELPHIA, January 4, 1896.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the Boston Public Library is a little volume entitled 'A Voyage to the Demerary, containing a statistical account of the settlement there and of those on the Essequibo,' etc., "by Henry Bolingbroke, Esquire, of Norwich, Deputy Vendue-Master at Surinam." I have examined the book, and it purports to be a minute account of the author's personal examination of the territory, the productions, the people, and the history of the colony then lately taken by the English from the Dutch. The book was published in London in 1809, but a note in it states that it is a reprint. It was written after the occupation by the English in 1796, however, for there is frequent reference to the English occupation, and the correspondence between the English Government and its officers who took possession of the colony is given.

I quote from it as follows: "The west coast of Pomaroon juts on the boundary of the Orinoco where there is a military post established. . . . Since the English took possession of the colonies they have cultivated the whole of that coast, extending upwards of fifty miles, and are now making estates on the banks of the Pomaroon" (p. 273). The author mentions as situate on the Pomaroon River "Fort Zealand, which the English destroyed in 1666; Middleburg, which at the same period was plundered and abandoned" (p. 273). "The estates already made between the Essequibo and Pomaroon Rivers are variously valued from five to eighty thousand pounds sterling, each according to the extent of cultivation, number of buildings," etc. (p. 273).

These are only part of a number of facts stated by the author, showing that the region between the Moroco and Essequibo Rivers, part of the territory now claimed by Venezuela, had been occupied for many years, and had been under the actual jurisdiction of the Dutch and their English successors. There is no mention or suggestion of any question as to the right to this jurisdiction. The book contains a map of the whole colony, showing also the old sites of New Zealand and New Middleburg on the Pomaroon River, roads along the coast, and a military post on the east bank of the Moroco River. It does not show any territory west of the Moroco, nor does it indicate a boundary line of the colony in the interior.

I have not seen this book referred to in any of the newspaper or magazine discussions upon the subject of the Venezuelan boundary dispute, and it is quite evident from the speech of Senator Lodge in the Senate, delivered a few

days ago, that he was ignorant of the information that it contains.

In the same library there is also a book, published by Sir Robert H. Schomburgk, entitled 'A Description of British Guiana, Geographical and Statistical,' etc. It was published in London in 1840, and contains a map. The preface by the author states that it contains "the result of my personal examinations . . . during successive years from 1835 to 1839." At page 62 there is a "List of Estates" in the parishes of St. John and Trinity, which shows that in 1832 and in 1839 there were forty-nine "estates" in sugar, coffee, cotton, etc., in those two parishes. On a previous page the author states that the whole colony is divided into parishes, and that the two parishes just mentioned take in the territory between the Essequibo and Pomaroon Rivers, west of the Essequibo. In a list of towns and villages within the colony the author mentions two villages on the west bank of the Essequibo: Williamstown, "with fifteen houses, a good mercantile store, and a church capable of holding five hundred persons. . . . About seven miles higher up is a village called Catharinesburg, with about fifteen houses, a Wesleyan chapel, a store, and an apothecary's shop." All of these settlements were within the disputed territory.

CHARLES H. HARTSHORNE.

JERSEY CITY, January 3, 1896.

THE HOT-BED OF JINGOISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One explanation of the extraordinary bellicose attitude of a large portion of the citizens of the United States will undoubtedly be found in the false and pernicious teaching of history which they had in their youth. It is not too much to say that, twenty years ago, the only part of United States history that was well taught in the public schools was war. The French and Indian wars, the Revolution, the War of 1812, and the Rebellion were the only oases in the dreary desert of American history. The internal development of the country, the progress of the useful arts, our national experiments in political economy and finance, our foreign relations, were all slighted in the text-books in American schools twenty years ago, and the only time when the woman, who generally taught history to the present generation, felt she was on firm ground was when the class followed up and witnessed vicariously the barbarous slaughter, destruction, rapine, and brutality of sea and land engagements. With us Americans the average citizen never goes to a high school. He "quits" study when he "quits" the grammar school, and about all that he recollects of his school history is the wars; and about all he brings away from the little "red" school-house is a blind hatred of the country with which his ancestors fought.

The inability of the American people to profit by the economic and financial blunders of the previous generation has often been commented on. The explanation is that they know nothing about, and have never been taught in school, our financial, economic, and industrial history. Furthermore, it may be said without exaggeration that the masses of our people who got their education in the grammar schools departed from those schools with the idea that there was really no other history worth knowing except American, barring a dim idea that away back in the abyss of time there were such countries as Greece and Rome. The only existing foreign country of whose history the masses of America know anything at all is England, and of her history they know very little, and that little is altogether bad.

E. L. M.

INSIDIOUS MONARCHISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have failed to see, in all the discussions of the "Schomburgk line," any mention of perhaps the most interesting result of Sir Robert Schomburgk's explorations. On the first of January, 1837, he discovered, in the River Berbice, a new and magificent water plant, specimens of which he sent to England, where it was propagated. At the time of the discovery William IV. was King, but, before it received recognition from naturalists, his niece had succeeded to the throne, so that the new water-lily was named Victoria Regia, and is now cultivated under that designation. Surely this was a high-handed attempt to extend monarchical institutions to the Western Hemisphere. American botanists have been very supine in this matter; they ought to hold a conference at once at the Smithsonian rooms and have the name changed to *Monrovia Olneyensis*. As a popular designation, "Lodge's lily" might answer.

W. E.

JANUARY 5, 1896.

"GALLO."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review of a book entitled 'Among the Pueblo Indians' in your issue of December 19, 1895, you say:

"There is nothing new in the story, unless the account of the game of 'gallo' which they saw played on San Juan's day, in the village of Cochiti, can be so considered. In one portion of the game 'a living rooster [*gallo*] was buried in the sand' up to the neck, and the object of the player as he rode by was to 'catch the bird' and bear it off to his home. Evidently this is the game of 'gander-pulling,' well known in early times in portions of the South and West; the only difference being that with us the bird was hung by the legs to a cross piece and the riders 'grabbed for the head' as they galloped by under the pole. Whether the Indians borrowed the game from their Spanish neighbors, if indeed they had it, or from ourselves, we cannot say, but that they did borrow it, is, we think, beyond all question."

The game is mentioned by many writers, travellers, novelists, etc., who treat of life in countries once owned by Spain; but at present I can give you only one quotation referring to it. In Bret Harte's poem of "Concepcion de Arguello" (which is a picture of life in California during the days of Spanish-American occupancy), we find the following lines:

"Vainly, leaning from their saddles, caballeros, bold and fleet,
Plucked for her the buried chicken from beneath their mustang's feet."

The game was probably introduced from Spain. It certainly could not have existed in America previous to the discovery by Columbus, for both horses and roosters were unknown in our continent before that time.

W. M.

WASHINGTON, D. C., January 3, 1896.

ADDITION AND SUBTRACTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To your admirable review of 'The Psychology of Number,' by McLellan and Dewey, in the issue of November 28, this addition may be seasonable.

We read of a scholastic discussion as to how many angels could stand on the point of a needle. Suppose that some investigator had decided that the true number was exactly one hundred and eleven, and had recorded this result in a text-book. Suppose that all subsequent text-book-makers had adopted this conclusion, until finally some one thought out and published "The Psychology of the Angelico-humanistic Interrelations, founded on the Number 'One Hundred and Eleven.'" Undoubtedly, we should be interested in it as an instance of mental ingenuity, but should consider that its purely arbitrary foundation rendered it of slight practical value.

As regards one phase, at least, of the work under discussion, the above illustration would be a fair parallel—the phase which treats of "addition" and "subtraction," wherein the authors travel a purely arbitrary path. To illustrate: In the school-room, a child's attention is directed to two groups of blocks, and he is asked to tell the total number in both. Counting those in either group, he goes on counting from that point till he has the sum of both sets. He is now asked to tell the difference between the two sets of blocks. Again he counts from the number in the larger set backwards till he comes to the number in the smaller set, or from the smaller number forward; in either case, finding the same difference. If he wishes to record on paper each of these steps, he arranges the symbols representing the number of blocks in each set in convenient position to aid him in his counting, by custom (not by necessity) one under the other. He still finds sums or differences wholly by counting or by memory of previous countings.

In an evil day of the long ago, some genius determined to call it "addition" when counting totals, "subtraction" when counting differences. Not only was this purely arbitrary, but its effect was to completely obscure and keep out of the arithmetics the real addition and subtraction as we know them in our daily experience. The child, *e. g.*, could have really added blocks to the place where either group was situated, but he could have done it only by a simultaneous subtraction from some other place. He could have subtracted any block from its place in either set, but he must have added it at once to some other place. Addition and subtraction form inseparable parts of one operation, and the child would have represented this operation on paper in very different fashion from his representation of the artificial "addition" and "subtraction."

In arithmetic, where the so-called "subtraction" is confined to counting from a smaller number to a larger, the mischief was confined to a wrong order of development, and to the suppression of the equation that follows at once the true addition and subtraction. When it came to counting from a larger number to a smaller—calling it "subtracting" a larger number from a smaller—the mischief was complete; for the scholars, at any rate, thought the attending concepts applicable to dollars and other material objects, instead of being purely imaginative. It is unfortunate that these conventional terms, with their affixed conventional meanings, should have been so long followed by the text-books; a careful examination, so far, revealing but one honorable exception, which is worth noting. In a little text-book, published at Exeter, N. H., in 1845, by Z. Jones, principal of Hampton Academy, the common use of the terms "addition" and "subtraction" is noted, but the author studiously avoids them, choosing more exact terms.

It is still more unfortunate that two author

of such repute as Messrs. McLellan and Dewey should have incorporated into their 'Psychology' a fundamental arbitrary concept. Had they searched carefully, they would have found it the source of many contradictions and absurdities in our mathematics, and might have changed some of their own psychological conclusions. WILLIAM D. MACKINTOSH.

CHAUNCY HALL SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS., Jan. 3, 1896.

USE AND ABUSE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among recent abuses of the word woman, the worst is the curious trick of substituting the plural of the substantive form for that of the adjective, as *women* writers, *women* students, *women* graduates, *women* bicyclists, *women* prisoners. I have not the time nor do I care to verify quotations, but may I say that I have within six months seen this error committed twice in my home daily, twice in the official report of the State Superintendent of Prisons, once on the title-page of a semi-official and once in the body of an official publication of Cornell University, once in a literary letter of Mr. Zangwill's to the *Cosmopolitan*, and once in the columns of the New York *Evening Post*? Would it occur to those who take *women* in such connection for an apposition to praise the valor of our *sailors* boys or to refer with a touch of pride to their *soldiers* ancestors?

If woman is going to be *supra grammaticam*, like King Sigismund, her progress is backwards. Folk grammar, to be sure, admits "teeth-brushes."—Yours very truly,

ALFRED EMERSON.

ITHACA, N. Y., December 30, 1895.

[So long as we say "*men* folk(s)" and "*women* folk(s)," and Shakspere is not scouted for writing "Bring forth *men*-children only," and "Will you not go the way of *women*-kind?" the "abuse" pointed out by Prof. Emerson will perhaps not appear such to the majority. We cannot admit his analogy in the case of "*sailors*-boys." It lacks the essential feature of "mutation" (man, men), which folk grammar (or should we say idiom?) has preserved in *teeth*-brushes. We might in English have had the word "teeth-brush" as the Germans say *Augenglas* (eyeglass), *Bücherschrank* (bookcase), etc. Their *Männerchor* corresponds to our "men folk."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

MACMILLAN & CO. announce 'Jewish Ideals, and Other Essays,' by Joseph Jacobs; a volume on the evidences of Christianity from Browning's point of view, by Dr. Berdoe; a translation of Erdmann's 'Grundriss der Logik und Metaphysik,' by Dr. B. C. Burt of Ann Arbor; 'The Number Concept; Its Origin and Development,' by Prof. Levi L. Conant; an 'Atlas of Nerve Cells,' by Dr. M. Allen Starr; and 'Plant Breeding,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey, which will in September introduce the "Garden-Craft Series."

T. Y. Crowell & Co. enlarge their "Library of Economics and Politics" with 'Proportional Representation,' by Prof. John R. Commons of Syracuse University, and 'The Internal Revenue System of the United States,' by Dr. Frederic C. Howe of Cleveland, Ohio.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press 'The Near East,' by Henry Norman, and 'One Hundred Games' for social amusement.

Roberts Bros. will soon issue the 'Family Letters of Dante Gabriel Rossetti,' with a memoir by W. M. Rossetti; and 'Modern Women.'

Effingham Wilson & Co., London, besides a new and revised edition of Alexander Del Mar's 'Science of Money,' will issue a 'Handy Guide to the Patent Laws,' by G. F. Emery.

We have received the printed catalogue of the Avery Architectural Library, the sub-title of which sets forth that it is a memorial library of architecture, archæology, and decorative art, and that it is connected with the library of Columbia College. The book is a massive quarto of 1,139 pages, with an introduction and a few illustrations at the beginning; it is sumptuously printed, and the matter of composition and proofreading seems to have been attended to with much more than usual thoroughness. It is not possible to ascertain from the text how many volumes, or how many separate works, the library contains, but the introduction states that there were about 13,000 volumes when the catalogue went to press, and reminds the reader that so many volumes devoted to a branch of the fine arts are of more pecuniary and actual consequence than the same number devoted to history or literature. Of course, the majority are richly illustrated, and, again of course, either a majority or a large minority are of folio size. The introduction is signed by the commission of purchase, which is composed of the professor of architecture in the School of Mines ex officio, now William R. Ware; the librarian of Columbia College ex officio, now George H. Baker, and Russell Sturgis of New York. It was in April, 1890, that Henry O. Avery died, and his parents, Mr. and Mrs. Samuel P. Avery, shortly afterward founded in his name and to his memory this great benefaction to students. The foundation has been increased and its range extended, until now it consists of the important collection of books above named and an invested fund of $15,000 for further acquisitions.

If we were to pick out the most timely reading from the closed volume 28 of the *Century* (May–October, 1895), we should designate the account of the naval battle of the Yalu in the late Sino-Japanese war. It is a peace tract of the first quality written by an American participant. Besides Prof. Sloane's continuing Life of Napoleon (which also has its peace lessons), and the serials that have already become books—Crawford's 'Casa Braccio,' Mrs. Harrison's 'Errant Wooing,' and 'Life in the Tuileries under the Second Empire'—there is nothing significant that we have not touched upon in our monthly notices. Still, we will recall Mr. Janvier's graphic story of the Comédie-Française in the old amphitheatre at Orange, France; and, among the illustrations, the several portraits of Rubinstein, Bryant, Clay, and Keats.

The two volumes of *Scribner's* for 1895 have also their books in embryo—Meredith's 'Amazing Marriage,' Mrs. Ward's 'Story of Bessie Costrell,' and Robert Grant's 'Art of Living,' to say nothing of President Andrews's unfinished scrap-book 'History of the Last Quarter-Century,' begun in the March number. The papers on Golf and on Posters, French, English, and American, bespeak attention to current fads. Theodore Roosevelt's "Six Years of Civil Service Reform" must now be read with melancholy reflections on the fine gold that has become dimmed. The biographical-critical sketches of wood-engravers have been worthily continued. It is well to remember the late portrait of Huxley, and to forget certain eccentricities of illustration, which will be found in the second volume.

Continuing its standard edition of papers read before it, the Massachusetts Military Historical Society has published, through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., another fine octavo volume entitled 'The Virginia Campaign of 1862 under General Pope.' The papers, fourteen in number, were nearly all read before the Society in 1877, and have a double interest: first, of course, for the historical and critical matter contained in them, but, second, for the instructive evidence of the change of sentiment and judgment which has come to intelligent military men in the progress of twenty years. Half of the papers show the strong predilections (not to say prejudices) which were rife among army men at the close of the war. The publication of the Official Records by the Government has made obsolete such ardent advocacy of favorites and sweeping condemnation of others. There is also another portion, calm and judicial in character, which has not lost in weight or influence. Noteworthy among these are the papers of Mr. John C. Ropes and Colonel Thomas L. Livermore. Outside of the controversial list are admirable descriptive papers, like Gen. Walcott's "Revisit to the Field of Chantilly," and Gen. Andrews's "Battle of Cedar Mountain."

In spite of rather careless style and wayward punctuation, Mr. Bernard C. Steiner's monograph on 'Citizenship and Suffrage in Maryland' (Baltimore: Cushing & Co.) is likely to be useful to several classes of persons. Historical students will probably be most interested in the earlier pages, dealing with citizenship and suffrage during the early colonial period, and based on diligent study of early laws and records; the summaries of important cases in State courts involving the suffrage and election laws ought to be of some value to lawyers; while the dark picture which Mr. Steiner draws of the political and judicial corruption attending elections in Baltimore from time to time during the past thirty years, though presenting nothing new, is nevertheless a forcible illustration of the conditions against which municipal reform has to contend.

The "verse renderings of typical passages" of 'The Song of Roland: A Summary for the Use of English Readers,' by Arthur Way and Frederic Spencer (London: Nutt; New York: Macmillan), are not of such a quality as to distinguish the little pamphlet which serves as an excuse for printing them. And if we admit that "small service is true service," we must add that with little trouble a much greater help could have been rendered. If interest is to be aroused in the 'Chanson de Roland,' the English reader might at least be directed to the most convenient original text—say, Léon Gautier's, with its parallel translation into modern French prose, line for line, and all its apparatus. Our editors would also have done well to borrow freely from Prof. Gautier's full introduction as calculated to whet the student's appetite.

It will be strange if some Jingo Furioso does not speedily translate into pure American-English Paulo Fambri's 'La Ginnastica Bellica' (Rome: Casa Editrice Italiana). Its brawny giant of an author examines Galen's three divisions of gymnastics, namely, "medica, sive sapiens, *bellica*, *sive patriotica*, athletica, sive

histrionica"; likens the first to the Swedish system, the third to the German, and makes them over to invalids and acrobats respectively; and adopts the third as apt to render the youth of the country strong and formidable, ready for self-defence and for attack—warlike and therefore patriotic. He holds up to scorn the wretched bodies of the annual volunteers from the Italian student class as compared with the peasantry, and calls for a training that will form soldiers capable of timely rallying (*tempestivamente arrivare*) and impetuous fighting (*tempestuosamente combattere*). His chief reliance is upon the art of fencing, which he has ingeniously made applicable to teaching in classes (*metodo collettivo schermistico*).

M. J. Cruppi's book on 'Linguet: un avocat journaliste au 18e siècle' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.) is a valuable contribution to the literature bearing on that period. Linguet himself is not a sympathetic personage, "a viper of the worst kind, a slanderous pamphleteer, a venal, snarling, evil-working barrister," but he was a power in his day, wielding an influence and enjoying a celebrity which have long since vanished. M. Cruppi has resurrected him and his times in a thick, closely printed book which amply repays perusal.

To those who are interested in the "Chat Noir," the "Âne Rouge," and other *cabarets artistiques* of that type, M. H. Valbel's 'Les Chansonniers et les cabarets artistiques' (Paris: Dentu) will be welcome. The story of each cabaret and of every composer and "artist" is told brightly and intelligently. The illustrations are apposite.

Hachette & Co. have brought out a new and revised edition of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's 'Les Époques du Théâtre-Français, 1636–1850.' The book has already been noticed in these columns, and its value is well known to every student of French literature.

That Könneck's 'Bilderatlas zur Geschichte der deutschen Nationallitteratur' has been appreciated is proved by the fact that the first edition of 6,000 copies has been for some time exhausted. The new edition, which has been appearing during the past year in *Lieferung* fashion, is improved in many respects, especially in the text accompanying the illustrations, which has been revised to date. Five hundred new pictures have been added. The whole work now contains 2,200 reproductions of the most varied kind, but all dealing in some way with the development of German literature. Particular attention has been given to the history of the drama from Roswitha down to the end of the classical period, and to the development of the theatre and stage devices. The 'Nibelungenlied' is emphasized by a specimen from every known manuscript or fragment of manuscript. Writers in other than purely literary lines are represented so far as they have been connected with literature. The gallery of authors' portraits is brought down to Sudermann and Hartmann. Facsimiles are abundant, showing the development of German script, printing, and illustration. Many of the portraits and autographs have been reproduced for the first time. The portraits of recent men are for the most part very satisfactory, but it seems as though better photographs could have been found of Heyse, Mommsen, and Scherer. In addition to the 2,200 illustrations, there are fourteen inserts with fine portraits of Luther, Hans Sachs, Goethe, Schiller, together with several colored reproductions from the Heidelberg 'Liederhandschrift.' The book is published in the large folio form (12x16 inches) of the former edition, at the low price of twenty-two marks, or twenty-eight marks if bound. It forms an excellent companion for any history of German literature, and should be in every library that pays any attention to this subject.

If we may judge of the two volumes of Gustav Holzmüller's 'Methodisches Lehrbuch der Elementar-Mathematik' (Leipzig: Teubner) by the present one, which seems to form a sort of supplement, they must be both pleasant and profitable. Taken by itself, this third part will be very useful to those who sometimes make use of mathematics without being accomplished mathematicians. It treats in a clear, simple, and fundamental way of projective geometry, stereometry, and the calculation of moments, spherical trigonometry, algebraical analysis, and equations of higher degrees; the whole in 224 pages.

The State Department at Washington has just issued, as a Bulletin of its Bureau of Rolls and Library, an index to the calendar of the correspondence of James Madison.

The thirteenth volume of the Collections of the Wisconsin Historical Society has reached us. It is the last of a triennial series. Henceforth a new volume will appear biennially. In the present instalment long and important articles, hitherto existing only in single manuscripts, are preserved. One of these, filling more than a hundred pages, relates to the holding of Wisconsin as a conquest or field of battle after peace had been concluded at Ghent December 24, 1814. Five months after that date, the British, still ignorant of the peace, attacked an American post. Sixty pages include the log-book of a canoe voyage from Detroit through Lake Superior to the Mississippi and down it to Prairie du Chien, which in 1820 took some three months. The census of the region in a pre-Territorial era has survived with so many personal names as to furnish a precious bead-roll for local genealogists. Two other papers, however, will be of more general interest. One deals with the Belgian immigration of 1853, and its growth to 20,000 persons—a history full of romantic vicissitudes. The other is on lead-mining and shot manufacture. Lead had as much to do with the settlement of Wisconsin as codfish with the colonization of Massachusetts. Lead, too, was a potent factor in uniting the Southerners who brought slaves into mines along the Mississippi with free-State men on Lake Michigan. Besides, it turned the current of transportation from the great river and New Orleans to the great lakes, the Erie Canal, and, later, the iron rivers eastward that never freeze or dry up.

The Nova Scotia Historical Society has published as volume eight of its Collections the History of Halifax City, by the late Dr. Thomas B. Akins. It is a reprint of a paper published in 1847, with much additional matter, and covers a period of about seventy years from the settlement in 1749. A treasury of facts, many of them quaint, it contains, besides the annals of the city, biographical sketches, descriptions of streets and buildings, and valuable lists of early settlers. In another volume are papers upon the voyages of the Cabots, the towns of Louisbourg and Onslow, together with an entertaining account of an early Attorney-General of the Province, R. J. Uniacke.

D. B. Updike, 6 Beacon Street, Boston (The Merrymount Press), has arranged with G. Napier & Co., Birmingham, for an American edition of the *Quest* magazine, of which a new series began with the December number of 1895. This periodical is an apostle of bookmaking (including illustration) in the spirit of William Morris and the Kelmscott Press, and deserves attention from those who are interested in the movement directed by that artist Socialist, and still more in what may permanently come of it.

Biddeford, Maine, is not exactly the soil out of which one might expect a Franco-American *Figaro* to spring and blossom; but French Canadians are not unknown in Maine any more than in the rest of New England, and M. Urbain J. Ledoux issued his comic monthly in December last with an eye to support in all parts of the United States and Canada. Contributions to it, he gives notice, must be "inédites, humoristiques, et surtout morales," and there is nothing in the first number that goes counter to this standard of excellence. There is a woman's page and a children's page.

With the first of December last the Paris *Figaro* changed its form, becoming a six-page paper. The Wednesday and Saturday supplements have been suppressed, and the critical and literary articles which used to appear in them will now be found in the daily edition. Forain continues his biting series of sketches, "Doux Pays," and to him has been added Caran d'Ache as a regular Monday contributor. The *Figaro* in other ways, too, shows much improvement. M. Alphonse Daudet leads off in a feuilleton, and M. Paul Bourget follows him worthily in some admirable memories of the end of the Commune, "Pendant la Bataille." Nothing better-observed or more directly and forcibly told has been written about this often-described period. It is delightful to find M. Bourget reminding the world that he possesses qualities as a writer which he did not permit to appear in his later studies of erotic hysteria.

In his address to the students at the opening of the lectures of the faculty of letters in the Sorbonne, M. E. Lavisse spoke with enthusiasm of the new departure under which diplomas for advanced work in history and geography were for the first time given *by the faculty* to thirteen students in June last. He dwelt upon the important results to be expected from these independent studies in the history and geography of France, and in other fields to which the system will no doubt be extended. Already the faculty of letters have decided upon the establishment of a special library for the collection of these treatises. Another consequence of the new plan will be what amounts to a sort of university extension, in so far as it will stimulate persons outside of the regular university course in the provinces as well as in Paris, including foreign students, to special labor in lines of study in which they are interested; for, a bachelor's degree not being requisite to obtain the diploma, "il suffit de travailler." The speaker also referred to the new regulation for the examination for the master's degree (*licence ès lettres*) to be instituted this year. It consists in allowing the various faculties, within certain limits, to determine the material for examinations—to choose, *e. g.*, the authors to be submitted to candidates—whereas heretofore the programmes have been identical for all France. Add to these a third innovation, viz., greater freedom in the choice of studies for university students, and the tendency towards educational decentralization in France becomes evident.

The last word of educational reform comes from Hungary, whose Liberal ministry has issued a decree which provides for the admission of properly qualified women to the Universities of Buda Pesth and Klausenburg (founded 1872), and which duly authorizes the training of women "for the professions of teachers in se-

condary female schools, as physicians for women and children, and as dispensing druggists."

The committee of the Hebdomadal Council, Oxford, England, which is expected to report this term on the subject of university degrees for women, has received, among other favorable memorials, two from representative educational bodies, the Girls' Public School Company, whose petition was signed by 34 out of a total of 36 head-mistresses, and the Church Schools Company, 18 of whose 24 head-mistresses signed the memorial.

Non-collegiate graduate study has taken a new departure in the London School of Economics, under the joint control of the Chamber of Commerce and the Society of Arts. This school opened lately with over 200 students, men and women employed in mercantile offices, in Government and municipal civil service, and as teachers, journalists, and high-grade craftsmen. The classes are in economics, commercial and industrial law, taxation, political science, and commercial history and geography.

It appears from the Milan *Corriere della Sera* that Baccelli, Minister of Public Instruction after a long absence from official life—in the course of which he isolated the Roman Pantheon and inscribed on it in bronze letters *Agrippa fecit*—refuses to sanction the teachings of excavations made four years ago at the base of the rotunda. These revealed a marble pavement much lower than the present one, and the foundations of a rectangular temple, built by Agrippa, upon which Hadrian, more than a century afterward, erected the rotunda. There was recently exhibited at the Istituto di Belle Arti a fine array of drawings made most carefully after the excavations, and proving to a demonstration this double construction upon the swampy site of the Pantheon. But the Minister will not undo his inscription.

—Among the purely literary articles in the current number of the *Atlantic*, Miss Repplier's "Fête de Gayant" more than holds its own in style and finish of expression, while as a matter of fact her skill in the difficult art of essay-writing is a better proof of the mental power of her sex than that "vainglorious" assertion of which she again takes the opportunity to emphasize her disapproval. Dr. Birkbeck Hill's article, to which the Johnson Club supplies a title and a connecting thread, is leisurely, formless, and attractive. "One of Hawthorne's Unprinted Note-Books" will probably be interesting to the general reader chiefly as an example of the ordinary material for observation out of which men of imagination have been able to make their extraordinary creations. On the practical side, John R. Proctor's "Emancipation of the Post-office" contains a clear outline of what every intelligent reader should know about the important extension of the merit system made on the 8th of November last, when the President signed the order which opens the way for inclusion within civil-service rules of the minor or fourth-class post-offices, where "the spoils system has had its greatest stronghold." "Josiah Flynt" has told before sad facts concerning the "Children of the Road," but not so systematically as here; neither has he elsewhere indicated so clearly the duty of legislation to protect the most impressionable of children from "desperadoism" thrust upon them "from the shop windows through the picture-covered dime novels and the flaring faces of the *Police Gazette*," nor so convincingly pointed out the "rare usefulness" that awaits gifted young men and women, such as now fill the University Settlements, whenever they are ready to apply themselves to the scientific management of reformatories, where at present, under raw and untrained hands, many children take their first serious lessons in vice.

—For readers who prefer, to the study of human nature in the mass, impressions of unique individualities that distinctly detach themselves from the mass, the best pages of the January *Scribner's* will be the few in which Augustine Birrell describes the late Frederick Locker, or Locker Lampson. Mr. Locker was the possessor of a delicately accentuated personality, the mere unjarred preservation of which is an appreciable service in a dull world, and Mr. Birrell has done well in approaching him from this side, rather than from that of his considerable actual achievement as a writer of accomplished *vers de société*. Probably Mr. Locker was never seen to greater advantage than in his private library at Rowfant, Sussex, modestly exhibiting his famous collection of rare books, and Mr. Birrell will find cordial response to his sentiment, "Woe worth the day when they come to be scattered over half the town." A second paper in the number invites attention to the pleasures and dangers of tobogganing in the Engadine, where the humble local method of winter locomotion was first elevated to the dignity of a sport by the late John Addington Symonds, at Davos, in 1883. Tobogganing now ranks as an art among its votaries, with rival English and American claims to championship, and with headquarters at St. Moritz, where the remarkable "Cresta run" is a feat of skilful engineering in snow and ice. Reproductions from instantaneous photographs give a capital idea of the headlong speed with which riders make the descent of this run, while the anonymous author of the paper brings to bear on his subject every qualification that is needed to give it interest and importance. In "Water-Ways from the Ocean to the Lakes" Thomas Curtis Clarke makes conservative opposition to Government expenditure for a ship canal between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic, and presses the argument that steel barges, the electric trolley, and Niagara Falls dynamos will, with the proposed deepening to nine feet of the Erie Canal, afford all needed commercial facilities.

—An article in *Harper's* by Prof. T. R. Lounsbury exposes first the mortifying shabbiness of our educational equipment at Annapolis, and next supports the view, which in any country but our own would not be open to discussion outside the limits of a schoolboy debating club, that "it ought to be the aim of the nation to attract to the Naval Academy the very flower of its youth who are fitted by nature and inclination to enter the naval service." The reasons that make this last a practical and not an academic question are the low standard of admission and the system of apportionment by Congressional districts. The percentage of failures to pass the entrance examinations, notwithstanding their incredible disparity with those of civilian institutions, and the percentage of failures to graduate, compared likewise with the percentages of other institutions, furnish eloquent comment on the wisdom of the low standard and on the judgment of Congressmen in selecting their candidates. The writer of the article, a member of the Board of Visitors of 1895, is, however, not blind to the fact that Congress has something better to do than remedy faults in the training of youths to an important national service. Mr. and Mrs. Pennell are almost equally happy in their united picturing and describing of the Metropolitan and District Railways of London. Mrs. Pennell, beside giving useful statistics, remembers to sympathize with the feelings of a novice in the underground labyrinth. Her remark that "the marvel is that the artist has but just discovered the underground," may excite painful apprehensions of realistic and impressionist canvases on the walls of future exhibitions; but her own use of darkness, steam, and flaming posters, in producing a picture of the lines, is restrained and effective. Prof. Woodrow Wilson contributes a somewhat florid historical study of the making of men and manners in colonial Virginia, and William Black continues the serial "Briseis."

—Readers of an earlier number of the *Century* (the June issue) will this month be glad to be introduced again, by Thomas A. Janvier, to the company of the Félibres, of whom Mr. Janvier has the honor to be enrolled as one. A boatload of Provençal poets, with their colleagues in other arts, en route for their biennial festival of the Sainte-Estelle, is as frankly joyous an assemblage of returning exiles as modern life can show. In describing their journey from Lyons to Avignon, with triumphal stoppages at Tournon and Valence, Mr. Janvier falls in with the genial temper of the occasion, writing in a vivid style which proves fully adequate to the favorable auspices under which it has been his good fortune to see the banks of the Rhône. The illustrations to this article, by Louis Loeb, have both character and grace. Marion Crawford's "Kaleidoscope of Rome" is an article of the automatic type of production; while less easily turned in phrase, but probably more profitable reading, is C. G. Borchgrevink's narrative of personal adventure in skirting the antarctic continent, where a first landing was made in January, 1895, from the Norwegian whaler *Antarctic*. Commercially the expedition is pronounced a failure, but its importance in emphasizing the possibility of extended exploration, through the agency of steam, cannot yet be adequately estimated. "Responsibility among the Chinese" is a brief paper, full of data for the social student who is striving to adjust measures of individual and official responsibility. With a system of locating responsibility for public and private offences that puts our own laxness to the blush, the Chinese are nevertheless living witnesses to the suspicion and barbarous lack of mutual helpfulness that are the outcome of a rigid and unreasonable personal accountability. We commend to Southern governors striving to suppress lynching by assessing the costs on the community, the Chinese example here cited of holding the merchants of a *street* responsible for a theft committed upon it.

—The third volume of the Berlin *Pan* shows but little left to recommend the periodical. As an example of book-making, it fails utterly. Its ample proportions (it is a large folio) and thick paper merely emphasize this failure. There is absolutely no feeling for the beauty or the harmony of the page. Various types are used, with apparently no good reason to account for the discord they create. An occasional page is decorated—or disfigured, we might almost say—by an enclosing border that has no special relation to it, and betrays on the part of the designer a striving after the strange or the mystic or the eccentric, rather than honest decorative intention. The same tendency to be striking at any cost, the same disregard of beauty, characterizes many of the

full-page illustrations as well. Once it was the artist's game in life to do something good: now it is to devise something new, and his efforts here are undeniably irritating. Even M. Toulouse-Lautrec, in a lithograph printed in color, seems to be sacrificing the simplicity that once was the charm of his work, to the grotesque and to the self-conscious cult of ugliness. Even Khnopff threatens to sink his individuality, often so delightful, in the endeavor to copy the pre-Raphaelites, whom Belgian and French writers are now busy extolling. For the contributions that have legitimate claim to artistic merit you must turn to the woodcuts after Mr. Frederick Sandys, first published in *Once a Week* and some of the other English illustrated magazines that saw their greatest days between 1860 and 1870. When the modern phenomenon is not forthcoming, giants of earlier generations are pressed into service. The reproductions of Besnard also have their interest, though there are few painters whose work fares less well in black-and-white. A good piece of color printing by Gerhard Munthe, really the best thing in the number, a full-page in *chiaroscuro* by Franz Naager, and an excellent head by Peter Halm should also be mentioned.

—The meeting of the American Psychological Association in Philadelphia during the holidays was a notable one, chiefly because it was the first joint meeting with the American Naturalists. The psychologists have not affiliated with the naturalists formally, but their meeting with them this year was so evidently to their advantage that it may well be their settled policy hereafter. The *rapprochement* between psychology and biology was celebrated in a special way on Saturday morning (December 28), when the whole half-day was given up to a set discussion on "Consciousness and Evolution," in which well-known speakers on both sides took part. The size of the audience and the presence of representatives from other societies showed the general interest the topic aroused. The speakers for biology were Prof. Cope of Philadelphia and Prof. Minot of Boston, and the psychologists on the programme were Prof. James of Harvard and Prof. Baldwin of Princeton. Besides these, others also spoke from the floor, notably Prof. Ladd of Yale and Prof. Strong of Chicago. In all the speeches the reality of the alliance between the two branches of inquiry was abundantly evident, and this may be made clearer from the mere statement of two positions which seemed to be assumed by the speakers generally. In the first place, there seemed to be no question in any one's mind as to the application of the evolution doctrine to consciousness. It was taken for granted that genetic psychology sets a problem of race growth in the same way that genetic or evolutionary biology does; and secondly, it was about equally clear from the utterances of the two biologists and of one at least of the psychologists (Prof. Baldwin), that the two sciences are coming to think that their historical ground is common in all its extent, *i. e.*, that consciousness is coordinate with life. Two important steps were taken by the psychologists looking toward enlarged activity. A committee was appointed to consider the matter of formulating a series of mental and physical tests to be made on students in the colleges—the idea being to secure material for practical utility to the teaching profession, and also to reach scientific results of a statistical kind. The other move was made in the direction of forming a section for philosophical discussion. This latter matter, however, was left in the hands of the executive council for report at the next meeting. Abstracts of the proceedings, together with the debate on "Consciousness and Evolution" in full, are to appear in the *Psychological Review* for March.

—The eleventh annual meeting of the American Historical Association was held at Washington on December 26 and 27, and was attended by many representative historians and professors of history from all parts of the country. At the opening session Senator Hoar of Massachusetts, President of the Association, delivered his inaugural address. His subject was "Popular Discontent with Representative Government," and in the course of his remarks he took occasion to rebuke the tendency of some modern writers to exaggerate the weak points of American institutions and to depreciate the characters and services of the great men of the past. At the second session, on the morning of the 27th, many papers were read upon American colonial and political history, among them a scholarly monograph by Prof. W. H. Siebert of the Ohio State University, entitled "Light on the Underground Railway." The afternoon session was devoted to papers on European history, and the evening session to papers of general interest. Among the latter may be selected for special commendation the paper by Dr. Frederic Bancroft of Columbia College, on "The French in Mexico, and the Monroe Doctrine." The fact that Seward made no mention at all of the Monroe Doctrine during his correspondence with the French Government was clearly proved, and Dr. Bancroft evoked the only round of applause during the evening by his incidental remark that the Monroe Doctrine was better understood in the days of Seward than it is now. After the reading of the papers some important resolutions, having for their aim the promotion and encouragement of historical work, were submitted to the members present by the Executive Council and unanimously adopted. It was resolved to institute an Historical Manuscripts Commission for the preparation or supervision of a calendar of original manuscripts and records of national interest relating to the colonial and later history of the United States. It was voted to offer a prize of $100 for the best monograph, based upon original investigation in history, submitted to the Council during the coming year, university dissertations excluded, and to print the five or six monographs thus submitted if of an approved degree of excellence. It was also voted to establish a gold prize-medal of the value of $100, to be awarded at suitable intervals for the best work of research in history published in this country through the ordinary channels of publication. The proceedings closed with the election of Dr. Richard S. Storrs of Brooklyn as President of the Association for the ensuing year; of Dr. James Schouler of Boston and of Prof. George P. Fisher of Yale as Vice-Presidents; of Prof. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University as Secretary; of Dr. Clarence W. Bowen of New York as Treasurer; and of Prof. George B. Adams of Yale, Dr. G. Brown Goode of Washington, Prof. H. Morse Stephens of Cornell, and Prof. F. J. Turner of the University of Wisconsin, as members of the Executive Council. It was resolved to hold the next meeting of the Association in New York on December 29 to 31, 1896. Advantage was taken of the meeting of the Association to call together the guarantors of the new *American Historical Review*, when entire satisfaction was expressed with the work already done, and the former board of editors was re-elected. As upon previous occasions, the social side of the meeting was most successful. The Cosmos Club of Washington extended the privileges of membership to the visitors, and much pleasant intercourse took place within its hospitable walls between the historical students from all parts of the United States who had the good fortune to be present at the eleventh annual meeting of the American Historical Association.

—An almost unexampled sight in literature, and surely one of the strangest and saddest, is the publication of the posthumous works of a living man. This is being shown to the world by Naumann, the Leipzig publisher, who has just sent out the first two volumes of the works of Friedrich Nietzsche, 'Schriften und Einwürfe (1869–1876).' The tragic story of Nietzsche's long agony has been told lately by M. Téodor de Wyzewa in the *Temps*. Seven years ago he began to be affected by a general paralysis. He was at first sent to a *maison de santé*, but afterward was taken back to his paternal home, where he has been cared for by his mother and sister. Little by little his mind and even his reason have faded out, and he has sunk beneath the level of the lower animals. Until lately, although he had become dumb and all thought was extinct in him, still he was able to walk about, and to sit at table, and when his name was spoken he would sometimes look up. Now the last ray of intelligence is gone, and what was once one of the keenest and strongest philosophic minds of our day is *merum silentium*. A group of his admirers and disciples have gathered in the little city where he still breathes, and are devoting themselves to the pious work of maintaining and spreading abroad his fame. Under the direction of his sister, Mrs. Elisabeth Foerster, they have founded at Naumburg a sort of academy, or institute, the Archives-Nietzsche, where they occupy themselves in collecting, arranging, and publishing all the papers left by their unhappy master; in watching over the republication of his books; and in gathering materials for a complete and definitive biography of him. The two volumes the title of which has just been given are the first fruits of their work—two great volumes of five hundred pages each, where are to be found gathered together and put in chronological order fragments of unfinished works, sketches, and notes that date from the first years of the sojourn of Nietzsche at the University of Bâle. It is a pious work, certainly, that these ardent disciples are engaged in, and a pathetic work—none the less pathetic, perhaps, when one reflects how much wood and hay and stubble they must be gathering up together with the grains of Nietzsche's gold.

ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.

The Novels, Travels, Essays, and Poems of Robert Louis Stevenson. Thistle Edition. In sixteen volumes. New York: Scribners. 1895.

THE appearance of two sumptuous editions of Stevenson's collected works in a single year brings up the inevitable inquiry, How many of these volumes will live? To "appreciate," as the phrase goes now, a writer of one's own time is undoubtedly, in most cases, to store up merriment for the time to come. Still, the question is pertinacious and may reckon on getting its answers, hit or miss. Without addressing ourselves to it directly, we shall perhaps do well, in a rapid review of some points in Stevenson's literary activity, to keep it in mind

as a steadying influence. Some such check is needful, apparently, in discussing Stevenson, not only because he is in himself so attractive as a writer and as a man, but because everybody is so grateful to him for leading his generation away from the aridities of "realism." Admiration and gratitude are his just due, but they have of late been uttered in a somewhat dithyrambic measure.

In two characters has Stevenson endeared himself to his contemporaries—as a romancer and (*sit venia verbi*) as an egotist. In his rôle of amiable egotist (not *Montaigne* egotist, however, if the reader pleases) he has given us an account of a matter closely connected with the question of his literary permanence—we refer to the formation of his style. From this account, frank with something of a doctrinaire's candor, we learn that this artful and exquisite diction, which some do not scruple to say has evoked new harmonies from our language, was in inception and elaboration essentially bookish. It was formed by a long process of tentative imitations, each abandoned when it had served its turn, but all, of course, leaving their traces on the finished product. We learn, also, from later and casual utterances, that expression remained to the last with Stevenson the conscious, almost the self-conscious, practice of a complicated handicraft. To the last he felt keen pleasure in the clever collocation of syllables, in point, in the quaint or unusual turning of a phrase, in felicitous jingle (it is his own word, so that we need not ask pardon for it). "I am discontented with 'The Ebb Tide,'" he wrote to Mr. Colvin, "there seems such a veil of words over it; and I like more and more naked writing; and yet sometimes one has a longing for full color and there comes the veil again." In judging this whole matter it would be stupid not to reckon with the Stevensonian irony; it would be doubly stupid to forget that the most mannered of styles may be or may have become the natural vehicle for the expression of a quaint but unaffected nature. But, when all deductions have been made on these heads, thus much remains indubitable: the style of Stevenson was as truly a *made* style as the style of Spenser, and it carries, in many of his works, as distinct characters of its making. *Poseur* has odious connotations, and besides it says more than one can possibly mean; but, if some such term could be so sublimated as to lose its drossy and offensive qualities, it might serve us here. Better, perhaps, to take refuge in the delicate reticence of a phrase of Mr. Colvin's—"a slender, boyish presence, with a graceful, somewhat fantastic bearing, and a singular power and attraction in the eyes and smile." Written of Stevenson's personal appearance in youth, the words admit of easy transference to the style of almost everything of his that preceded 'Treasure Island.'

Fond as we may be of the travels and essays that Stevenson wrote before he reached this turning-point in his career, we are forced to admit that they are 'prentice-work after all. The three American volumes, 'The Amateur Emigrant,' 'Across the Plains,' and 'The Silverado Squatters,' are interesting as autobiography, but the most ardent worshipper of Stevenson will hardly claim a place for them in literature. 'The Inland Voyage' (1878), with all its beauties, is manifestly labored, and has too much immature moralizing about nothing in particular. 'The Travels with a Donkey' (1879) has been described as "charmingly vagabondish"; but vagabonds do not post up their note-books at each day's end. "For my part," says the donkey's master, "I travel not to go anywhere, but to go. I travel for travel's sake. The great affair is to move; to feel the needs and hitches of our life more nearly, to come down off this feather-bed of civilization and find the globe granite under foot and strewn with cutting flints." But the landlady at Bouchet knew better, for she sketched what the traveller was to put into his book when he got home: "Whether people harvest or not in such or such a place; if there were forests; studies of manners; what, for example, I and the master of the house say to you; the beauties of Nature, and all that." A keen-eyed hostess, who understood the young writer a thought better, perhaps, than he understood himself.

'Virginibus Puerisque' (1874–1879) is clever to distraction, but self-conscious altogether. The *advocatus juventutis* may command, for a time, the delighted attention of all who are not past five-and-twenty, whether in fact or heart; but, without upholding the old paradox that "youth can be comely but by pardon," we must admit, however reluctantly, that the author was right in his judgment of these papers. The point of view is maintained with some effort; the interest is ephemeral; the style is completely enjoyable by those only who have a fancy for the smell of the lamp. Of similarly transient interest are the early critical and biographical essays that make up a large part of the volume of 'Familiar Portraits.' Stevenson was both too impulsive and too ethical to be a great critic, nor had he in any degree the judicial temper. Besides, all criticism except the greatest is a very transitory form of writing.

If these early works live, it must be by virtue of the amiable personality which they reveal, and in this regard they have a powerful rival in the familiar letters. These, so far as they have been published, promise to express that personality without the veil of lamp-haze—perfumed or not—which shrouds (however faintly) the essays and travels.

Is it not significant that, in Stevenson's last period, when he was fully committed to the exercise of his genius in its truest activity, he found sketches of travel impossible? His friends had hoped, we are told, for such an account of what they called his Odyssey in Polynesia as should reproduce, in terms of his greater maturity, the charm of the 'Inland Voyage.' But the 'South Sea Letters' turned out mere journalism, with which neither he nor they were contented. Yet out of this hopeless struggle to write in a manner long outlived and hardly worth recovering, came of a sudden and almost without reflection what is, in spite of one or two obvious defects, almost as good a story as ever was written—'The Beach of Falesá.' It is not hard to see what this means. Sketch-book travels were mere training. The business of Stevenson's life was romance. And when he was once engaged in the business of his life, he could not turn back and play the clever apprentice. This was as it should have been, and nothing is made for the honor of a great genius by insisting on the eternal quality of his juvenile attempts.

As the 'Travels' and 'Virginibus Puerisque' were but essays of an apprentice, so also of the tales written in this preparatory time—the collection called 'The New Arabian Nights' (1878), 'The Pavilion on the Links' (1880), and 'The Story of a Lie' (1879). In 'The New Arabian Nights' Stevenson plays with incidents and characters as in 'Virginibus Puerisque' and the 'Travels' he played with style and moral reflections and scenery. One does not feel that the story is the thing—it is rather the cleverness of the story that is the thing; and, though the cleverness is unsurpassable, it never rises into imagination. The characters, with one or perhaps two exceptions, are marionettes—as Stevenson himself felt them to be—and the scenery is bizarre. We are dealing with the sportive athletics of a great romantic talent as yet undeveloped. 'The Pavilion on the Links' comes nearer to serious art, especially in the portion that precedes the arrival of the *Carbonari*, but the motive of the tale is strained and the dénouement ill-managed. As for 'The Story of a Lie,' it is a sketch of no great consequence, written in a style as nearly faultless as is vouchsafed to man, but with a rather clumsily precipitated catastrophe. The provincial editor who is forced into the part of *deus ex machina* reminds one, by his mechanical fashion of playing it, of the Scotch uncle in 'The Wrecker,' who dies in the nick of time, and of the opportune but unaccountable blackamoor in 'The Merry Men.' We are not sure that the theatrical Attwood in 'The Ebb Tide' has not associations with the same troop of amateurs, though his characterization shows all the power of Stevenson's later manner. The tiresome Secundra Dass in 'The Master of Ballantrae' is certainly a runaway from the same company.

In 'Treasure Island,' then, Stevenson had at last got into the true path of his genius, and no critic can perceive this more clearly than he perceived it himself. Here for the first time his style ceased to bear the marks of artificiality, gaining enormously in vigor without losing anything of its subtle charm. Here for the first time he showed that he could treat the incidents of a story seriously—otherwise, that is to say, than as the squibs and fireworks of a pretty wit. Nothing could have been more fortunate than the circumstances under which 'Treasure Island' was produced. It was meant for boys, and the hero, who speaks in the first person, is himself a boy. Now boys are singularly and even unreasonably intolerant of posturing or "manner." Without affectation themselves, they are satanically keen in detecting it in others. Even fitting cleverness, unless "craftily qualified," appears to them, in their sturdy barbarism, a highly suspicious trait, and verbal cleverness is downright unbearable. A wholesome control was thus exercised over the style of the romance. Again, the tale had to depend for its main interest on bare incident, and this requisite not only acted salutarily on the style, but kept down Stevenson's innate tendency to moralizing and to playing with character delineation. And, finally, no freakishness of incident was admissible. Verisimilitude is rigorously demanded by a boy—above all in such weighty concerns as pirates and hidden treasure. These subjects are not to be handled with levity; there must be no suspicion of a wink at the audience. All this Stevenson knew as well as anybody, for he comprehended a boy's nature thoroughly; indeed, in some things he never ceased to be a boy himself, albeit a boy "with a graceful and somewhat fantastic bearing." Besides, there was his dramatic sense—the instinct of putting himself in the place of his characters. There was also the presence of the elder Stevenson, who made the tale so real that he insisted on drawing up the inventory of Bones's estate in the sea-chest—a very salutary presence indeed.

For all these reasons the book wrote itself easily—"it flowed from me like small talk"; and, looking back on his exploit after twenty years, the author hardly perceived that the

question of style had entered into its composition. Henceforward, apparently, the coast was clear. That exquisite diction, so easily beguiled into airy quaintness when the author chose to write about trifles, that almost uncanny skill in the technique of narration which had often betrayed him into mere fantasia, had only to be kept under the control imposed by the requirements of a long story. Almost the perfection of art in both respects was reached in 'Kidnapped' (1886). The tale is nearly as good as a tale can be, and the style seems so inevitable that we are staggered to remember what years of elaborating toil it had cost. Still, the time between 'Treasure Island' and 'Kidnapped' was a period of uncertainty. 'Prince Otto' (1885), despite its intangible charm, could not be taken seriously. It reverted to the admirable fooling of 'The New Arabian Nights,' nor is the mention of Prince Florizel of Bohemia without significance. Stevenson himself says that the book was "half play." 'The Dynamiter' (1883) is a frank return to extravaganza. 'The Black Arrow' (1883) is mere task-work, Stevenson's one flat failure: the trouble was that he had no real comprehension or enjoyment of the period with which the book deals.

'Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde,' despite the unifying effect of its strong and serious art, bears unmistakable testimony to what we have vaguely called the uncertainty of this middle period. The book is at once an apologue, a wonder-story, and a genuine romantic fiction of a high type. Fables are out of fashion, and we should prefer, therefore, to call 'Dr. Jekyll' a psychological fiction; but this would be mere juggling with names. 'Markheim' is openly an apologue, and 'Dr. Jekyll' carries as patent and intentional a moral as 'Markheim.' The curiously comparative might even construct a form of proportion with the nineteenth century and 'Dr. Jekyll' on one side and on the other the eighteenth century and 'The Vision of Mirzah.' The plot itself combines extravaganza with serious romance. In those parts in which the work is genuine and impressive, 'Dr. Jekyll' marks a high state of Stevenson's romantic power. The weak point, at once detected by the critics, is a mere bit of fantastic detail, worked into the inmost structure of the fiction. We refer to the chemical hocus-pocus—a desperate expedient, not quite consistently carried out. The fact is, the author was in difficulties much like those which beset him in 'The Beach of Falesá.' For the latter he had conceived, in a flash, while at work in the Samoan bush, a plot requiring a large concession to the supernatural, but the reality of his characters and the verity of the romantic principles that he wished to follow forbade his cutting the knot of the story in this fashion. After some delay and a moment of real despair, he hit upon a simple device. He kept the supernatural, but reduced it to a complicated course of knavish trickery on the part of the villain of the piece. This was probably well, for the genuine supernatural would be intolerable in 'The Beach,' and, in any case, the *élan* of the narrative hurries one over the dangerous place. In 'Dr. Jekyll,' however, no such device was possible. The transformation had to be a fact; and accordingly the impossible was dared. The trick of "transcendental medicine" was perhaps the only trick that would do the business, but it was a poor trick. Jekyll changing into Hyde in his sleep, he knows not how, is terrific; Jekyll taking the draught is not even impressive. One wishes that the means of the transformation had been left unexplained. But this was not Stevenson's way. He is habitually complaisant to the reader who "wants to know"—witness the epilogue to 'Prince Otto,' in which the history of the characters is drained to the very tea-dregs. In spite of this single weakness, however, 'Dr. Jekyll' remains unsurpassed in its kind. Its popularity is unequivocal, but we doubt if most readers care much for the chemicals.

With the appearance of 'Kidnapped' the uncertain time was over. The history of Stevenson's activity between 1881 and 1886 had made it clear that his permanent contribution to literature was not to be criticism, or vagabondizing, or fantasias in style or in narration—these were but the small talk of his genius—but serious romantic fiction of a high imaginative type. His own views, as expressed in "A Gossip on Romance" and "A Humble Remonstrance," form a sound Romantic creed, and he brought to his task a style which no English novelist has surpassed. It is superfluous to insist on the merits of 'Kidnapped.' With its sequel or second part, 'David Balfour' (1893), it is undoubtedly Stevenson's best book, and much of his inferior work will "live with the eternity of its fame." The second part suffers a little from the usual malady of continuations, but it has its own peculiar merits, too. The author, who had for the most part a pretty correct idea of the comparative excellence of his writings, wrote, not long before he died: "I believe the two together make up much the best of my work and perhaps of what is in me." The temptation to compare the adventures of David with some of the Waverley Novels is hard to resist; but the utility of such a comparison is not apparent. So far as it has been attempted, the result seems to be merely that Stevenson reached a kind of perfection in detail for which Scott never strove, and that, in addition, some scenes and characters in Stevenson are not unworthy of the great master, but that in those indefinable qualities which we vaguely suggest by the words "breadth" and "greatness" Scott still stands without a rival. The fact is, the hour for such a parallel has not yet come. By the middle of the next century, men may perhaps look at both writers from a sufficient distance of time to measure their comparative eminence. At present, Scott's supremacy in romantic fiction appears to be almost as unassailable as Shakspere's supremacy in dramatic poetry. It is not sufficient, however, to observe that Stevenson withholds his hand from great historical characters. This seems to be a rather artificial test of power, nor is it certain that Stevenson would not have succeeded as well with such characters as with his David or his Alan Breck, to say nothing of Prestongrange or Cluny Macpherson. True, his work fell off after the appearance of 'Kidnapped'; but this, too, is not decisive of what he might have done if he had lived. It must not be forgotten that 'David Balfour' and 'The Beach of Falesá,' which are hardly inferior to 'Kidnapped,' were written shortly before his death, and that he left behind him the unfinished 'Weir of Hermiston,' which Mr. Colvin rates very highly.

The stories that followed 'Kidnapped' and preceded 'David Balfour' did undeniably show some falling off. 'The Master of Ballantrae' is not uniformly good. Up to the moment when the old lord is wakened by Mackellar to hear the news of the duel, the tale is not surpassed in power by any other of Stevenson's romances. But this duel is the climax of the tale. The resuscitation at the end is a false climax. The Master has returned from parts unknown too often—so often as to suggest trivial comparisons—and, at the end, in spite of the art with which the closing scene is written, the thought intrudes itself that, after all, the chief point is the perversity of the Master, who is determined to come back to his reluctant family, even from the grave. The whole of this second part is a recurrence to the fantastic. The Master working as a botcher reminds one of Prince Florizel behind the counter of the cigar-divan, and there are other points of contact between these essentially incongruous characters. The story should have ended with the duel, even if it had remained a fragment. In this way we should also have been rid of Secundra Dass, about whose genuineness we have our suspicions; certainly he was but an amateur at the fakir's trick of burying a man alive.

'The Wrecker' (1891) and 'The Ebb Tide' (1893) are closely associated, not only by the coöperation of Mr. Lloyd Osbourne in both, but by certain painful resemblances. Both are powerfully interesting, but both give the impression of misapplied strength. 'The Wrecker' is by no means a unit, and the reader feels some indignation at being forced to sympathize with the crew of murderers who are the heroes of the main adventure. Carthew, with all he had on his conscience, need not have selected the commercial Topelius for special favor. As for 'The Ebb Tide,' it is just what Stevenson once called it—"a rancid yarn," with perhaps the worst ending that ever a story had.

Of the rest of Stevenson's works we need not speak. His verses entitle him to rank among the minor poets; the Samoan book, the 'Memoir of Fleeming Jenkin,' and the plays written with Mr. Henley consumed precious time which posterity will begrudge. "I am not a novelist alone," said Stevenson in his account of the writing of 'Treasure Island.' "But I am well aware that my paymaster, the great public, regards what else I have written with indifference, if not aversion." The language was too strong, but it had its basis of truth. It was as a novelist (or romancer) alone that his really great work was done, and it was in that capacity that the world was looking eagerly for still greater works from his pen when his sudden death came as a calamity to our letters and a personal loss to thousands who knew the man only in his books.

The present edition consists of sixteen volumes—eleven for the novels and tales, four for the essays, and one for the poems: 'Samoa,' 'Fleeming Jenkin,' and the dramas are excluded. In mechanical execution it is a model to publishers. The volumes are light and easy to hold; the paper is fine, dead-white, and opaque; the typography (by De Vinne) is admirable, the types being well designed and thick enough in their lines to give an effect of blackness and distinctness very agreeable to tired eyes. Each volume has a frontispiece in photogravure or etching. That prefixed to vol. xiii. is a copy of an excellent photograph of the author by Notman. Of the others, Mr. Pyle's illustration of Alan Breck's defence of the cabin is particularly spirited. We could wish that the concluding volume contained a list of the original dates of publication, since these are not, as in the Edinburgh edition, given at the head of each separate work. The cloth binding is rather profusely gilded, but that is a detail easily remedied. The edition is sold only by subscription, and the price is remarkably low.

LORD ACTON.

A Lecture on the Study of History, delivered at Cambridge June 11, 1895. By Lord Acton, LL.D., D.C.L., Regius Professor of Modern History. Macmillan. Pp. 142.

THE newly appointed Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge is one of the most interesting figures in English society. The old Catholic gentry of England have honorable and pathetic traditions of loyalty to a lost cause which give them a place apart from the humdrum conformities of neighboring squires; and from such a family in Shropshire is Lord Acton descended. When the time came, these Catholic gentry were faithful, from interest and sentiment, to that other lost cause, the Stuart monarchy; and it was from Charles I. that an ancestor of Lord Acton received his baronetcy. And to these family memories have been added others equally remote from the commonplace. His grandfather was prime minister and commander-in chief of the forces of Naples under the Bonapartes; his father married the heiress of that Duke of Dalberg who throve on the favor of the first Napoleon, acted as his go-between with the court of Vienna, and abandoned him with the turn of the tide; his cousins have been generals and ministers, or have married generals and ministers, for the last half-century of Italian history.

Out of such a family one might look either for a *dévot* or a diplomat. That Lord Acton is neither, must be ascribed to the fortunate chance or wise choice which brought him in his early years under the influence and into the companionship of Dr. Döllinger, then at the height of his reputation at Munich. Döllinger's teaching made of him a scholar and a liberal, and it is said to have been Lord Acton who organized the opposition in Rome and Germany in 1870 to the acceptance of papal infallibility by the Vatican Council; and when his friend Mr. Gladstone—from whom he had received his peerage in 1869—attacked somewhat later "the Vatican decrees," Lord Acton boldly placed himself by his side. He has remained within the Roman communion; the strength of family tradition has probably kept him from joining in the heroic but hopeless Old Catholic movement, but his intellectual attitude towards the church of his fathers on the one hand, and, on the other, towards the world of free historical investigation in which he habitually lives, has continued to present a curious psychological enigma. As Browning makes one of his shrewdest characters remark,

"Our interest's on the dangerous edge of things";

and Lord Acton draws to himself the same sort of curious attention as Mr. Mivart.

Lord Acton had long been known for his exhaustive acquaintance with historical literature when, in 1886, he contributed the opening article, on "German Schools of History," to the first number of the *English Historical Review*. Of that unique piece of work—those thirty-six pages of brilliant characterization and comment, bristling with epigram, caviare to the vulgar alike from their all-pervading allusiveness and a style as of a George Meredith turned historian—this only need be said here, that it is perhaps the only magazine article that has ever served as a justification for appointment to a chair in a great university. When in 1894 the filling of Sir John Seeley's chair became the task of her Majesty's Government, it was not unnatural that, if Mr. Gladstone hinted at Lord Acton's willingness to accept the honor, Earl Rosebery should feel a certain gratitude towards one of the scanty band of home-rule peers. But those who cared for historical scholarship rather than for historical pedagogy recognized that a choice had been made which was not likely to do discredit to the reputation of Cambridge.

And now Lord Acton's inaugural address is before us. Considering what difficulties have arisen with the Church of Rome in many a university over the teaching of history, considering that a Roman Catholic was here stepping into the only professorship of modern history in a university still almost completely Protestant, there was abundant occasion for curiosity. The impression produced was, in many quarters, one of mystification and bewilderment. At first reading—and few will give more than a first reading—there seems no clear pronouncement on anything. Many of the paragraphs, and still more of the separate sentences, look as if they had no connection with what precede or follow; and the London *Times* confessed solemnly that to some passages it could assign no probable interpretation. Moreover, when a proposition does, apparently, stare us in the face, it is a mere commonplace—say other critics. But any one who had considered Lord Acton's career and his essay of 1886 might have anticipated that he would be careful—to use a convenient colloquialism—not "to give himself away"; that he would see both aspects of every question, and try to express them at the same time; and that the expressing of them in sentences packed with thought and unassisted by connecting particles would not make easy reading.

It is, however, after all, not so very hard, on a second reading, to catch the drift of the discourse. After distinguishing "modern" history from "contemporary," and claiming a broader field for history than mere politics, for "Politics and history are interwoven, but not commensurate" (p. 5), he argues that modern history is clearly distinguished from mediæval by that sudden "forward movement" which initiated modern progress towards liberty of thought and action. Modern history is intensely interesting because it "touches us so nearly" (p. 74), and affects our vital interests —first among them Religion (p. 21). "What ever a man's notions of these later centuries are, such, in the main, the man himself will be. Under the name of History, they cover the articles of his philosophic, his religious, and his political creed" (p. 73). Religion, furthermore, has played a great positive part in relation to "the significant and central feature of the historic cycle before us"—"the progress of the world towards self-government" (p. 27). For, "but for the strength afforded by the religious motive in the seventeenth century," that progress would have been arrested. Lord Acton fails not to give a passing word to those who refuse to see progress in increasing liberty; but his own opinion is clear enough. The constancy of progress is the tribute of modern history to the theory of Providence (p. 28); it is "the action of Christ who is risen" (p. 31). After showing how the modern Historical Movement arose "directly and indirectly, by development and reaction" (p. 36), from the storm of the French Revolution, he describes the characteristics of "the present order of things" in historical writing—the use of original sources, the application of criticism, and the dogma of impartiality; and this leads up to a criticism of the method of Ranke, "the representative of the age which instituted the modern study of history," and "taught it to be critical, to be colorless, and to be new" (p. 48). He ends with a powerful and even touching appeal to the men before him not to yield to the modern temptation to identify explanation with justification. "The weight of opinion is against me when I exhort you never to debase the moral currency or to lower the standard of rectitude, but to try others by the final maxim that governs your own lives, and to suffer no man and no cause to escape the undying penalty which history has the power to inflict on wrong" (p. 63).

These, then, are the "commonplaces" of Lord Acton's address: That liberty, on the whole, means progress; that in the past, as in the present, black is black and white white. Is it objected that the only significance in the first proposition lies in its coming from a Roman Catholic? Surely it is something that a man of sixty years, one who has seen "many men and cities," one who is bound by strong ties to the past, and who knows all that can be said of the seamy side of modern life, should thus confirm the faith that we indolently suppose ourselves to hold. And as to the second, no one who has immersed himself in historical literature will refuse to recognize the grave dangers which do in sober earnest beset our moral judgment.

Lord Acton is not, so far as we are aware, an original investigator; he is contented to read and ponder with all the shrewdness of a man of affairs and of the world, over the historical works of others; and he is as far as possible removed from the popular lecturer or entertaining essayist. But there is certainly need of men of his type; and if he does not exactly stimulate Cambridge undergraduates either to begin to read or to begin to make research, he will probably, to those who have already made some way with reading and research, be a wise counsellor and a helpful critic.

SHALER'S DOMESTICATED ANIMALS.

Domesticated Animals: Their Relation to Man and to his Advancement in Civilization. By Nathaniel Southgate Shaler. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Large 8vo, pp. xii, 267, many illustrations.

ALL who know how well Prof. Shaler can write on a wide range of topics, and especially those who were interested in his sketches of animals lately to be read in *Scribner's Magazine*, will be glad that these have been gathered in a convenient volume, with some additions—notably of two concluding chapters, on the Rights of Animals and the Problem of Domestication. These latter sum up the author's case in its ethical and ethnological aspects; they accentuate the general tenor of his humane discourse, which is sympathetic without a trace of mere sentimentalism, and written in a large way, with keen discernment of animal nature, and full sense of the responsibility assumed by man in bending or breaking the will of animals to his own. In these chapters particularly, but throughout the work, as the author says, "an effort is made to direct attention to the importance of the problem of man's relation to the lower life which is about him, and which in the future far more than in the past is to be helped or hindered by his rule. Our life is made up of large problems; but there seem few that are greater than this, which concerns our duty by the creatures which share with us the blessings of existence, and over which we have come to rule." Prof. Shaler is far from confining himself to mere zoölogical facts, or even to simply æsthetic or utilitarian consideration of the pleasure or profit man derives from this association; from his scientific and philo-

sophic standpoint, it will "enlarge our conceptions of our own place in the order of this world."

The several essays are at high-water mark of popular natural history, as distinguished from what is popular because it is unnatural and non-historical. It is nothing like a "history of my pets" or a collection of staple "anecdotes." Every one of us perceives intuitively the close relation of animal instincts to our own, and draws those comparisons which, however flattering to our own intellectual supremacy, credit beasts, birds, and the rest of our "poor relations" with certain human traits. Under wise and kindly treatment, the kinship can be made to serve high moral purposes, besides affording endless entertainment and instruction; we come to understand ourselves better when we see ourselves in the side-lights which the brute creation affords. Thus fables of the right sort, which invest the lower animals with human traits, put them in human environment, and make them think, talk, and act as we should under the same circumstances, are legitimate fiction of the utmost interest and positive value—say La Fontaine's for instance, or those commonly ascribed to Æsop, or any of the legends of sound zoölogical folk lore. It is probably not too much to say for Prof. Shaler, that he does in sober prose, on the basis of actual fact, and in strictly scientific method, what the wit and wisdom of some other philosophers have accomplished by appealing to the imagination to enlist our sympathies and improve our acquaintance with our fellow-creatures.

Perhaps the last word, "fellow-creatures," strikes the keynote of the book. The author's own sense of fellowship makes him kindly, reasonable, and impartial in estimating animal traits, and he is too good a naturalist not to show great discernment and penetration. We have seldom seen animals so fairly treated, and have never known them to be more reliably characterized, either in their own natural dispositions or in the artificial modifications which a few of them have undergone through domestication or other contact with the human species. As a consequence of bringing sound judgment and intimate knowledge to bear upon the case, our traditional snap-judgments are in many instances shown to be wrong, despite the core of truth they may and generally do contain. Shaler's decisions regarding relative sagacity, docility, or other evidences of mental development in animals, are marked by acute insight. The dog and the cat he leaves *in statu quo*, about as they are rated by consensus of opinion; but he puts many things in a clearer light than usual. For example, everybody knows the attachment of dogs for persons and of cats for places; but he traces this back to the fact that the wild canines are gregarious, and roam in packs to hunt their prey, while the felines lurk in solitary lairs. The horse goes down several pegs in his estimation of general intelligence, as compared with public opinion, and rightly so. The merit of the horse is more in his hoof than in his head; and in tracing the evolution of this animal organism from the Eocene the well-trained palæontologist is at his best. Other beasts of burden, and all those which come under the head of flocks and herds, go below the horse—pretty near to the foot of the class. But the mule finds, as everybody who understands a mule knows that it should find, not only the apologist for paternal ancestry, but the eulogist of the spindle side of the equine house. The mule is a shining light, better than either its sire or its dam; it has the virtues of both and the vices of neither, happily blended with personal peculiarities of its own. Almost the only "anecdote" in the book is the mule story, and that is simply irresistible—we wish we had space to tell it.

The pig comes off handsomely in Prof. Shaler's court of equity; he is much more than a pork factory—he is a stalwart Democrat, with strong socialistic tendencies, some decided altruism, and a quickwittedness which removes the stock stories of "learned pigs" from the domain of fiction into the fold of sober fact. We expected to find the author fortifying his judgment in this case from the peccary, and he might have scored a point there; but perhaps his case is good enough as it stands. The camel is abused for the hateful beast he is, with a saving clause for the gastric arrangement which mainly determines his peculiarly limited usefulness. As for the "noblest Roman of them all," the elephant, *palmam qui meruit ferat;* for strength of mind and body that noble animal stands at the head of all those which man has made to subserve his own purposes. The case of the elephant is all the more remarkable in that, as the author points out, he has never been domesticated, in the usual sense of the term. The elephant is so long-lived, so slow in attaining maturity, and numerically so infecund, that almost all the individuals man has ever used have been caught wild. The whole training of the species has thus been a series of fresh experiments with wild brutes, which in one lifetime can be brought to display a degree of intelligence beyond that shown by any other animals after uncounted generations have been subjected to educational influences. The mental equipment of the elephant would, therefore, seem to be a natural gift; and it is one of a high order, to be properly called intellectual. This animal has positively a Promethean touch; he reflects and reasons; he adapts means to ends understandingly, devises rational expedients in emergencies, shows forethought, makes fine discriminations, has a sound memory, and on the whole is more of a man than any other brute. His average intellectuality is surpassed only by the exceptional attainments of the porcine prodigies; and here it is interesting to note that these two pachyderms of the Cuvierian classification have actually closer zoölogical affinities than those subsisting between some of the other domesticated animals.

Birds are not so fully treated as mammals, though the author has many pleasant things to say of poultry, and points out some interesting facts not generally appreciated at their true value; what he says of falconry is particularly to the point. In the nature of the case, we have no dominion to speak of over reptiles and fishes; both may be subdued, even tamed and to some little extent taught, but their living world remains apart from ours. Insects sustain a peculiar relation to man. Their numerical disproportion to all other forms of animal life is inestimably enormous; more than three-fourths of the technical species of animals are insects, and probably we know but a relatively small fraction of all that exist, while their individual numbers are practically inconceivable, like the distances of the fixed stars or the multitudes in the milky way. Yet these myriads, in their relations to man, are, almost without exception, either neutral, or annoying, or noxious. Practically, the bee and the silkworm are the only ones we have reduced to some sort of domestication; cochineal and cantharides are useful; but if we add to these four, which the author treats, a very few others, which make wax or are eaten by some people, we come about to the end of the direct utility of the insect world to man, and the question of purpose in such cases as those of flies, fleas, lice, mosquitoes, and the like ranges itself alongside the standard problem of the origin of evil in the universe.

We have left ourselves no room to do more than mention one important thing which runs through this notable book, and that is the plasticity of animal organization which domestication brings into such strong light. This, it will be remembered, was the corner-stone of the whole evolutionary edifice which Darwin reared when he first raised the question of the origin of species. Prof. Shaler handles it ably, and goes a step further in showing how our association with animals reacts upon ourselves to modify human nature appreciably. This is interesting as an abstract scientific study; but it assumes also an ethical aspect when viewed in all its bearings, and becomes distinctly a moral question of grave import, under the author's handling in the chapter on the rights of animals. We have said enough to show that this book is one to which we may give not only an easily held attention, but also some very serious reflection; for it is written with a noble purpose.

The type is large and the lines are heavily leaded, yielding a very open page, suitable for eyes whose owners have passed from the merely observant to the reflective age; and the illustrations are numerous and effective.

The Riviera, Ancient and Modern. By Charles Lenthéric, Ingénieur-en-chef des Ponts et Chaussées. Translated by Charles West, M.D. With maps and plans. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. Pp. x, 464.

THIS work, under the title of 'La Provence Maritime Ancienne et Moderne,' has been before the world for fifteen years, and the other two by the same author, 'Les Villes Mortes du Golfe de Lyon' and 'La Grèce et l'Orient en Provence,' for a still longer period. They are for the French Mediterranean coast something what Lenormant's 'La Grande Grèce' is for the coast of Southern Italy: they hold up to you enticing pictures of a new and beautiful world to be seen, and then furnish you with all sorts of knowledge toward the proper enjoyment of it. M. Lenthéric is perhaps not an archæologist of the force of the lamented Lenormant, but he is enough of one to rectify the exuberances of some of his brethren, and to make sound use of monuments, inscriptions, and documents. He tells more about Ligurians, Phœnicians, Greeks, Romans, and Saracens than about the people who have succeeded them; the special office of the book is to connect the past with the present, and to make the two live together upon the same scene. Many later writers, says Dr. West, have helped themselves out of M. Lenthéric's pages, but while they may have bettered their own state, they have in no way diminished his riches.

In the days of the Empire, the hills about Cannes and Nice were covered with Roman villas, as to-day they are with those of all the world; and from the time of the Roman conquest of Gaul, along the coast to Marseilles, there were both naval stations and harbors of refuge. These especially are the points about which the author gathers everything that can be learned from documents, ancient ruins or inscriptions, noting also the changes that have accrued from alluvial deposits or otherwise.

From Marseilles to Toulon this coast is almost unknown to travellers, and but little even

to Frenchmen. For most of the way the railroad keeps at a distance from the sea, and the good harbors, of which there are several, are consequently neglected by commerce. The ship-building yards of the Messageries Maritimes suffice to make an important place of Ciotat, but that is all. And yet, under Roman rule, and earlier under Greeks and Phœnicians, these waters were animated by the sails not only of war galleys, but also of merchantmen, of the fishing craft, and of the coral divers. Along the land are traces of towns, camps, castles, where now perhaps is some decayed village. The ruins of Tauroentum, to which M. Lenthéric gives a chapter, are to day in part half-buried in a waste of land, in part covered by the waters of the Gulf of Lèques. In the year 49 B. C. a battle took place here between the fleets of Cæsar and Pompey, wherein that of the latter was discomfited, and the fate of Southern Gaul (the "provincia," or Provence) decided. The archæologist now has to fight with the shifting dunes in order to lay bare temporarily the scant remains of that time. A few huts at a distance (the nearest village is more than a mile inland) are all that look upon what, for Phœnicians, Greeks, and Romans, was one of the best anchorages off this coast.

In the parts left one side by the railway, there is much that, independent of history or archæology, is worth knowing and seeing. Between Marseilles and Ciotat there is a stretch of limestone cliffs, indented by lonely gulfs running deep into the land—a region that, but for its sun and vegetation, might be Norwegian, but is utterly dissimilar to any Southern coast. Then among the wooded granite slopes of the Mountains of the Moors are nooks where the date-palm ripens its fruit as in Africa, though no enterprising physician has as yet tried to establish there a new *station d'hiver*. The flora of the Estérel, the vigorous bits of landscape here and there, an occasional tradition or the survival of pagan customs and beliefs in the Christian practice of to-day, all are noted; the book is, in short, an admirable companion for the visitor to these shores.

From Cannes to the Italian frontier, the *Côtes d'Azur*, the *Rives d'Or*, of the Parisian, the pleasure-ground of all the world, is a region so well known that it would seem that nothing remains to be told of it. In despite of pilferers, however, M. Lenthéric has still something of interest to tell us about the Lérins, or of Nice and Cimiez, or of La Turbie. The fourteenth division of the last chapter in the book may be recommended as an absolutely unique account of the way that Monaco gains its living. The satire is so light that one may almost doubt if it exists at all; in any case, the simple statement of facts is a sufficient irony. How could it be otherwise when you start from the Monegasque saying,

> "Son Monaco sopra un scoglio,
> Non semino e non raccoglio,
> E pur mangiar voglio"

—neatly translated by Dr. West: "I am Monaco on a rock by the shore; I neither sow nor reap, but all the same I mean to eat."

The present sightly octavo is an improvement on the dumpy duodecimo of the French edition, and secures the advantages of larger print and more convenient reference for the maps. In the original these are generally across the volume, and any one who has experience of the tightness of ordinary French bindings will at once perceive that it cannot be always easy to see the middle of the map. Then, too, Dr. West's index is an improvement on that of M. Lenthéric. As for the translation, it must be called, on the whole, a very good one. One may say that the translator wears his coat as if it were his own, and not borrowed; and one may add that he has here and there adapted it to himself. One or two examples will suffice to show how this has been done:

"In those days the two headlands, the Cape of Ceuta and that of Gibraltar, were joined together and then formed part of the same mountain chain, *and the sea was then a lake*" (p. 6).

The words in italics may be called a patch of new stuff added to the original garment.

"The absolute good taste of this crowding together of orange groves, of clumps of olives, and of palms may perhaps be a little questionable; but all the same it goes on year by year, *and one is scarcely inclined to criticise this assemblage of all that is bright and beautiful, the result of which is so charming*" (p. 345).

That is an audacious patch: this is how it was in the beginning:

". . . les bois d'orangers, les massifs de palmiers et d'aloès enchevêtrés dans un pêle-mêle confus et d'un goût peut-être douteux, mais dont l'accumulation désordonnée et l'exubérante richesse suivent depuis près d'un demi-siècle une progression rapide jusqu'ici non interrompue" (p. 403).

One might suspect the translator of having a garden of the sort here described, and not having the heart to repeat words that might seem in its dispraise. He might take courage from the number of those who keep him company: on the Riviera we all sin in the same way.

There is in the translation of the preface a case of adaptation still more amusing; but, as it is too long for quoting here, we leave any one who has sufficient curiosity to look it up for himself. The best of translations is never faultless, but this one is so good that it is decidedly not worth while to note the rare slips that diligent comparison has discovered. Two only call for remark: "C'est qu'en effet aucun pays au monde ne possède un climat comparable à celui de Cannes." This is translated: "*There can be no doubt but that* Cannes possesses a climate," etc. The not very elegant formula in italics is used over and over again to represent various French locutions. It ends by exasperating. It may be noted, in passing, as to the statement about the climate of Cannes, that M. Lenthéric may well have dared to make it fifteen years ago, when there were but five or six Riviera towns to contest it. But to day?

Dr. West's worst blunder is in the title he has chosen. The book concerns the coast of Provence; the last chapter in it alone treats of the Riviera, which is properly the Genoese coast from Monaco to Porto Venere (Spezzia). Foreigners nowadays talk of the Riviera loosely as including Nice and Cannes—which for them, and socially speaking, it may; but no one pretends to call the region from Cannes to Marseilles the Riviera. Dr. West's title may, from a commercial point of view, be held as more inviting, but a book of the value of this does not need pushing by claptrap devices.

In a Walled Garden. By Bessie Rayner Belloc. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

READERS of George Eliot's 'Life' will perhaps remember that she had a friend Bessie Parkes, afterwards Madame Belloc, who was loyal to her through all the changes of her domestic life, and they will thus identify the author of this volume of somewhat random sketches and studies. It takes its name from a garden which has freshened and faded for two centuries and more, close to the remains of an Elizabethan cottage, and hard by a church whose foundation stone was laid by St. Anselm. Such a place is naturally haunted, and, in a brief introductory chapter, Madame Belloc describes a ghostly procession that she saw walking there, making less than we should expect of a good opportunity. Nor does her next chapter, "Dorothea Casaubon and George Eliot," do much better, considering the writer's advantages. She met George Eliot first in 1850, and received the last letter that she ever wrote, but she does not tell us much about her. What she does is to connect 'Middlemarch' with Coventry in a pleasant way, find Dorothea's situation unreal in 1828, and touch the relations of Mr. and Mrs. Lewes in a manner that has not much illumination. Madame Belloc is a Roman Catholic "pervert," and says, "Surely only those who hold the sacramental view of marriage would have any right to condemn her"—a way of putting things rather common to the region of ecclesiastical amenities. "It would be unjust to judge her by a Christian law which she repudiated." But what confounds her is that Miss Evans worshipped Lewes, and she even prophesies disclosures which will prove him to have been unworthy of her trust and love.

"Joseph Priestley in Domestic Life" is quite the most interesting and important chapter in the book. It has seldom, if ever, been the fortune of Priestley to be treated in this genial manner. His personality for most people is as evasive as his own oxygen. When the Birmingham statue of Priestley was erected in 1874, the writer's mother, "who was born in Pennsylvania, was probably the only person living in England who could recall him." Some tie of blood between her and her subject is suggested by this and other passages, but the suggestion is not definitely confirmed. The estimate of Priestley is, for a Roman Catholic writer, very sympathetic. Evidently he joined a beautiful piety to his mechanical theology. Another good subject is "Mary Howitt," and still another, "The Montagus and Proctors," but the treatment of Mrs. Proctor, the wife of Barry Cornwall, is strangely disappointing in view of her reputation for the most brilliant and eccentric conversation. An unpublished letter of Lowell's, which was much more to the point, is recalled by this chapter. "A Chapter of War" gives us an inside view of Paris during the German siege and occupation. "Dr. Manning at Bayswater" affords a few glimpses of the Cardinal at different stages of his career subsequent to his secession from the Anglicans. The first impressions were not agreeable. "He spoke with the most measured, chilly calmness." But he comforted our author with the story that after his first Roman communion he said, "*Now* my career is ended." "But where I once worked on an acre," he added, "I now work on a square mile." Nothing is said about his most characteristic and successful work—his pushing for the declaration of infallibility. That his name "was literally unheard of in public for ten years after his secession," is certainly an exaggeration. The breadth and sympathy of Madame Belloc's dealings with religious opinions and sentiments different from her own are exceptionally beautiful. For Catherine Booth of the Salvation Army she has the warmest word of all.

Methods of Mind Training: Concentrated Attention and Memory. By Catherine Aiken. New York: Harpers. 1895.

A SOMEWHAT striking little book, this. The

author proposes that of each school day twenty minutes at the outset should be sacrificed to attention-gymnastics—in other words, to inducing the most intensely vigorous effort, under stimulation of active rivalry. She trains her scholars at remembering columns of numbers, a blackboard-full of shapes nearly alike yet all different, etc., seen for three seconds. The whole thing must be recalled seven minutes later in all its details. She trains them to recite verbatim, after seven or ten minutes, a whole page of prose read to them a single time, having first trained them in a method for doing this. One example that she gives, from 'Tom Brown at Rugby,' is very loose and rambling prose, almost as bad as, "So she went into the garden to cut cabbages." Some are the most inane extracts from the Court Journal, and still more nauseating stuff about New York society, paragraphs about meetings in country towns, with a lot of names of supreme mediocrity, price lists, etc. Then mixed with these are superb pieces of prose and verse. She compares the proceeding to opening the day with dumb-bell exercise. Something like this has been practised before, but here are elementary methods fully set forth, and others will suggest themselves. If teachers will only put them into practice, not fearing to expose their own stupidity, but keeping before their minds the beneficent results to be attained, they will assuredly do something to "make the next age better for the last."

Let us add that Miss Aiken quotes an excellent passage from Ribot's little book on attention, and that she incidentally leads us to believe that, in the remainder of the school hours, she is guided by an intelligent use of the principles of scientific psychology upon which effective teaching must be founded.

Some Ancient English Homes and their Associations, Personal, Archæological, and Historical. By Elizabeth Hodges. Illustrated by S. J. Loxton. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

NINE essays make up this volume, of which the first is devoted to the two mansions of Wotton-under-Edge and Bradley Court; the first a large house which has been almost wholly destroyed, and the second a small country house half a mile distant from Wotton, and not of special importance. Another chapter deals with two houses—Kingsbury Hall, near Birmingham, and Hurley Hall, not far from Kingsbury, and connected with it in the family history. These two buildings are good examples of the very small English manor-house common in central England. In each case the house is described in a sketchy way, with but brief mention of details which seem interesting if one could know more of them. In each case, also, a single slight drawing explains the general character of the structure. The other chapters treat each of one manor-house or castle. The only illustration which gives anything interesting about the general design of the house is that of Little Sodbury at page 193, but there are several slight drawings of staircases, gateways, and the like which are attractive. In each case we get a rather informal account of family history and of family traditions, including ghost-stories, in preference to any architectural study. Being what it is, and being simply written, the book is as entertaining as one need wish, and one who reads it with care will have added a good deal to his sense of historical verity. The modern school of historians are inclined to reject archæology, but the historical student who makes excursions into archæology will certainly understand his history the better for it.

Science and Art Drawing: Complete Geometrical Course, consisting of Plane and Solid Geometry, Orthographic and Geometric Projection, Projection of Shadows, the Principles of Map Projection, Graphic Arithmetic, and Graphic Statics. By J. Humphrey Spanton. Macmillan. 1895.

THE idea of teaching geometry to draughtsmen while their pencils are in their hands is in itself an excellent one, and, were it only well carried out, would seduce them into real mathematical thinking before they knew it. Moreover, some of the subjects here treated bear such stamps of the great geometers who established their theories as it would require a mind of more ingenuity than Mr. Spanton's to obliterate. Descriptive geometry and graphical statics, let the teacher do his worst, cannot but inculcate some genuine mathematics. With map projection it is different. The whole subject has never been very well treated, except by Herz, whose work is probably unknown to Mr. Spanton; and to call the few items here given "Principles" is ridiculous. The chapters on Elementary Metrical Geometry could not well be worse than they are. Thus, for the construction of a regular heptagon, three different methods are given. For one of these, the information is vouchsafed that it is not mathematically exact. That the problem itself is insoluble by rule and compass, the author, though a gold-medallist, does not seem to suspect. The Pythagorean proposition, to say nothing of such theorems as the 35th of the 3d Book of Euclid, will be sought in vain. The problems that are solved rightly are often solved clumsily. Let us say to the young draughtsman, If you want to be a master of your art, take the trouble to study geometry. You will be terribly handicapped in problems upon which bread and butter depend if you content yourself with any such smattering as this book affords.

The Soil: Its Nature, Relations, and Fundamental Principles of Management. By F. H. King, Professor of Agricultural Physics in the University of Wisconsin. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

WITHIN the compass of about three hundred pages, Prof. King has brought together a vast amount of important and interesting information regarding the origin and behavior of soils. With a right sense of perspective, he has dealt fairly with the older as well as with the very latest results of research, and has arranged all his facts in a convenient manner. The marvellous relations which soils sustain to water and the atmosphere, to the lowest and the highest forms of vegetable life, and, indirectly, to all animal life, are dealt with in an attractive way.

A few of the engravings cannot be truthfully called illustrations, for they themselves require to be explained. For instance, in the figure designed to show "the work of the common earthworm during a single night after a heavy rain," there is a picture of a good hunting-case watch lying on the disturbed surface of the ground. In close proximity to the watch the soil is rather less disturbed than at a little distance, perhaps to be interpreted that the earthworms were more or less frightened by the ticking of the watch; but it is unlikely that a watch would be left out over night in a heavy rain. It is probably inserted to show the size of the earthworm casts. Other cuts which leave much to be desired are those which attempt to show the distribution of roots. It is possible that some of the obscurity of the cuts comes from the reduction in size by a photographic process. Aside from these engravings and two bits of good poetry which are rather out of place, the book can be heartily praised. Examination of it will ensure a comprehensive view of the present condition of its many-sided subject.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

As You Like It. Hamlet. Julius Cæsar. Macbeth. Richard II. Twelfth Night. [The Arden Shakspere]. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. Each 40c.

Bacon, Rev. L. W. Irenics and Polemics, with Sundry Essays in Church History. Christian Literature Co.

Barlow, Jane. Strangers at Lisconnel: A Second Series of Irish Idylls. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.

Bender's Lawyer's Diary and Directory for the State of New York. 1896. Albany: Matthew Bender.

Benedix, J. R. Die Hochzeitsreise. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.

Bruce, Wallace. Clover and Heather. Edinburgh: Blackwood; New York: Bryant Union.

Cheyney, Prof. E. P. Social Changes in England in the Sixteenth Century. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.

Corson, Prof. Hiram. The Aims of Literary Study. Macmillan. 25c.

Dana, Prof. E. S. Minerals and How to Study Them. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.

Deazeley, J. H. The Odes (Books III. and IV.) Epodes, and Carmen Sæculare of Horace. Translated into English Verse. London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan.

Defoe, Daniel. Due Preparations for the Plague. The King of Pirates. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each $1.

Emerson, R. W. Les Sur-Humains. Traduit de l'Anglais. 2d ed. Paris: Colin & Cie.

Fishback, W. P. Recollections of Lord Coleridge. Indianapolis: Bowen Merrill Co.

Friedländer, Max. Opern-Statistik der Deutschen Bühnen. 1894. Leipzig: Breitkopf & Härtel.

Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Vol. V. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.

Grandgent, C. H. Selections for French Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50c.

Grosvenor, E. A. Constantinople. 2 vols. Boston: Roberts Bros. $10.

Hazell's Annual for 1896. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney.

Headley, F. W. The Structure and Life of Birds. Macmillan. $2.

Hole, Rev. S. R. A Little Tour in America. Edward Arnold.

Ibsen, Henrik. Prose Dramas. 2 vols. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.

Isham, N. M. Early Rhode Island Houses: An Historical and Architectural Study. Providence: Preston & Rounds.

Jones, Prof. Henry. Browning as a Philosophical and Religious Teacher. Glasgow: James Maclehose & Co; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.

Kingsley, Charles. Yeast: A Problem. Macmillan. 75c.

Little One's Annual. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.75.

Locke, W. J. The Demagogue and Lady Phayre. Edward Arnold. $1.

Longfellow, W. P. P. A Cyclopædia of Works of Architecture in Italy, Greece and the Levant. Scribners.

Lowell, Percival. Mars. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.

Lupton, J. H. The Utopia of Sir Thomas More. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.

Macleod, Fiona. The Sin-Eater, and Other Tales. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

Marden, O. S. Architects of Fate. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Masters, Caroline. The Shuttle of Fate. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.

Maude, Capt. F. N. Military Letters and Essays. No. I. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.

McCormick, A. D. An Artist in the Himalayas. Illustrated. Macmillan. $3.50.

Moch, Gaston. Autour de la Conférence Interparlementaire. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.

Morfill, W. R. The Book of the Secrets of Enoch. Translated from the Slavonic. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Development—Diffluency (Vol. III.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60c.

Old South Leaflets. 2 vols. Boston: Directors of the Old South Work.

Payne, W. M. Little Leaders. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.

Picot Georges. La Lutte contre le Socialisme Révolutionnaire. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.

Reinhardt, C. W. Lettering for Draftsmen, Engineers, and Students. D. Van Nostrand Co.

Sears, Hamblen. Governments of the World To-Day. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.75.

Tennyson, Lord. A Dream of Fair Women, and Other Poems. Locksley Hall, and Other Poems. 2 vols. Macmillan. Each 45c.

Teters, Wilbertine. The Snows of Yester-Year. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.

The Budh-Gaya Temple Case. Calcutta: W. Newman & Co.

The Green Bag. Vol. VII. 1895. Boston: Boston Book Co.

The King of Alberia: A Romance of the Balkans. G. W. Dillingham.

The Marvellous Adventures of Sir John Maundeville, Kt. Illustrated. London: A. Constable & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.

The Spectator in London: Essays by Addison and Steele. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.

The Universalist Register. 1896. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 20c.

Watson, William. The Father of the Forest, and Other Poems. London: John Lane; Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

Winter, William. Brown Heath and Blue Bells: Being Sketches of Scotland. Macmillan. 75c.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 16, 1896

The Week.

Two or three weeks ago a number of bankers in this city were invited separately to the office of one of them, and asked the question how much money they could withdraw from their ordinary business and invest in Government bonds for the purpose of avoiding a suspension of specie payments. Each one was told that it was a matter of life and death, and that, unless the requisite amount was made up, they and their customers and the Government would all go to financial smash together. They all knew this before they went to the rendezvous. Accordingly each one of them made a statement of the amount he could take and pay for. Soon afterwards the understanding was reduced to writing and signed, but it was not an agreement in law because the terms of the subscription were not settled, and because the other party, the Government of the United States, had not assented to it. It was binding in honor only, and would remain so as long as the necessity which gave birth to it continued. If the necessity should cease for any reason, the members would be released. If, for example, the gold reserve of the Treasury should increase as it did a few years ago without bond-selling, or if other persons, either foreign or domestic subscribers, should come forward and take the loan, the members of the syndicate would be released.

By reason of the preponderance of blatherskites in the newspaper press and in Congress, the public were induced to believe that those bankers, instead of being hauled up to this agreement, and forced to sign it by necessity, were eager to get the bonds. The transition from this view to that of highway robbery was easy and natural. By copious blackguardism the public, or the unthinking portion of it, were led to consider these men in the light of public enemies, simply and solely because they were willing to lend the Government the money to tide it over a crisis. And now we are told from day to day that the syndicate is dissolved, or is about to dissolve, in obedience to public disapprobation of its cormorant propensity to grab all the Government bonds in sight and to prevent the poor man from getting any, whereas in truth there is nothing to dissolve. The only thing that ever existed was the willingness to subscribe. That exists still. It exists not by virtue of a signed paper, but by virtue of the needs of the Government.

The lightning transformation of the "popular loan" from a miserable failure on Thursday into an enormous success on Monday is one of the most remarkable events in financial, and eke in journalistic, history. The intention was, of course, to have the bonds taken up by the plain people, in denominations of $50, so that banks, plutocrats, corporations, syndicates, and especially foreigners, should get none of the enormous profits. For some days the subscriptions dragged, and it began to look as if Wall Street had us again. But the strong and patriotic appeals to the plain people at last told, and they began to bring out their hard-won savings. First a life-insurance company emptied its stocking and offered to put its little accumulations, laid up against a rainy day, into bonds to the amount of $10,000,000. Two other small investors in the same business heard of the $50 bonds in reach of the poorest, and fished out of their old clothes and worn pocket-books enough to take (only "estimated," however) $15,000,000. Banks, suddenly transmuted from cormorants and sharks into "the people," offered to take $15,000,000 more. Even German bankers, by the most sudden sea change on record, figure in the patriotic list of toiling and thrifty Americans, putting their little all at the disposal of the Government, to the amount of $40,000,000. Borne away by the infectious enthusiasm and love of country, plain people like Mr. Russell Sage have now come forward to make this issue of bonds to the simple, honest Poor Richards of the land a great success, and to complete the confusion of all syndicates and blood-suckers. The boasted thrift of the French peasantry is nothing to this. What French peasant ever ripped open his mattress and brought out $3,000,000, as did our Jacques Bonhomme, Mr. Sage?

The Republican scheme for raising more revenue by increasing tariff rates, and thus diminishing imports and the duties collected thereon at present, hangs fire. Speaker Reed carried the bill through the House with ease, and Senator Quay concluded that it would be "good politics" for the Republicans in the upper branch to concur. A resolution declaring that the finance committee should report the bill to the Senate as it passed the House was readily accepted by the Republican caucus on Wednesday week, and the managers began congratulating themselves on having solved a difficult problem so quickly. But it soon appeared that the decision of the question rested with a man who no longer accepts the decrees of Republican caucuses as binding. Senator Jones of Nevada holds the balance of power in the committee, and Senator Jones is nowadays a Populist, who thinks that raw sugar should share in the increase of 15 per cent. provided in other schedules. The Republican Senators generally are said to believe that Mr. Jones will finally relent and act with them. This is by no means impossible, but it is safe to predict that the Nevada Senator will insist that the relenting shall not all be on one side. If the silver men must yield something to the high-tariff men, they will demand something in return.

It is good news that many of the Republican Senators from the silver States are resolved to make a straight-out fight for free coinage. Mr. Teller of Colorado told the caucus last week that he proposed to assist in placing a free-coinage amendment on the pending tariff bill, and on every future tariff bill, until such a measure should become a law. He declared that it was his intention to endeavor to have such an amendment placed on a tariff bill in the next Congress if the Republicans should control both branches of Congress and the executive. If the other Republican silver Senators sustain Mr. Teller in this position now and during the next six months, the Republican national convention will hardly be able to "dodge" the issue. It is on every account earnestly to be desired that the party shall make up its mind "where it is at," and take a firm stand on the silver question. If the sound-money men are inclined to be disingenuous, the soft-money men will render a public service by pushing the fight until they force a decision.

The apparently official announcement that the English Government will publish, even in advance of the meeting of Parliament, all the documents in their possession bearing on the Venezuelan dispute, removes the last doubt that the outcome of the whole affair will be peaceful. Those of our dogs of war who are not already muzzled can work off their superfluous valor by taunting Salisbury with "backing down," and thus prepare themselves for the question, which they will soon be indignantly asking, "What has become of the crazy fools who were talking about the possibility of a war with England?" What the English case will prove to be, no man knows in advance except Lodge, and he, of course, knows that it will be worthless. He astutely pointed out long ago that the President's message had carelessly left a possibility of peace in the admission that Great Britain and Venezuela might compose their differences amicably, without our interference; and now he and the Senate committee on foreign affairs are trying to turn out a form of the Monroe Doctrine which will insure to us and our posterity the blessings of countless wars. They admit, however, that they are sorely handicapped by the President's blun-

der in not making war inevitable while he was about it. This, with Salisbury's craven offer of all the documents in the case, makes the outlook for senatorial warriors most discouraging. The wonder with many minds will be why it never occurred to Mr. Olney to ask for the evidence which the English are now going to submit without being asked. He might have had it at any time for the asking. He might himself have appointed an investigating committee, paid them out of the secret fund at his disposal, and avoided all the fanfaronade and claptrap. Why did he not? The only rational answer is that his letter, the message, and the pretence of war were for politics only.

The Venezuela dispute did not reach an acute stage until the beginning of July, 1895. It was on the 20th of that month that Mr. Olney wrote his despatch to Lord Salisbury asserting the sovereignty of the United States over the whole of this continent, and so forth. It is a curious fact that the grant to the Manoa Company, which had been declared void in 1886, was renewed on the 17th of June, 1895, just thirty-two days before Mr. Olney's despatch was written. The latest prospectus of the company records this fact. The eastern boundary of the grant of land is described as a line running from a point where the Imataca Mountain range touches the limit of British Guiana, and "from this limit and along it, toward the north, to the shore of the Atlantic Ocean." This limit being the very point in dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, the tracing of it was undertaken by the Manoa Company itself, with the result of carrying its operations a long distance beyond the boundary claimed by Great Britain. In fact, the present Venezuelan Commission is expected to determine, so far as we are concerned, the very question which the Manoa Company determined for itself in 1885 by occupying the disputed territory. The correspondence between our Government and that of Venezuela shows that the latter pressed us very strenuously about that time (1885) to induce Great Britain to consent to arbitration of the boundary dispute, but only in case the United States should be the arbitrator. No other kind of arbitration was ever proposed by her. Mr. Bayard was then Secretary of State, and he replied that we could not push our services as arbitrator upon Great Britain, nor act as such unless requested by both parties. Then the Venezuelan authorities, apparently finding the Manoa Company of no service in a political way, declared its charter forfeited (September 8, 1886), and did not renew it until they fancied that there was a prospect of embroiling our Government in the dispute. If this fancy turns out to be a miscalculation, the Manoa grant will probably be declared void again. It is as easy to upset a land grant in Venezuela as it is to upset a government, and nothing is easier than that.

Recent Venezuelan despatches put in a charming light the kind of government this country is asked to go to war to extend over 40,000 British subjects. There is a revolution going on, of course—there always is; that is the way all elections are held and Presidents chosen in Venezuela. But President Crespo, who himself got his office by a revolution, has issued a decree affirming that this revolution is particularly heinous on account of pending international complications; that it is, in fact, treason, and that all persons caught in it will be shot out of hand. Eminent lawyers in Carácas say the decree is illegal. This will make it Crespo's painful duty to shoot the eminent lawyers, too. The jails are already overflowing with political prisoners, and the school-buildings are now being used as prisons. This will not check the great work of Venezuelan education, as the students are all enlisting for the war, anyhow. An awful suspicion is abroad that the "illustrious American," Guzman Blanco, is in England arranging a little treaty of his own, with his pockets full of British gold. This report was a hard blow to the patriots, who are usually in the fix of the Georgia free-silver patriot, certain that "we've got the gold-bugs down unless they buy us up." But a shrewd counter-stroke was made by asserting that the $100,000,000 in gold which the United States are now trying to borrow was all to be passed on to Venezuela to aid her in her war against England. This aroused tremendous enthusiasm for "the immortal Monroe"; and "the busts of Washington, Monroe, Cleveland, and Bolivar were entwined with rare flowers." And yet there are those who say that republics are ungrateful!

Senator Morgan is clearly of the opinion that the Monroe Doctrine can be extended over the Transvaal, otherwise his resolution expressing "the satisfaction of the United States at the successful stand of the Boer Government," and "directing President Cleveland to transmit a message to this effect to the President of the Transvaal Republic," has no cause of being. The *Tribune* asks anxiously whether Great Britain "will resent this," but we really think there is no cause for alarm. She must be "on to" Morgan by this time, for he has been roaring at her steadily now for many years. The only persons who are likely to be distressed by this latest outbreak are Lodge and Chandler, who will be alarmed lest Morgan get ahead of them as haters of England and apostles of the doctrine of "the immortal Monroe." Morgan has a great advantage over the latter, for he is a member of the committee on foreign relations, and can thus have his own resolutions considered seriously and possibly reported.

Major Ricarde-Seaver writes in the last *Fortnightly* forecasting the course of events in the Transvaal. What he predicts is that the patience of the 40,000 Uitlanders will soon be exhausted; that there will soon be a hostile demonstration against the Boer Government; that "Paul Krüger and his Hollander friends" will be "sent to enjoy themselves on the banks of the Amstel" (Amsterdam), and then will come in a new régime. He quotes from a late speech of a progressive Boer in the Volksraad to the effect that the Uitlanders have built Johannesburg, which in a few years will contain 150,000 inhabitants; that they pay three-quarters of the taxes; that they cannot be naturalized, nor their children, under fourteen years of residence, and that the settlement of their claims has been relegated to a convention to be held in 1905. Major Ricarde-Seaver adds that a "few Hollanders and Germans at Pretoria lead Krüger, while Krüger leads his Dopper Boer population, and 'owns' their representatives in Parliament." It is plain from all this that an armed attempt at revolution has been running in the Uitlander head for some time, and that Dr. Jameson was not called on unexpectedly to go to the assistance of the Johannesburgers.

Gov. Morton's appointment of George P. Lord as a member of the State Civil-Service Commission is shockingly bad. Not only is Lord an unfit man for the place, but, in order to get him into it, the Governor forced out Mr. McKinstry, a faithful and efficient Commissioner, who has performed valuable service in abolishing political influences from the public service of the State. Lord, whose chief backer is Senator Raines, and who is a thoroughgoing Platt spoilsman, will use all his powers as Commissioner to undo the work which his predecessor and his associates have performed. It is said that the Governor has appointed him in accordance with a political "deal" which has for its object the control of the commission by Platt; and whether this be so or not, there is no question that this will be the outcome, unless the Governor shall decide upon recalling Lord's name from the Senate. Unless he does recall it, it will be impossible to treat seriously his professions of sympathy with civil-service reform. He already has a Platt editor on the commission, and if he persists in putting a Platt politician there with him, leaving Col. Burt in a hopeless minority of one, he will turn the service of the State over to Platt's mercy with all that this implies.

Judge Barrett's special-jury bill, which is now before the Legislature, ought not to be allowed to fail of passage. No measure has ever gone to Albany which can be more properly described as the outcome of experience and the product of expert ability than this. It was drawn by Judges Barrett, Ingraham, and Beekman, and is

designed to remedy defects in our jury system which their experience has shown to exist. Its primary object is to give us competent juries for the trial of accused persons whose performances have become, either through political or other associations, a matter of great notoriety. As Judge Barrett says, the experience in our courts with the recent police cases is a striking illustration of the need of the new system. Not only was a conviction obtained with great difficulty, but the time consumed in the successive trials congested the courts and entailed great expense upon the city. So discouraging was the result of the McLaughlin trials that the other police indictments were dismissed. The consequence of this was very demoralizing, both upon the police force and upon the public mind, for it gave the impression that little had been accomplished by the Lexow inquiry towards real reform in police matters. This result was only too typical of what has happened repeatedly in other cases; and unless something is done to prevent such outcomes in future, we must, as Judge Barrett says, face the fact that criminal justice in this county is a failure. The Legislature, we are sorry to say, is not a body which is likely to pass a measure of this sort of its own free will. There is nothing in the measure for "politics," and the Platt-Tammany combine which is in control at Albany has no interest in pure justice. The Bar Association should take the leadership in pushing the bill through, and in arousing such public sentiment in its support that the Legislature will not dare to refuse its passage.

The appointment of Dr. John S. Billings, now rector of the Department of Hygiene in the Pennsylvania University, as librarian of the new consolidated libraries in New York, has been formally confirmed, and its importance for the new enterprise cannot be overrated. Not only is Dr. Billings's fame as a medical man world-wide—he has been loaded with foreign scientific honors—but he has done one of the most remarkable pieces of cataloguing ever known, in making the Index Medicus and the Catalogue of the Surgeon-General's Library at Washington. The Index Medicus is, in fact, a marvel of skill, industry, and accuracy. His genius is specially shown in his capacity for organization—that is, for getting the right men for particular work. He has valuable gifts in other ways than cataloguing—his knowledge of books, his experience in collecting, his knowledge of building—and they all tend towards making him singularly fit for the place he is taking. The selection of the librarian was the crucial point in the consolidation scheme. The wrong man would have deprived it of half of its value. With Dr. Billings its success is assured.

Lloyd Lowndes, the new Republican Governor of Maryland, makes a good start. In his inaugural address he takes pains to acknowledge that he could not have been elected but for the support of many independents, and declares that "while I shall try to do my duty towards my party, I shall also remember I am the Governor of the whole people of Maryland, and as such give all due consideration." This, of course, is only a general statement, but he was specific also. Under the Gorman machine the appointing power of the Governor in Maryland has been increased to an extent equalled in no other State, so that there is an immense number of "plums" for a Republican Governor to deal out. But Mr. Lowndes comes out in favor of restoring to the people the right of selecting public officers "wherever it can be done with due regard for public interest, this being in harmony with our theory of government and a safeguard against centralization of political power in the hands of the Governor." He also declares against anything like a "clean sweep." While admitting that some of the State officials should give way to those more closely allied in principle to the party in power, he holds that "we should heed the demand for civil-service reform, and extend, wherever practicable in this State and its principal cities, the merit system of appointments to office." He discusses the use of money at elections, which he says is increasing in Maryland so rapidly as to demand the especial attention of the new Legislature. "Our election laws," he says, "should be amended and so framed as to insure to the people absolutely fair registration; to guarantee to every voter the inestimable privilege of casting his vote with the right to have that vote honestly counted, and to secure to the people honest machinery of elections without any advantage to the party in power"; "violations of these laws should be clearly defined, the method of proof facilitated, and prompt and severe punishment should follow conviction." Altogether, Gov. Lowndes talks like a really independent man, and in Congress twenty years ago showed that he could live up to independent principles when the pinch came.

Texas Populists have made what is to them a saddening discovery, that there are alleged evils or discriminations in railroad transportation rates which even the State Railroad Commission cannot remedy. The Populist mind cannot comprehend why freight rates should not be uniform per mile, regardless of the length of the haul. A through rate from Waco to Boston for 85 cents, against 59 cents from Waco to Houston, they denounce as an unjust discrimination, and the Texas Commissioners echo the opinion. But when it is learned that the Commission itself has made the rate for the 500 miles from Gainesville to Houston the same as the rate for the 140 miles from Cameron to Houston, the Populists wonder whether they have gained anything by the adoption of a constitutional amendment providing for the election of Commissioners by the people. As the Commissioners are Democrats, it is felt to be incumbent upon the Democratic party to defend or explain their acts, lest converts be made to the Populist plank of State ownership of railroads. The task is a difficult one, for complaints come from all quarters of the State. Southern Pacific alleged discrimination against south Texas ports is matched by alleged discriminations against Dallas and common points in north Texas by the Gould and other lines, and at Austin there is a bunching of lawsuits and investigations involving the rights of the railroads and the powers of the Railroad Commission. Out of it all may come, the Texas Democrats hope, an educational influence on the Texas rural mind, to change the conception of what constitutes wrong in railroad charges, and the equally fallacious conception of what a Railroad Commission is constituted to do.

Pope Leo's appeal to Christendom for union with the Catholic Church did not meet with the warmest response from the Protestant world, but for absolutely chilly reading one should turn to the reply of the Holy Catholic and Apostolical Orthodox Church of the East. A translation of the encyclical letter on the subject sent out by the Patriarchs, all of them "loving brothers in Christ and well-wishers," has just been published, and certainly shows that the Greeks are still ready to prove their doctrine orthodox by apostolic blows and knocks. The Bishop of Rome is sternly exhorted by them to "shake off, once and for all time, the many and divers innovations which, contrary to the Gospel, have been stealthily introduced into the Church." Until he is prepared to do that, and to abide, in company with the Orthodox Church, "by the divine apostolic traditions and by the rules of the first nine centuries of Christianity," all his "proposals of reunion are vain and empty words." The document is a long one, and filled with vigorous argumentation to show the Pope's "manifest contradiction with himself," his "side-retreat and admission," etc. The Patriarchs make a square offer to leave the question to arbitration, as it were, asserting their readiness to submit to Rome if she can prove her doctrines "out of the teaching of the Fathers and of the divinely assembled Œcumenical Councils." They close with an exposure of the "vain device of the Bishop of Rome" in pretending to refer them to "original sources," intimating that they know a thing or two themselves about original sources. All told, the Pope's sincere and praiseworthy efforts to bring about the reunion of Christendom have resulted in nothing except a strong reaffirmation by each division of its willingness to unite with all the others whenever they wish to surrender unconditionally to it.

AMERICAN HATRED OF ENGLAND.

No one who has taken the trouble during the present crisis to look into the Jingo mind, can have failed to find, behind all irritation about the Monroe Doctrine or the Venezuelan boundary, a deep hatred of England and a strong desire to do her some kind of harm. As the same feeling is very rife in other countries—France and Germany, for instance—it is worth while to examine its nature and causes.

It is not difficult to account for it in Europe. No nation there quite likes the men of any other nation. International hates or dislikes are the natural result of 500 years of wars, carried on until very recently with great atrocity, about boundaries, about titles, or for mere glory, or to preserve "the balance of power." Then differences of manners, of standards of morality, and of religion, and trade jealousies, help to keep alive the old prejudices arising out of these wars. It is only ninety years since Nelson taught his middies to "fear God, honor the King, and hate Frenchmen," as the whole duty of young Englishmen.

The great increase in intercourse between England and the Continent has done a good deal to allay these antipathies, but it has supplied other causes of English unpopularity, notably a more extensive contact with English manners. That these are good, even the warmest admirers of England will not venture to assert. They have for a century played a leading part among the sources of Anglophobia. The most provocative feature in them is the English habit of ignoring strangers in places where people are brought into close contact, such as cafés, restaurants, hotels, and public conveyances. In all such places few foreigners ever fail to acknowledge the presence of others, not as either gentle or simple, but as human beings. The foreigner either bows, or speaks, or indicates by tones or looks or behavior of some sort that he is conscious of the presence of fellow-men. Englishmen are very apt, on the other hand, to affect absolute ignorance that they are not completely alone. By keeping a close watch on them they may often be caught taking a peep at you, by way of curiosity, but they instantly avert their gaze as if taken *en flagrant délit* in a low act, like reading private letters. All this, to a Frenchman or Italian or South German, is very galling or irritating. It is partly due to shyness, but also, partly, to the English fear of making undesirable acquaintances; or, to put it differently, to an Englishman's assumption of superiority to everybody whom he does not know. To this must be added an undeniable superiority to the mass of Continentals in the matter of personal cleanliness and comfort. Of this matter the English have for a century made a careful study, and foreigners of the upper class widely imitate it, but it enrages a great many of the other kind when forced by English travellers on their notice.

The English differ, too, from the Continentals in this, that their code of manners makes no provision at all for strangers. That is, it does not "run," as the conveyancers say, with the individual himself, but with his acquaintances. An Englishman does not know how to behave to you till he knows who you are. He owes nothing to himself in his way of treating you. To a Continental, on the other hand, his manners are part of his personal equipment, like his gloves or his cane. An Austrian or French gentleman is extremely polite to every one he meets, as something due to himself. He behaves this way because this is the way gentlemen ought to behave. The Englishman, on the other hand, considers only what the stranger is entitled to in the way of consideration, and what this is he cannot tell till he finds out who he is, and in the meantime he treats him with no consideration at all.

Most of these observations, however, will hardly apply to the American dislike of England, for America has the same language, and, if not the same religion, the same religious ideas; and, if not wholly of the same race, thinks she is, and has had only one short war with England since the beginning of the century. Wars, too, which are carried on between peoples 3,000 miles apart do not breed the intense hates excited by an enemy on one's own borders. Then Americans have but very slight familiarity with English travellers. Comparatively very few visit this country, and they are apt to be a picked class who come over to marry our rich girls. While, too, our commerce with England is enormous, we have little or no commercial rivalry with her, because the protectionist policy which has prevailed for the past thirty years has substantially withdrawn us from the great foreign markets, or at all events, has caused us to treat them as undesirable objects of search.

The usual answer a Jingo makes to inquiry as to the cause of his desire to fight England, is that she is "grabbing" and "insolent." There is a certain truth in both these charges. But her "grabbing" since 1815 has been, in general, of barbarous countries, as in India and Egypt, or of savage countries, as in Africa. In all these cases it has resulted in the covering with law and justice and security of vast populations who have for ages known nothing of these blessings. What is of more importance for the purpose of this discussion is, that she has grabbed no territory to the benefits of which she has not admitted all nations on an equal footing. She has not in recent times attempted to apply to any of her possessions the old theory that colonies exist for the benefit of the mother country. Trade and protection are offered in them all on equal terms to Americans as well as to Englishmen. In every one of them the American enjoys all the rights and privileges which would be given him by American dominion. A British conquest is substantially an American conquest without the expense and worry. Moreover, nothing has been "grabbed" from America. There is, and has been, no boundary dispute which has not been settled amicably. The British in Canada have been peaceable and unobjectionable neighbors. Any unpleasantnesses that have occurred have been caused by tariffs, and have been easily adjusted by retaliation. The newspapers occasionally interchange incivilities, but they have always been recognized as strictly "journalistic," and therefore harmless. So that it is hardly possible to find in the "grabbing" charge a real *casus belli*—that is, one of the motives which make men wish to kill their enemies, destroy their property, and fill their land with mourning.

We think it likely that if the secrets of all hearts were known, the hostility to England would be found in the sort of ambition with which our immense material development has filled so many people, and which makes even writers like Capt. Mahan call for a Gibraltar or Malta of our own, and for "keys" in all sorts of out-of-the-way places by sea and land. The revelation which has come to us since the rebellion of the extent of our resources has spread the idea that, to be a great nation, as Great Britain is admitted to be, we must have a large number of outlying dependencies and a very big navy as she has. These things seem to thousands, if not millions, the only visible signs of national success, like the rich man's furniture and "costly mansions." The jealousy of Great Britain expresses itself, therefore, in the eager expectation of every Jingo, when he is going to seize something himself, that England will come forward and try to take it from him. It will have been observed that for a long time past every politician who was advising annexation or acquisition of any place, has confidently predicted that, if we did not take it, England would surely do so.

The "insolence" complained of has not been shown in diplomatic correspondence, so it must be found in "social intercourse." Social intercourse is mainly limited to persons who go to England in search of society or acquaintances, and who, no doubt, often encounter snubs or depreciation, covert or open. But the remedy for this is not war, but staying at home. It must be remembered, too, that we take no pains to present our best national side to foreigners. In the choice of our consular and diplomatic representatives, for instance, we often seem to invite their contempt, and the impression our newspapers give of us may be guessed from Matthew Arnold's talk about them in his letters. The prosperity of these delineators of our life and manners naturally leads strangers to suppose that they faithfully represent us, and they create a view of America which is not flattering and is difficult to conceal. But the cure for all this is not throat-cutting and house-burning, but self-respect and self-improve-

ment. Better legislators and better administrators would do more for the national fame, and command more foreign deference, than a thousand battle-ships.

"NATIONAL HONOR."

THE Boston *Herald* asked the other day, with much point, apropos of the new navy for which enormous sums are being appropriated, what the navy was for. The navies of the great naval Powers are meant to carry on wars with each other, which their past history and experience lead them to expect. They expect to have to fight, as they have fought for hundreds of years, for prestige—that is, to decide which is the leading Power. In the past this leading Power—that is, the Power whose word weighed most with the smaller states—has been either England or France. Under Louis XIV. and Napoleon it was France. After 1815 it was England. Under Louis Napoleon it was France again. Then Germany appeared on the scene, and it became Germany. Ever since the peace of 1815, too, Russia has lowered on the horizon as a possible competitor for the place, and at all events a very important ally for any of the more active competitors. In the last century, England and France contended for India and North America. England succeeded in both cases. She drove France out of India and out of America. In this century, England, France, and Germany are contending for the continent of Africa, and, besides this, the long-impending break-up of the Turkish Empire seems to be at hand, and it is well understood that there will have to be a division of the territory. So that it may be said that only one old bone of contention between the Powers (Italy) has been removed within this century, while a very considerable one (Africa) has been added.

We see here clearly enough why all these Powers need a navy. They have in view numerous causes of quarrel. The big ones need large navies in order to intimidate or subdue their rivals. The smaller ones need small ones in order to make their alliance worth the courting by the big ones when the general scrimmage begins. And this has gone on for ages—ever since, in fact, Europe came out of the mediæval darkness. The United States of America was founded in order to get a portion of the civilized world out of this Donnybrook fair, to provide a corner of the earth in which men could live without having constantly enemies to watch and suspect.

There does not exist in our case a single one of the reasons which excuse large navies in Europe. We have no hostile neighbors. We have no foreign possessions. We have no interest in European quarrels. Since 1812—that is, since we became a moderately large community—no foreign state has shown any disposition to quarrel with us. In all the disputes with foreigners which looked serious, our known resources, and the plain difficulty of getting at us for purposes of mischief, have been sufficient for our protection. In no foreign question have we been baffled or overborne or worsted; witness the Mexican trouble and the *Alabama* trouble. In fact, there is not in our past the smallest support for the theory that we need a large navy. The prediction that we shall need one in the future must rest either in the belief that the stronger, larger, and richer we grow, the more disposed European Powers will be to attack, or in the belief that we meditate great transpontine contests. No Jingo holds any such belief. He will not affirm that every time we add 10,000,000 to our population, or $100,000,000 to our revenue, foreigners will feel more moved to invade us or bombard our ports. In fact, the reason which a Jingo always falls back on, when hard pressed, for wishing to live in complete armor, is that somebody may assail our "honor"—that is, say something offensive, or refuse to submit to some demand of ours, or resent some of our language. It is impossible beforehand to describe or define injuries to honor, because honor is an impalpable thing. Invasion, seizure of territory, blockade of ports, injuries to trade, maltreatment of citizens, as causes of quarrel are easily estimated and understood, but national honor is a creature of the mind.

In Europe it may be said that, as a rule, national honor means what individual honor used to mean in duelling circles—that is, the belief among other people that you were not physically afraid; or that if anybody did anything to annoy you, he would have to fight you. An offence against your honor was therefore something which indicated that somebody else might annoy you in some way without having to fight you; that, in short, he doubted your courage. If, for instance, he called you a liar or a thief, his offence lay, not in these aspersions on your truthfulness or honesty, but in the assumption that you would put up with them. Your remedy, therefore, was not to disprove his charge, but to try to kill him. This inconsequential character of the duel between individuals has often been exposed. It accounts for the prevalence of the duel in barbarous ages and countries. There has never been more honor at the South than at the North, or in France than in England; there has simply been more fear on the part of each man that other men would think he was deficient in physical courage. Accordingly each person was the sole judge of what concerned his own honor. Nobody but himself knew in what his honor consisted or what was injurious to it.

The adoption of this private code of honor by the European nations is not surprising. It is of the last importance to each that the other should think it very fierce and touchy. This keeps them from attempts on each other's possessions, and keeps the small ones in proper awe of the big ones. If one intimates in some way that it thinks the other reluctant to fight, it is an imputation on the national honor, and has to be avenged. If this suspicion is pushed too far, it has to be quelled by war—that is, by an immense destruction of life and property.

That we shall suffer substantial damage from any power, such as invasion or physical injury, we do not suppose any one in his senses believes. The use of the navy is to punish people who think we are afraid to fight. Our honor will be in charge of somebody in Washington whom no individual would intrust with his own honor and he will say when the national honor has been hurt, and whether the injury calls for destruction of life and property. Our honor, too, after the war is over, will remain in precisely the same condition as before. No apology will be made on account of it. The two parties will simply compare the number of their dead, and their losses of property, make peace, and go on as before. In short, when we get our navy and send it round the world in search of imputations on our honor, we shall have launched the United States on that old sea of sin and sorrow and ruffianism on which mankind has tossed since the dawn of history. We shall have formally made the duellist's code part and parcel of American polity, just as the old slave States are abandoning it. We shall have abandoned as a failure the greatest experiment any government ever made.

"ONE-MAN POWER" IN AMERICA.

THE London *Economist*, in discussing the course of the President regarding the Venezuelan controversy, treats his action as "a severe object-lesson in the weak places of the Constitution." It holds that "the recent interruption to the calm progress of the republic" was caused by Mr. Cleveland alone, and it finds in the incident an illustration of "the dangerous ascendency which the system gives to a single officer, whose competence is as little secured by the mode of choosing him as it is by the hereditary principle." It asks Americans to consider "whether their Constitution has not a fault; whether it does not, like a despotism, render it possible for one man, in his own interest, or out of his own defect of judgment, to work injury to his own people upon the most colossal scale?"

The *Economist* admits that the President cannot really act, in any question of internal politics, in opposition to the national sentiment, that his messages are of no weight unless the people endorse them, and that Congress, by refusing money, can arrest the course of the most self-willed or ambitious of Presidents. But it holds that, nevertheless, our system allows the national executive to cause "volcanic shocks" as regards external affairs without any effective responsibility, and that "if a President is ambitious or vain, or, which is even more dangerous, under the dominion of ideal-

ogues, he is able at any moment to make as great, and it may sometimes be as disastrous, a commotion as any absolute king."

The subject thus opened up is both interesting and important. In establishing the system of checks and balances, the framers of the Constitution devoted especial attention to the problem of making the executive efficient without giving him absolute power. He was made commander in-chief of the army and navy of the United States and of the militia of the several States when called into the service of the nation, but the dimensions of the federal army and navy are determined by Congress, and those of the militia by the States. He was given the power to formulate treaties with other nations, but such treaties do not become operative without the concurrence of two-thirds of the Senate. He was authorized to make nominations for a great number of important offices, but his nominations must be approved by the Senate in order to become effective. As regards the tremendous prerogative of declaring war, that was expressly committed to Congress, for reasons thus stated by Story:

"The power to declare war might have been vested in the President. In monarchies the power is ordinarily vested in the executive. But certainly in a republic the chief magistrate ought not to be clothed with a power so summary, and at the same time so full of dangers to the public interest and the public safety. It would be to commit the liberties as well as the rights of the people to the ambition, or resentment, or caprice, or rashness of a single mind."

The truth is, that the Constitution leaves but one way open for a President to take action which might necessarily involve the nation in war. It is provided that "he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers." Story, writing in 1840, was of the opinion that this is a far more important and delicate function than it was deemed by the framers of the Constitution. While conceding that it might properly be confided to the executive alone in times of profound peace throughout the world, he pointed out that, in cases of revolution, the acknowledgment of an ambassador or minister might lead to an open rupture, and the receiving or the refusal to receive one "may even provoke public hostilities." For example, if the Cuban insurgents were to send a minister to Washington, and Mr. Cleveland were to accept him as the representative of the ruling power in that island, Spain would undoubtedly regard the act as practically equivalent to a declaration of war against her. Story himself had seen "abundant examples of the critical nature of the trust," and he inclined to the view that some check ought to be imposed upon the unlimited discretion given the executive by the Constitution.

But Mr. Cleveland was not guilty of any abuse of this power in the Venezuelan matter. All that he did was to "recommend to the consideration of the Congress such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." His message of December 17 recommended the passage by Congress of an act establishing a commission to determine the true divisional line between Venezuela and British Guiana. He made plain his own belief that, if the commission should determine that Great Britain had trenched upon the rights of Venezuela, we ought to notify her that she must back down or fight us. But he did not and could not commit the Government to this position. He could not even, as a leader of one party, by taking the course he did, carry his proposition through Congress as a partisan measure, for his party controlled neither branch. What caused the panic and precipitated a crisis was the surrender of all responsibility by Congress, and the readiness of both houses to make the President's attitude their own.

We hardly see how the Venezuelan incident can be considered to show a weakness in our written Constitution. The weakness is rather in the men who compose Congress. A national executive must have some power, and the President of the United States could hardly be intrusted with less than he now possesses unless some check were put upon his absolute discretion in the matter of receiving ambassadors. The whole tendency of our governmental development has been towards an acceptance of the theory that executive responsibility insures deliberation and caution. What the *Economist* calls "Mr. Cleveland's escapade" shows not so much an unsuspected weakness in our frame of government as in its present executive head. It is one of those risks which we must run under the wisest possible system of checks and balances.

POPULAR LOANS AND SYNDICATE LOANS.

CURRENT discussion of the impending $100,000,000 Government loan has revealed a vast amount of ignorance as to the nature, principles, and necessary machinery of Government borrowing. Vague recollections, or hasty and imperfect generalizations, have largely taken the place of clear-headed reasoning from existing conditions; and this is true, unfortunately, not alone of self-advertising newspapers and obstructive Congressmen, but of many fair-minded private citizens. We believe it to be true that there are thousands of people who do not sympathize with sensationalism, and would personally be glad to see the loan placed with a compact and powerful syndicate, but who nevertheless believe that the Government sacrifices its credit by such an award.

Classifying them roughly, it may be said that Government loans are issued for three distinct purposes—to raise capital for immediate expenditure, as in the case of war loans; to replace maturing high-rate bonds with bonds at a lower interest rate, as in "conversion loans"; and to provide gold for maintenance, through Treasury reserves, of the standard of value. We shall see very readily that the conditions governing the issue of a loan depend entirely on the class to which it belongs. The huge loans of the civil war, for example, belong unmistakably to the class first mentioned. They were issued simply to borrow capital, and to borrow it for Government expenditure far beyond current income. From this fact it resulted, first, that subscriptions to a loan might be continuous without any permanent disturbance of the money market. When the funds were taken, either directly or indirectly, from bank deposits, they were so promptly disbursed to soldiers or contractors that they were back in the bank reserves again within a month—credited, indeed, to other owners, but equally available for the general money market.

This was not the only peculiarity of the Jay Cooke loans of the war period, if those can be called popular loans in which a commission was paid to a banking-house. The circulating medium had expanded enormously, the net increase in the year preceding July, 1863, being $260,000,000, or more than 75 per cent. This increase had been effected chiefly by issues of Government notes in vast quantities. Now the 6 per cent. bonds offered in the loan of 1863 were sold at par for Government notes. Since the notes were at a discount, then, of 35 per cent., and since the bonds were payable, interest and principal, in coin, the offer was very tempting. In substance, the citizen was invited to exchange on even terms a non-interest-bearing obligation of the Government for another obligation paying about 10 per cent., considering the premium on gold in which the interest was paid, plus the probable increase in the value of the principal. The success of Jay Cooke and his sub-agents in floating this enormous loan in all the cities and towns of the United States was hardly surprising, under such conditions. But it is not at all difficult to see how little analogy that situation bears to the problem of 1896.

By the act of February 26, 1879, the sale at par of 4 per cent. "refunding certificates," convertible into the regular 4 per cent. bonds of 1907, was authorized; these certificates to be issued in denominations of $10 only, and to be sold to private individuals over the counter of all sub-treasuries, national banks, post-offices, and other Government agencies. Specie payments had been resumed, and the rush to buy these bonds was one of the sensational episodes of the year. The city agencies were literally overwhelmed, and the incident is often quoted as a proof of what can be accomplished through a genuine popular loan. But there was very good reason for the success of the popular loan of 1879. The certificates were sold at a fixed price actually below the market for the 4 per cents into which they were convertible. They were sold for currency at the very same price

at which in 1877, before resumption, a block of the same 4 per cents had been sold to a syndicate of international bankers who paid in gold. As a matter of fact, the Treasury officers had reason to believe that the greater part of the $40,000,000 "refunding certificates" of 1879 were snapped up by speculators who went so far as to hire "repeaters" to stand in line for the subscription, and who sold the certificates at an advance in the open market as soon as they got them in their hands.

This explains why the loan was so immediately successful; but it was feasible, from the Treasury's point of view, for another reason. By the terms of the act authorizing the popular loan of 1879, its proceeds were to be applied "only to the payment of the bonds bearing interest at a rate of not less than 5 per cent." In other words, this was a refunding operation pure and simple, and the funds received on subscription to the loan, like those received for the loan of 1863, were promptly disbursed through Treasury purchases, and reappeared on the general money market.

Now a loan to raise gold for the permanent reserves of Government is clearly a very different operation from the two already described. If, indeed, the currency of a nation were gold alone or chiefly, then a popular loan would be paid as naturally in gold as it would be here in notes. But the very fact of the existence of such a currency would preclude the necessity of such a loan. A Government has no need to supply itself with gold reserves unless it has been engaging in the banking business through circulating its own redeemable notes as currency. By the very fact of such note issues—if they are redundant—the Government will itself have prevented free circulation of gold in its people's hands. Every one knows that this is our own situation. There is plenty of easy-going talk about the "hoarded gold" in the people's possession which will come out immediately under a bond subscription. The idea seems to be, if we may believe the advocates of the popular loan, that individuals the country over have their gold laid away in old tea-pots or stockings, ready to appear when bidden. How great an illusion this notion is, was sufficiently proved by the total failure of the people at large to bid, under the popular-loan advertisements of January and November, 1894.

Another widespread error is the idea that the bankers in the syndicate want these new bonds at 105 or thereabouts, and that they hope that the "popular loan" will be a failure. Nobody can hold this opinion who has mingled with the members of the syndicate during the pendency of the loans of the past two years, including the one now pending, and who has known how reluctant they were and are to take these bonds. The reason is perfectly plain to anybody who understands the banking business. Every dollar of cash in a bank forms the basis of four or five dollars' worth of discounts, upon which the bank draws interest in the same way as from money loaned. Take the quarterly statement of any bank, or of all the banks together, and you will see that the loans and discounts are four or five times as large as the amount of cash on hand. This is true of State banks and private banks exactly as it is of national banks. The converse of the proposition is true also, viz., that for every dollar of cash subtracted from their reserves and handed over to the Government, they must curtail $4 worth of discounts. Not only must they incommode their customers in that ratio, but they must forfeit their own gains in like proportion until they can sell the bonds and get their money back, and with it their power of discounting commercial paper. The truth is, that this Government loan is in all essential particulars a forced loan, and the members of the syndicate would hail it as a boon to be relieved of it altogether.

PRESS AND GOVERNMENT IN GERMANY.

PRESS prosecutions for the offence known as "lèse-majesté" have been so frequent in Germany of late that it becomes of interest to inquire into the press laws of the German Empire. A condensed account of the various ways in which German newspapers are brought under the control of the authorities has just been published by Dr. E. P. Oberholtzer of the Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph*, in a pamphlet of 180 pages, entitled 'Die Beziehungen zwischen dem Staat und der Zeitungspresse im Deutschen Reich' (Berlin: Mayer & Müller).

The principal object which the Continental press laws of Europe have in view is to restrict journalistic criticism of the Government and of privileged persons, rather than to protect private citizens in general from invasions of their privacy. The liberalizing tendencies which date from the revolutionary period of 1848 have had for one result the abolition of the censorship of the press, which now survives in Russia only. The libel laws of Germany, so far as offences against private persons are concerned, can hardly be regarded as excessively stringent. The truth of a publication may be pleaded as a sufficient defence in criminal as well as in civil proceedings. It may be assumed, however, that if German newspapers were to follow the lead of our sensational journals and make it a practice to drag private matters into print, the lawmaking power would grant more effective redress than is enjoyed by our helpless public. When it comes to resenting newspaper attacks on the authorities, there is no lack of energy in the legislation of Germany. The publication of any statements or reports, whether true or false, which may be construed as offensive or insulting to certain privileged persons, is prohibited under stringent penalties. Criticism, anecdotes, rumors, any expression of opinion which may have a tendency to degrade or ridicule such persons, will render the perpetrator liable to prosecution. At the head of such privileged persons stands the Emperor, and joined with him are the other reigning monarchs of Germany. The families of the various rulers are likewise protected, but the penalties for an offence against them are not quite so severe. A third category is composed of foreign potentates, among whom, however, presidents of republics and the Pope are not included. Then follows a descending scale of functionaries, through foreign ambassadors, members of the federal council (Bundesrath), etc.

Aside from libels and other offences against individuals, the press is restricted from publishing anything which may be offensive to the community by reason of immorality, indecency, or blasphemy; or which may be regarded as an incitement to rebellion or to resistance against the law; or which may stir up classes of the population to acts of violence against each other. A newspaper may not publish fictitious or distorted news which may throw contempt on governmental institutions; or false reports concerning foreign countries whereby German citizens may be misled to emigrate; or fraudulent statements made for the purpose of inducing the public to buy shares in the stock of a company or calculated to influence stock quotations. A curious law is that which prohibits newspapers from opening subscriptions for the public payment of a fine imposed by a court of law, or even from publishing reports of moneys contributed for such a purpose.

In addition to prescribing what a newspaper may not publish, the law also provides that there are some things which a newspaper must publish. In certain cases it must publish a reply from persons who feel aggrieved by an article containing a misstatement of facts. The reply must confine itself to facts, must be signed by the writer, and must be free from offensive expressions. If it exceeds in length the article, or the parts of an article, to which it replies, the additional room which it fills must be paid for at the usual advertising rates of the journal concerned. The reply must be printed at once, without any alteration of the text or any misleading head-lines, and it must appear in the same part of the paper and in the same style of type as the original article. Newspapers are also required to publish official announcements sent to them by the public authorities, but are paid for them as advertisements. In this manner they may be compelled to publish judgments rendered against themselves in libel suits.

In order that there may be no evasion of responsibility for an infraction of the various laws we have referred to, it is provided that every newspaper must print in every number the name and residence of its "responsible editor"; and in order to prevent the setting up of a dummy for this purpose, it is further provided that the responsible editor must actually be employed as one of the editors, and must be vested with authority to determine the contents of the paper. In the eye of the law he is the author of the entire journal, or of that part of it which falls within his province, for a newspaper may appoint one editor for its political part, another for the literary feuilleton, for the advertisements, etc. A failure to comply with this regulation, or any false representation, will render the paper liable to summary confiscation. The publisher's name and that of the printer must also appear in every issue. A copy of every number must be delivered to the local police authorities as soon as the distribution of the paper begins. The power of summary confiscation, which we have just spoken of, is a very effective weapon in the hands of the authorities, and even if it extends only to a single issue, and for a few hours, may do serious if not irreparable injury to a daily paper. It may be

exercised in certain contingencies by the police authorities without the intervention of a judicial order or judgment, and there appears to be no practical redress for its abuse.

Quite peculiar is the German system of delivering newspapers to subscribers outside of the place of publication. Within a radius of ten miles thereof a paper may be delivered in any manner the publisher prefers; outside of that it must be sent by mail or by special messenger—that is, newspapers cannot be forwarded as freight or by express. The post-office claims a monopoly of the business, and acts not only as a carrier or forwarder, but also as subscription agent. Every postmaster throughout the realm receives subscriptions for every newspaper, and delivers papers to subscribers. The postmaster of the town in which the paper is published informs the publisher how many copies are wanted, and they are then regularly delivered in bulk and forwarded to their respective destinations. The publisher does not know the names and addresses of his subscribers, which are known only to the postmaster of the place where they live. As a matter of favor a publisher may learn how many copies go to each place, but nothing further. The publisher fixes the price at which he is willing to sell his paper to the Post-office Department; to this the latter adds 25 per cent. to pay for its service, including postage, and thus arrives at the charge to be made to subscribers. In December of each year the Berlin post-office issues a price-list of newspapers for the coming year, and sends a copy of it to every postmaster to guide him in receiving subscriptions, which may be for three, six, or twelve months. There is a detailed system of regulations according to which the business is conducted. For instance, a limited number of free or "sample" copies and of exchanges is carried as a matter of courtesy, charging the regular tax of 25 per cent.; when papers are delivered at residences by letter-carriers there is an additional charge, amounting, in the case of daily papers, to 40 cents a year. While this method has some conveniences, they are counterbalanced by drawbacks. Its principal recommendation is that it is cheaper than mailing each copy in a separate wrapper at the regular rate of postage for printed matter, which is the alternative offered to publishers.

Some of the hindrances to which newspapers are subject in Germany, and which would seem intolerable to Americans, are the incidental result of the general scheme of legislation. Thus, newsdealers and newsboys must have a license, but so must all itinerant vendors; a newspaper may not post a bulletin of its contents, because the Prussian law prohibits the exhibition of placards. More serious consequences arise from the fact that in Germany the telegraph and the telephone are a monopoly of the Government, which claims and exercises the right of refusing to forward any messages which the officials consider detrimental or objectionable.

In the matter of copyright for newspaper articles the law does not seem to be entirely settled. News is considered as public property and not copyrightable. On the other hand, literary productions and scientific discussions may not be reprinted without permission, and as a general thing any article of any length can be brought under the same protection by printing a notice to that effect at the head of it.

From the hasty view here presented, and which, of necessity, could take into account only the salient points of the law and custom, it will be seen that the press laws of Germany partake of the paternalism and of the faith in bureaucratic guardianship characteristic of the country. It should be remembered that there was a time, not so very long ago, when English newspapers almost had the life taxed out of them, and, to go further back, when editors risked imprisonment and the pillory if they presumed to report the proceedings of Parliament. In Germany, France, and Italy there has been a gradual relaxing of the severity of the press laws during the past half-century, and where the letter of the law has retained its old-time harshness it has been mitigated in practice by the milder spirit of the age. There is a German proverb to the effect that no broth is ever eaten as hot as it is cooked; the actual condition of the German press is by no means so abject as one might infer who looks only at what might legally be done to it by the officers of the Government.

PROHIBITION IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, December 28, 1895.

IT is now nearly forty-five years since the first prohibitory liquor law was enacted in Maine. The act "for the suppression of drinking-houses and tippling-shops" was approved June 2, 1851, and with it began in the United States the era of attempted regulation of the liquor traffic by prohibitory legislation. The law of 1851 was no sooner on the statute-book than it was found to be insufficient, and down to the present time some fifty additional or amendatory acts have been passed. In 1884 an amendment to the Constitution was adopted, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, except for medicinal and mechanical purposes and the arts. The general features of this mass of legislation are probably well known. Severe penalties are provided for the illegal sale of liquor and for drunkenness. The possession of a United States internal-revenue license is to be taken as evidence that liquor is illegally kept for sale; and druggists are not authorized to sell. Officers of the law are given large powers of search and seizure, extending in some cases to seizure without a warrant. The sale of liquor for medicinal, mechanical, and scientific purposes is provided for by a system of town agencies, their stock being furnished by a State liquor commissioner appointed by the Governor. The establishment of a town agency is optional with the selectmen, and at present less than twenty of these agencies are in operation. The law now requires an analysis by a competent chemist of the liquors actually sold by the agents; and the State commissioner is limited by statute in the percentage of profit he may exact in his dealings with the towns.

A great deal has been said and written about the "Maine Law" by both advocates and opponents. So far as the principle of the body of legislation commonly referred to as the "Maine Law" is concerned, probably that is no longer open to serious question; for while we may decline to admit that everything a people does is right, we cannot now deny the abstract right of a people to prohibit a traffic which it deems dangerous to peace and prosperity. Discussion nowadays rightly turns, not on the theoretical rightfulness of prohibition, but upon its practical usefulness in attaining a desired or desirable end. The Maine Law undertakes to stop the sale of intoxicating liquors as a beverage, and in consequence to lessen or put an end to the habit of liquor-drinking; and in these aspects not only has it been much talked about, but many of its provisions have been copied in other States. Yet the real test of a law is not at all the amount of interest it excites, but rather the degree of success with which it does what it was designed to do, and its resulting effects upon the habits and modes of thought of the people subject to its influence.

As to the practical effect of the Maine Law in suppressing the sale and limiting the use of liquor, testimony is very conflicting. Some temperance agitators, a few ministers, and public officials when speaking for the State, as a rule uphold the Law, and claim that it has been a success—that liquor is much less used than formerly, and that the open saloon, flaunting its temptation in the face of passers-by, has disappeared. On the other hand, one hears it asserted, with equal positiveness, that the Law, so far as its primary object is concerned, is a patent failure; that in every considerable community liquor is still sold, if not openly, yet with but a thin screen between it and the public; that the use of liquors has not greatly diminished, and that drunkenness is common. About a year ago a correspondent of a Boston daily paper made an extended study of the question, embodying his observations in a series of articles that were widely read and commented upon; yet it may be doubted if the articles changed many persons' opinions. The friends of the Law insisted that the reported instances of "general violation" were isolated and microscopic, such as any detective might ferret out, while the opponents of the Law, of course, pointed to the articles as sustaining all they had ever charged. In ordinary discussion it is quite impossible to reconcile these opposing arguments, for the very practical reason that one specific instance of positive badness will effectually offset a great deal of general assertion of prevailing goodness.

It seems clear that in this matter, as in so many others, the truth does not lie at either extreme. In the small villages and remote country districts the Law is generally well enforced, and illegal selling is not extensive. In the cities and larger towns, with some few exceptions, the Law is either spasmodically enforced, or more or less openly violated. As a rule, hotels either have liquor on the premises for sale, or will obtain it for their guests; in a few cases hotel bars are maintained, with but slight pretence of concealment. Druggists commonly do not hesitate to sell to persons whom they know and can trust. But illegal sales are almost invariably made with at least a show of secrecy, the elaborate and pretentious fittings of the typical saloon are lacking, and a person must often make considerable inquiry before finding a place where a purchase can be made. There are of course "dives" and "joints" in all the larger centres; but as there is always a low stratum of wickedness which no legislation can remove, the existence of such places should not in itself be urged against the efficacy of the Prohibitory Law. With the exception of the better class of hotels and drug-stores, the liquors illegally sold are often of the poorest quality. In no part of the State is drunkenness unknown.

More to the present purpose, however, than these facts, obvious enough to any candid person who keeps his eyes and ears open, is the question as to the state of public feeling in Maine in reference to the Prohibitory Law; and on this point there are two or three considerations which seem to me to be of some importance, but to which attention has usually not been much directed. To begin with, one cannot know Maine very long without remarking the absence of a steady and constant sentiment in favor of the enforcement of the

Law. There is a noticeable lack of firm pressure in this direction. It seems to be generally assumed, as a sort of fundamental proposition, that the Law either cannot or will not be enforced; and so, as long as violation is not flagrant or notorious or offensive, there is a disposition to close the eyes to its quiet but general evasion. On the other hand, public feeling on the subject gets a good deal of spasmodic expression. Every few months a wave of reform sweeps over a community: sermons are preached, mass-meetings held, law-and-order leagues are revived, and "Lexow committees" investigate and report. City and town officials, with sheriffs and policemen, are of course quick to note the new drift, and to meet it with a series of liquor raids and seizures, and sweeping imposition of fines upon sellers. But such tension on the moral sensitiveness cannot be long maintained, and in a few weeks the excitement is over, and sales and evasions go on as before. There is hardly a considerable town or city in Maine that has not at one time or another been through such an experience. The agitation does no good, but, rather curiously, it also does no harm: the last state of the community, while not better, is certainly not worse than the first. And the explanation seems to lie in what has just been said, that a certain appreciable degree of violation of the Law is expected, and public feeling is aroused only when that normal point is passed.

Partly in consequence of these periodical agitations, partly also as a result of the prevailing sentiment, the so-called "Prohibitory" Law is in many places simply a license law. Every six months or so the proprietors of hotels, drug-stores, and other places where it is known that liquor is illegally sold—and such places are well enough known—are brought before a court, either in person or by attorney, and fined; the fines paid, the persons are not again molested until the time comes round for the next regular raid. The amount of liquor fines paid into the several county treasuries aggregates many thousands of dollars annually, affording a striking example, as some one has put it, of a revenue legally obtained under false pretences. A few years ago an attempt was made to punish illegal selling by both fine and imprisonment; but juries refused to convict, and the former method of punishment by fine alone had to be resumed. A judge of one of the State courts told me the other day that to imprison a well-known and respectable citizen for violating the liquor laws would in many places almost provoke a riot. The meaning of all this seems to be that the great majority of the people are not sufficiently anxious to have the Law strictly enforced to tolerate measures stringent enough to secure that result, but are satisfied with an administration that at once prevents the running of open saloons, drives the liquor traffic into semi-retirement, and swells the column of receipts in the balance-sheet of the county treasurer. In this aspect Maine has "prohibition for revenue only."

One test of a prohibitory law is the extent to which it has diminished or changed the habit of liquor-drinking. It is, of course, obvious that on such a point one cannot quote statistics or make statements that are very exact or precise. There is still a good deal of hard drinking in country places in Maine, and the stuff consumed is often of the deadliest kind. In the cities and towns a certain portion of the population, always accustomed to drink in moderation, now drink at home instead of in public places. So far as the great mass of the population is concerned, I think there can be no doubt that the general absence of open saloons, and the consequent roundabout and belittling methods that must usually be resorted to in order to get liquor, have appreciably lessened the consumption of all kinds of liquors, and have even tended to put the drinking habit itself on the defensive; and no one will deny that the removal of saloon influence from a community is a very great gain to good order, morals, and health. As for social drinking among the well-to-do, there seems to be good ground for thinking that it has somewhat declined. Comparatively few persons, even among those who make occasional or even regular use of liquor in their own families, would care to offer it to their guests at table, except to intimate friends; and the majority of public or semi-public "functions" of one sort or another somehow contrive to get on without alcoholic embellishment. Some social clubs have liquors for the use of their members; but in general, so far as the use of liquors is concerned, there is no "social law" to which any one, whatever his social position, need conform. In public as in private life, society leaves each man free to decide whether he will drink or whether he will not; and probably most men in Maine decide that they will not.

Any impartial observer would, I think, have to admit that the success of the Prohibitory Law in this State, although significantly qualified, is after all considerable. But I cannot think that the experience of Maine affords any warrant for the belief that a similar system would have equal or greater success elsewhere. I am of course aware that that kind of argument is common with professional advocates of prohibition; nevertheless, the position seems to me to be at once dangerous and unsound. The Prohibitory Law has been as successful as it has in Maine, not because of anything especially good either in the general principle or in this particular application of it, but very largely because of certain social conditions peculiar to the State. Maine is a thinly settled State, with a population chiefly engaged in agriculture, lumbering, and the fisheries. Its cities have all less than 40,000 inhabitants, and all but one have less than 25,000; there is no massing of population, and no overwhelming foreign element. The great manufacturing industries of New England are not largely represented in Maine. It is apparent that conditions such as these greatly simplify all problems of law and order, and give any kind of sumptuary legislation a favorable field. Moreover, even rigid enforcement of the Prohibitory Law would not necessarily prevent any individual from obtaining liquors for his own use, for the simple reason that adjoining States, not under the prohibitory régime, at once become sources of supply. If Maine could not obtain an abundant supply of liquors from Boston or some other convenient point, I am decidedly of the opinion that the enforcement of the Prohibitory Law here would be very much less efficient than it is now. That is to say, even with the aid of favorable local conditions the success of prohibition in one State depends very greatly upon the absence of prohibition in neighboring States; and it should not be forgotten that in this country the system has always been tried under these conditions. To insist upon the universal practicability of prohibition as a method of regulating the liquor traffic, pointing meanwhile to the operation of the law in Maine as an illustration of "how it works," is both idle and misleading unless these vital qualifications be also made.

With the Prohibitory Law become in many places a license law, and with considerable general violation and evasion, it is not surprising that every little while the repeal of the Law, or the resubmission of the Constitutional amendment, should be advocated. But any one who should suppose that such action is at all probable, at least for a long time to come, would, I fancy, entirely misinterpret public feeling on the subject. Certainly the agitation to that end receives but scanty support. Notwithstanding the palpable weaknesses of the system, both in theory and in practice, the mass of the people undoubtedly are satisfied with it; there is no desire to reopen the question and precipitate another volume of discussion and agitation; and there is no general feeling of incongruity in the spectacle of a license system masquerading as prohibition. In practice, such a state of mind does less harm than might be supposed. As a live political issue, prohibition is no longer of importance; but professed adherence to the principle is still a test of political orthodoxy, and alleged "public sentiment" is used as a club with which to terrorize politicians. Politically, however, prohibition is in Maine only a name to conjure with.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

SPANISH ART IN LONDON.

LONDON, December 30, 1895.

IF Velasquez was forgotten—if, as Mr. R. A. M. Stevenson puts it, his genius slumbered for two hundred years—certainly he is now having his revenge; for to-day, when there is reference to the art of Spain, it is usually supposed to mean Velasquez, and Velasquez only, as if he were the one artist who ever lived and worked in the land lying south of the Pyrenees. And inasmuch as the master can, notoriously, be really studied as he should solely in Madrid, to organize a show of Spanish art in London might be thought to court failure. But, after all, though Velasquez does tower head and shoulders above them, there were other painters in Spain, and, moreover, painters often of decided originality, as may be learned in the Prado's cellars, or half-divined in many a Toledan dimly lit church and chapel; while, in the more purely decorative arts, the Moor-inspired craftsman and the artisan of the Spanish Renaissance stand well-nigh unrivalled. Though the masterpieces of Velasquez can still be claimed by Madrid's gallery, though only in Toledo can Il Greco's greatness be realized, though there have been many to think with Gautier that even Murillo is not to be appreciated until seen in the cathedral and museum of his native town, it is as true that much else of Spain's great art-work is to be found nowadays more fully represented almost anywhere abroad rather than in Spain itself; perhaps nowhere to better advantage than in England. For, if that beautiful grove of elms on the Alhambra's hill is held up as proof of the English conqueror's benevolence, there can be no doubt that the Great Duke amply repaid himself for his trouble with the art treasures which he and a multitude in his train carried home with them from the pacified Peninsula. When these facts are remembered, in the success of the show of Spanish art just opened in the New Gallery there will seem less cause for wonder. Without question, it is so far the most interesting and delightful in the winter series of historical exhibitions given at this same gallery.

The first impression, as you enter the central hall, is one of unwonted sumptuousness.

Even the splendor of last year's Venetian decoration pales by comparison. Here, indeed, is something that, at a glance, reminds you, not of the tawdry modern Spanish palace, but rather of Seville's Capilla Real, for instance, if yours has been the good fortune to see it when resplendent with gorgeous hangings and shining with precious plate and jewels, in honor of St. Ferdinand. There may be an element of barbarism in the wealth and exuberance of Spanish ornament, and yet it never lacks the touch of austerity that chastens and refines, and that is so eminently characteristic of the country's art in its best periods. Tapestries, rich in their faded beauty, hang from the four sides of the hall's high balcony. Frames of embroidered and jewelled priestly garments, chests elaborately carved and gilded are set against the walls. Arranged with some feeling for the general effect are cases filled with rare pottery and gold and silver plate, and exquisitely chased daggers and rapiers, breastplates and helmets; and in the hall's very centre, well raised, stands a horse in complete war harness of the fifteenth century; at its feet tulips and other flowering plants, so that it looks like the horse that steps among blossoms in so many an old tapestry.

To speak of all these things in detail would be quite impossible, since in the two large galleries, as well as in the hall, are cases of exquisite embroideries and rare stuffs and laces and fans and jewels and combs and ivories, and still more pottery and glass and plate. Besides, for collector and amateur, there is a very thorough catalogue to supply all illuminating facts and dates; while the finest pleasure is reserved for those who can revel in the loveliness of color that everywhere leaps to the eye, in the loveliness of design that everywhere reveals itself upon closer study. On the other hand, it seems as impossible to speak of the collection as a whole without pointing out how surprisingly few examples of Moorish work it contains. The Spanish Renaissance is the period most largely drawn upon. The Moor's own design, or evidence of his direct influence, which in Andalusia long survived the Conquest, is found only here and there in the arms and armor, and more often in the pottery. One vase, covered with the familiar arabesques, comes from the famous Malaga works, and dates as far back as the eleventh century, its interest being enhanced by the fact that a foot supporting it was made by Fortuny. There are, besides, numerous specimens of Hispano-Moresque ware which show to what admirable advantage, blue, the color thought by some painters so impossible in a picture, can be used in the conventional ornament of dishes and jars. But then it is in the pottery, especially of the South, that Moorish influence perhaps lingered most persistently. In the very coarsest made for the people to-day in Malaga and Seville, you may still see the old Moorish shapes, and traces of the old Moorish color schemes, just as you see the old Moorish blood in the faces of so many of the men and women.

In the pictures, of course, one does not look for any suggestion of the Moor, who is responsible for so much that is best and finest in Spain. Here must be sought all that is most characteristic of the Spaniard himself; for the painter, unlike the potter or the decorator, was ever independent of Moorish principles and tradition. The exhibition gives a fair idea of the measure of his accomplishment, from his first efforts down to his most recent performances. It is inevitable that some periods and some artists should have less justice done to them than others; inevitable that masterpieces have not in every case been forthcoming. But, as a whole, the collection is unexpectedly complete. The Primitives appear in small numbers, but yet in sufficient force to assert that sound and somewhat original decorative talent which they display so impressively in the Prado's cellars, to recall the golden glory with which they shine from shadowy altars in Cordova's mosque, or from the chapel of many a forgotten monastery. Zurbaran's sombre penitents and monks have been found to fill the appropriate space upon the walls, and Ribera's more exuberant saints and virgins. If there be little by such men as El Mudo and Herrera the elder, this little is so unusually good as to justify the reputation they once enjoyed better than the more extensive showing they may make in Spanish galleries. Indeed, in El Mudo's portrait of Doña Maria Padilla there is a rich, warm glow, a softness in the flesh tints, that one is more inclined to attribute to the kindness of time than to the genius of the painter. But if Herrera really painted the marvellous little partridge on the wing here ascribed to him, as delicate and subtle a bit of modelling as if it were by the master of to-day, he must count for more than one fancied as a factor in the development of Velasquez, who was his pupil. And there is really no reason except its excellence, the almost unprecedented naturalism of the painter's method, to doubt the picture's authenticity. It is the property of Sir Clare Ford, and once belonged to Richard Ford, author of the indispensable Handbook to Spain, who bought it for the work of Herrera at Seville in 1831.

Again, of Il Greco, who fortunately seldom figures under his full name of Domenico Theotocopuli, there is enough to explain the sudden interest lately aroused in him. His greatness has been so obscured in the dim sanctuaries of Toledo's churches, or so hopelessly hidden in Toledo's monasteries, across whose thresholds no laic foot was allowed to pass, that there has been, and, for that matter, is, small chance to study his pictures in the very town where so much of his work, as painter as well as sculptor and architect, was done; out of Toledo there is scarcely any chance at all. In the Prado itself he is quite inadequately represented. Here, in the National Gallery, there is but one example of him, and this one is a recent acquisition. The Spanish exhibition boasts some half dozen of his pictures, a St. Martin, a Christ with the cross, a Christ chasing the money-changers out of the Temple, and one or two portraits. In his treatment of religious subjects there is a primitiveness more naïve than that of the men who preceded him, and the results are at times unpleasantly flat and hard, without a premonition of the triumph of the master who dipped his brush in air and light. But there is in them a dignity of composition, an effective color mosaic, and an individuality in the way of seeing things and expressing them, together with occasional wonderful drawing and modelling, that make him as distinguished among his contemporaries who painted saints and Christs according to rule, as a Sargent seems in the Academy, a Carrière in the Salon.

I have always wondered at Gautier's delight in the Murillos at Seville. There, above all places, I thought the overdone sentiment and the mawkish prettiness of the painter sadly emphasized, though there is not, as at Madrid, a Velasquez to set the standard. Whatever vigor, whatever personal element is in his art, makes itself felt now on the walls of the New Gallery far more than in rooms that are filled with his flamboyant Assumptions and ecstatic monks. For the well-known "Beggar Boys" has been borrowed from Dulwich; several of his portraits are included, among them one of himself, its prosaic homeliness of presentment a curious contrast to the swagger with which Velasquez ever painted his own portrait; and there is also a landscape, bathed in atmosphere, though not in southern sunlight, to which the old Spanish painter was deliberately blind—in the foreground, a group of trees somehow suggestive of Corot—which is, without doubt, the most genuinely observant and poetically expressed Murillo I have seen.

Alonso Cano is another painter who pleases here more unreservedly than in his native town If I except a little statue of a saint in the Cartuja, I remember nothing of his in Granada to equal the stately group of well-posed figures in his "Assumption," and the well-balanced composition of his "St. Francis in Ecstasy," which both come from private English galleries.

But when all is said, interest now, as whenever Spanish painting is in question, centres about Velasquez. I must admit my disappointment upon discovering that some of his most important canvases owned by Englishmen have been omitted. There are few things in the Prado that surpass his marvellous "Venus," belonging to Mrs. Morritt and hung with the Academy's Old Masters of 1890; but for this occasion it has not been lent. A small sketch for "Las Meninas," of private ownership at Kingston Lacy, is likewise missing. Nor have several portraits from royal galleries been allowed to add to this collection's importance. It is again a disappointment to know, without the aid of the new critic's foot-rule and photographs, that so many canvases to which the catalogue tags on the name of Velasquez could not possibly be his work. There is, for instance, a replica of the incomparable Doria Pope which, though if measured up scientifically it might be proved irrevocably his, leaves one sceptical simply because it lacks the masterly elegance of his touch, the subtlety of his modelling; while one is as positive that the other, from Apsley House, though it has been declared not his by complacent authorities, could not have been painted by any one else, save another genius as great. Masterpieces may not abound, save in copies, but there are sufficient good examples to make the collection of enormous use to the student of Velasquez, viz., several of his very early water-carriers and boys of Seville, powerful in their uncompromising realism, though without those qualities which mark his later work and which have made the modern painter look to him as the first impressionist; the little Don Carlos from Buckingham Palace, the Prince on his prancing horse in the courtyard, the King and Queen looking down from the balcony; the portrait of his slave Pareja—it may be the very one he sent about with Pareja himself to show what a swell he, the most daring of all innovators, really was as a portrait-painter; the Quevedo in spectacles from Apsley House; a little sketch of Saint Sebastian, a good strong study of the nude which, it is curious to note, belongs to Mr. Holman Hunt; the Philip from the Dulwich Gallery, said not to be his. But it is needless to name them all; excepting Madrid, probably there is no place the world over where Velasquez is to be seen so satisfactorily as just now in London, thanks to this Spanish exhibition, supplemented by the National Gallery.

The modern Spaniards fare less well. Of Goya, in his way another fearless innovator, there are but two or three indifferent por-

traits, and one or two more characteristic sketches and lithographs of the bulls and bull-fights which were his chief delight. Fortuny, third among Spanish painters if ranked by the extent of his influence, is more fortunate. Besides the etchings, which every one knows so well, there are several of his water-colors, a singularly beautiful unfinished "Acrobats at Tetuan" which, may be, would have lost in color and charm had it been carried further, and a picture, "Transport of Arab Prisoners," a wide sweep of hillside broken by the curving line of the long train of flying draperies, with, beyond, a glimpse of a blue sea: a composition full of a beauty, rightly felt, rightly expressed, which Fortuny too often sacrificed to clever tricks of technique and brilliant mannerisms. The few unimportant Ricos could easily be overlooked, which is a pity, for the collection would have gained in usefulness had the modern Spaniards, as eager to paint sunlight as the old men were to ignore it, been granted a more appreciative recognition. Vierge is omitted altogether, and so is Casanova, though Madrazo, with his clever yet vulgar portraits, finds a place. But if the show is not entirely beyond criticism, it still remains the most notable held in London for many a long day. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Allow me to express to you the sincere gratitude which I feel for the admirable editorials which appeared in a recent issue of the *Nation* upon the course followed by President Cleveland in the Venezuelan controversy. Before I read that series of articles denouncing the much-applauded message, and showing what a ridiculous and unstable position Mr. Cleveland had taken, I was, from a sense of patriotism and a feeling that the United States ought to protect Venezuela in her rights, a hearty and admiring supporter of that position. When I first read the articles referred to, I was slightly prejudiced against them by their rather bitter and violent language—I like sober discussion; it carries much more weight than rabid denunciation or scathing sarcasm. But the arguments which were submitted, after careful perusal and thought, and laying aside the prejudice created by the heated language, pressed themselves upon my mind as reasonable, logical, and true.

The articles referred to, understand, are those upon the course taken by the President, and not those regarding the right and wrong of the controversy. I do not think either one of us is able to reach a conclusion on that point. But allow me to again thank you for the light which you have shed upon this important matter.—Sincerely yours,

Robert A. Allen.

Sioux City, Iowa, January 4, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I cannot refrain from congratulating you upon the just and fearless and Christian tone of your editorials upon the Venezuelan question. While I speak only for myself, I have no hesitation in saying that the almost universal opinion in western Canada, and, indeed, throughout the whole Dominion, is one of deepest regret that even the possibility of war between the two great brother nations should be considered by any wise men as anything but utterly deplorable.

The talk of the Jingoes in American newspapers seems to us quite absurd, and—were it not so wicked—almost amusing; and our hope is that this talk does not represent the sober common sense of the great mass of the American people, whose keen commercial instincts and Christian sentiment must make evident, after a second thought, the ruinous folly and wicked barbarity of war on such a plea.

Your remarks upon the Jingo chaplain's prayer (*sic*) appear to me singularly felicitous. It is difficult to understand the notion of the Deity out of which such a prayer could arise. The best judgment of the best men is on your paper's side, and this the future will make abundantly plain. While Canada is devotedly loyal to the Empire, and would willingly send her last son to defend it, she has only the kindest feeling for the people of the United States.

I hope you will pardon this note. With hope and prayer that both nations may be guided to do the right and wise thing, I am yours, etc., Charles W. Gordon.

British Canadian Nor'-West Missions, Winnipeg, January 3, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Waiving for the present the further threshing out of the Monroe Doctrine—although I am with Prof. von Holst in his analysis of the same—two points occur to my mind that ought to be carefully considered.

(1.) In round figures, the total population of the world is estimated to be 1,400,000,000. About 10 per cent., or say 140,000,000, comprise the English-speaking people, united by ties of blood, traditions, literature, laws, and religious aspirations. Are not the English-speaking people rapidly encroaching upon the slower-moving members of the human race? Is it not the proud boast of every member of the Anglo Saxon family that we are the dominant factors in repressing the unruly, and making civilization, culture, and progress a reality and not a dream? Separate or split in two the British Empire and the United States, and say what will be the fate or future of either nation, assuming that the suggested and much-talked-of war were finally precipitated. Do political leaders in either country fully realize what mischievous doctrines, like Russian thistles, are being scattered broadcast, inciting people to cultivate hatred, cruelty, and bloodshedding?

(2.) Land and gold-mine grabbing and booming during the last twenty-five years has gone on at an accelerated pace in all portions of the globe. The average American citizen differs in no wise and in no respect from the average enterprising Englishman or European. Electric and steam motive power, plus the efficient cable and telegraphic service, has made it possible for quick-witted men the world over to forestall markets and make fortunes for many with great rapidity. Excessive and unlimited confidence in America and its marvellous resources has enabled us, through the use of foreign capital, to build and operate in the United States alone almost one-half of all the railway mileage of the world. The total railway mileage of the world was recently placed at 350,000 miles, and our system, exclusive of sidings, embraces about 170,000 miles. British capital to the extent of $2,000,000,000—or about two-thirds of the total indebtedness against our lines held in Europe—has come to us since the war of the Rebellion. Did any of us sneer at the British during the period of track-laying when Englishmen lent us their money? Did not our leading citizens in every State cry out for more money to build new roads? Did not our own State of Iowa get its one-twentieth of our total mileage referred to from money borrowed from London? "Sell more bonds in London and extend our road" was the lofty talk of the promoter. How many more millions of British money have come to us for loans upon our breweries, mills, factories, and what not? Can all this enterprising talk be so quickly forgotten, and our young people inspired to hate England and the people who so generously trusted in our good intentions, our honesty, our integrity, and our sense of justice?

I am sick at heart as I observe the prevailing sentiment suggesting war. It is my earnest hope that thoughtful people will "keep in memory" all our fair talk and promises in our interrelated financial dealings with foreigners.

Joseph Sampson.

Sioux City, Ia., January 9, 1896.

A WAR AGAINST CIVILIZATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the recent utterances reported in regard to the excitement occasioned by the message of President Cleveland, I have been particularly impressed with the language employed by the Rev. Dr. Huntington of Grace Church, New York, who says "that he would not shrink from a war if it were for the right, but asking on what grounds some Americans propose to go to war with the civilizers of the world."

England is truly a civilizer of the world. Who that has travelled in the East can fail to be impressed with the truth of this statement? Every one recognizes the striking contrast between the condition of things at Gibraltar and the little Spanish town just across the "neutral ground." A writer with whom I travelled last winter, in describing a visit to the latter, says: "We came back through the begging rabble of ragged children and filthy women, passed the line of Spanish sentries, and in a few more steps we entered the line of English sentries, and were again in a civilized country." No one can spend a little while in Cairo without observing the helpful and elevating influence which England is exerting over Egypt. In Palestine, England's civilizing power is specially exhibited in towns such as Nazareth, Tiberias, and the like, where English chapels and schools are established.

England is "a civilizer of the world." Wherever she exerts her influence, it results in the uplifting of the people and the benefiting of humanity at large. W. D. Morgan.

Baltimore, January 10, 1896.

SEWARD VERSUS CLEVELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In support of the position taken in your editorials that the recent declaration of the President is not warranted by the Monroe Doctrine, I beg to cite a passage from the instructions of Mr. Seward, Secretary of State, to Mr. Kilpatrick, June 2, 1866:

"The Government of the United States will maintain and insist, with all the decision and energy which are compatible with our existing neutrality, that the republican system which is accepted by any one of those [South American] States shall not be wantonly assailed, and that it shall not be subverted as an end of a lawful war by European powers; but beyond this position the United States Government will not go, nor will it consider itself hereby bound to

take part in wars in which a South American republic may enter with a European sovereign when the object of the latter is not the establishment, in place of a subverted republic, of a monarchy under a European prince."

Yours respectfully,

FRANCIS MCLENNAN.

MONTREAL, January 6, 1896.

JINGO GEOGRAPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. McMaster, in his exposition of the Monroe Doctrine, published in the New York *Times*, would have us believe that "Great Britain is to-day attempting to take from Venezuela not 30,000 square miles, as is commonly stated, but 109,000 square miles, to which she has no just claim whatever." As 109,000 square miles represents the area of the whole of the undisputed British possessions and the disputed territory combined, we must conclude that Prof. McMaster's interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine is that we should make it retroactive, go back of 1823, and drive the British invaders clear into the ocean, not leaving them an inch of foothold which might serve as a "base of operations" to disturb Secretary Olney's repose. So much for Jingo geography running amuck. We trust that Prof. McMaster will institute proceedings against our wicked and un American publishers of school-books, who, ever since he first conned his Primary Geography, have been trying to make innocent little children believe that British Guiana does not stop short of the sixty-first meridian. LOUIS HEILPRIN.

SUMMIT, N. J., January 11, 1896.

THE ATHENIAN FORUM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An excavation was begun here to day which is likely, whether its results be positive or negative, to prove of highest importance for the determination of Athenian topography. Dr. Dörpfeld has long been convinced that the Stoa Basileios, which Pausanias saw "on the right-hand side" (i., 3, §1) as he entered the Kerameikos Agora—the central town-square of Athens in the classical period—was located close against the eastern slope of the Kolanos Agoraios, the knoll upon which stands the so-called "Theseion." The identification of this "Theseion" with the temple of Hephaistos, described by Pausanias (i , 14, §6) as standing "above the Kerameikos and the Stoa called Basileios," lends added precision to the location. Combining this interpretation of our ancient guide-book with what recent excavations about the southwestern, western, and northwestern corners of the Areiopagos have shown concerning the general direction and levels of the ancient street leading toward the Acropolis, Dr. Dörpfeld has brought his archæological faith to a conviction which he is willing to test in terms of drachmas. As public means are not forthcoming for the work, he has purchased with private money, partly his own, two house-lots on the west side of Poseidon Street, a street running parallel with the face of the "Theseion" knoll, and there he began to day tearing down a dwelling-house preparatory to the excavation which, within three weeks or a month, is likely to furnish an unmistakable answer to the central question in Athenian topography. It is estimated that the foundations of the building sought must lie under about twenty-five feet of earth. While this greatly increases the difficulty of the work, especially in view of the narrow space open to excavation, it involves a compensating assurance that under the protection of the earth much has been preserved Particularly is this to be hoped for the numerous legal inscriptions which are believed to have existed upon the walls of the Stoa. Though the wooden ἄξονες and κύρβεις containing the laws of Solon, which formerly stood here, had gone to decay probably before the end of the fifth century B. C., it is known that copies of at least portions of the Draconian and Solonian codes were set up here in stone.

If the excavations just beginning should result in the discovery of traces of the Stoa Basileios, the Greek Government would undoubtedly proceed directly to exappropriate enough land in the vicinity to admit of search for the Stoa Poikile, the Stoa Eleutherios, the temple of Apollon Patroös, the Metroon, the Bouleuterion, and the Tholos. All these buildings can readily be located, once the clue has been given by the discovery of the Stoa Basileios. Much zeal and much money have been expended in past years in uncovering relics of post-classical buildings in the later market places to the east, such as the Hadrian Stoa and the Attalos Stoa, but the real thing, the forum in which the characteristically Athenian life was manifested and was made, has, strange to say, been hitherto left to a shadowy and somewhat restless existence in the vague or ill-comprehended allusions of the ancient writers.

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

AMERICAN SCHOOL, ATHENS, December 27, 1895.

INSTITUTES AND NOVELLÆ.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Frederic J. Stimson has rendered such immense service to his profession and the public by his monumental collation of 'American Statute Law,' that when he would recreate himself by an excursion into airier and lighter fields of literature, every one owes him the tribute of good-will. He has begun, in the January *Atlantic*, what seems likely to be a capital story, "Pirate Gold." But it begins (p. 73) with a special deposit in a Boston bank of a bag labelled as containing, on the 24th of June, 1829, besides Spanish doubloons, "four hundred and twenty-three *American twenty-dollar gold pieces*." Now, inasmuch as that coin appears to have been struck for the first time by virtue of the act of March 3, 1849 (9 U. S. Stat. at Large, 397), is not this just "a little too previous"? And, considering whom it comes from, should it not serve as an encouragement to some of the rest of us who slip up now and then in our history and our law?

When the professor of mnemonics had departed from the hotel, after gathering about him his bags and bundles, the porter came rushing to the clerk, exclaiming in wide-eyed wonder: "The memory-man has forgotten his umbrella!" T. B.

ROCHESTER, January 7, 1896.

A TESTIMONIAL TO KIRCHHOFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many Americans who in days gone by have had the privilege of sitting at the feet of Prof. Adolf Kirchhoff of the University of Berlin will doubtless be pleased to learn that a committee, including many distinguished names, has been organized in Berlin for the purpose of honoring this great classical scholar upon the occasion of his seventieth birthday and the fiftieth anniversary of his doctorate, to be celebrated on February 4, 1896. It is proposed to present to Prof. Kirchhoff a bronze (or, if the subscriptions prove sufficiently large, a marble) bust of himself, executed by Martin Wolff. Heliotype copies will be furnished to all subscribers.

The undersigned, having been requested by the committee to solicit subscriptions in this country, hopes that the appeal herewith made will meet with a ready and speedy response, realizing a substantial sum, as a visible proof of the esteem and admiration which the American pupils of Prof. Kirchhoff entertain for their illustrious teacher. Subscriptions, of whatever amount, should be accompanied by the full address and present occupation of the donor, and should be sent in not later than February 1.—Yours respectfully,

ALFRED GUDEMAN.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA,
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO.'S announcements for the current month include Prof. G Frederick Wright's 'Greenland Ice-Fields, and Life in the North Atlantic'; 'The Monroe Doctrine, and Other Studies in American History,' by Prof. J. B. McMaster; 'Studies of Childhood,' by Prof. James Sully; 'Criminal Sociology,' by Prof. E. Ferri; 'The Story of the Solar System,' by George F. Chambers; and largely rewritten editions of 'California and the South,' by Dr. Walter Lindley, and 'The Sun,' by Prof. C. A. Young.

A uniform subscription edition of the works of the late Eugene Field, in prose and verse, will be at once undertaken by Charles Scribner's Sons, in a truly elegant manner, even to such a refinement as using "a superior deckle-edged paper, containing, in water-mark, Mr. Field's initials on every page." Each of the ten volumes will have a photogravure frontispiece on Japan paper. One hundred numbered sets will be printed on Japan paper.

'A Handbook of Greek Sculpture,' by Ernest Gardner, will usher in a series of "Handbooks of Archæology and Antiquities" projected by Macmillan & Co. They also announce a second series of 'Legends of Florence,' by Charles G. Leland, and 'Richelieu,' in their "Foreign Statesmen" series, by Prof. Lodge of Glasgow.

An interesting series is promised in the "Warwick Library of English Literature," edited by Prof. C. H Hertford. Each volume is to trace, by means of a critical introduction and chronologically ordered selections, a single "literary growth" or *genre*. The one volume now in hand treats of the 'English Pastoral,' and is competently edited by Edmund K. Chambers. His introduction, conceived in the broadest spirit of comparative criticism, is (although necessarily summary) clear and full of suggestion. We should like to see the outlines filled out into a more detailed study. The selections comprise only the verse Pastoral, and are chosen mainly from the Elizabethans, who alone among Englishmen, according to Mr. Chambers, have taken the Pastoral seriously. This limited life of the bucolic *genre* gives the present volume a completeness and unity which cannot but be wanting in the next promised issues of the series—'Literary Criticism,' 'Letter-Writers,' 'Tales in Verse,' 'English Essays,' and 'English Masques'; nevertheless, the study of *genres* is an inevitable outcome of the conception of literary evolution, and

"guide-books" like the "Warwick Library" must prove invaluable to the teacher and to the independent student distant from library centres.

Way & Williams, Chicago, are about to issue 'Hand and Soul,' by Dante Gabriel Rossetti, reprinted from the *Germ* by William Morris at the Kelmscott Press. Three fifths of the limited edition has been reserved for this country.

Macmillan & Co. have added Marryat's 'Peter Simple' and D'Israeli's 'Sybil' to their excellent series of illustrated standard novels; 'Eugénie Grandet' to their Balzac; and 'Due Preparations for the Plague' and 'The King of the Pirates' to their Defoe, which is now brought to a conclusion, and which, typographically and in the matter of editing, ranks among the most satisfactory series undertaken during the past year. The bookmaking here, as in the case of Balzac, is Dent's.

We have already noticed the first volume of Mr. E. S. Hartland's 'Legend of Perseus,' in which he discussed the supernatural birth of the hero. Since then a second volume, nearly twice the size of the first, has appeared (London: David Nutt), devoted to the "life-token." It will be remembered that in fairy tales the life of the hero is often connected with some sympathetic object which indicates his danger or death. This object has either some original connection with the hero (as where he is born from a portion of a fish, and the sympathetic object, a rose-tree, from another portion), or is merely arbitrary, as where the hero plants a tree which indicates his fate. The belief which underlies these tales is the basis of witchcraft (sympathetic magic, philters, etc.), and explains the ceremonies observed at sacred wells and trees. With it are also connected totemism and the funeral rites involving the eating of a ceremonial meal, and the similar observances at marriage. As the author truly says, the discussion of the "life-token" goes down to the very foundations of the savage philosophy of life. He might have added that it also concerns vitally the basis of our own religious belief. In comparison with the questions raised in the present volumes and the inferences which may possibly be drawn from the enormous mass of custom and belief presented from all parts of the world, the discussions of the "higher criticism" shrink into absolute insignificance. Mr. Hartland intended to complete his work with the volume before us, but a third will be required to deal with the two remaining incidents of the legend—the dragon-slaying and the Medusa-witch. A supplementary bibliographical list and an index are also promised with the final volume.

A number of papers contributed to *Scribner's Magazine* during the last two or three years have been collected and published by the Scribners under the title 'The Poor in Great Cities.' London, Paris, Naples, Boston, New York, and Chicago, all have furnished material for these essays, which are largely narrative in character, and are of varying merit. The volume is profusely illustrated, mainly by prints from photographs, so that it appeals to the eye of the careless reader. But we apprehend that the chief effect of these descriptions was accomplished by their original publication, and that careful students of the condition of the poor will demand somewhat more systematic and scientific treatment of the subject than is here attained.

Somewhat in the line of Herbert Spencer's 'Education' is 'Nursery Ethics,' by Florence Hall Winterburn (New York: The Merriam Co.). This little book, however, is rather more practical than Mr. Spencer's, and is adapted for earlier stages of education than his, dealing even with pre-natal influences. We do not hesitate to say that the parent who can read it without benefit must either have attained perfection or be beyond the reach of grace. Most of us will find our parental sins of omission and commission very clearly described in these pages, and few that have the care of children will fail to derive from them some valuable suggestions. The book is marked throughout by good sense, and its dominating principle is the importance, to both parents and children, of a constant regard for justice in the exercise of control over the young. As to some of the specific rules and maxims here laid down, opinions may differ; but these are insignificant matters. Such a book as this should find a place in every house where young children are growing up.

Mr. Hamblen Sears's 'Governments of To-Day' (Meadville: Chautauqua-Century Press) is offered as "an outline for the use of newspaper readers." This class has certainly never been by implication credited with a denser ignorance than by Mr. Sears, and one example shall confirm our statement. On page 396, treating of the riots against the abolitionists, we are told that "in Pennsylvania a man named Hall of Philadelphia was burned, and another named Lovejoy in Illinois." What was burnt was the building known as "Pennsylvania Hall" in Philadelphia, in 1838, and Lovejoy's printing-office in Alton, in defence of which he was shot down at Alton in 1837. The sooner the Chautauqua directors "fill up" this "outline" with the Russian censor's caviare, the better for their reputation.

Armand Colin & Cie., Paris, are cultivating that cosmopolitanism in literature for which we have lately been taught to be especially thankful to Rousseau. Their English works newly taken over into French include a translation of Morley's 'Critical Essays' and Emerson's 'Representative Men' ('Les Sur-Humains'), by Georges Art and Jean Izoulet respectively, the latter having performed a similar service for Carlyle's 'Heroes.'

A pretty compliment has been paid to our countryman, Mr. Thomas A. Janvier. From "Avignoun" (J. Roumanille) there comes to us a translation of his 'Saint Antonio of the Gardens' into Provençal by Miss Mary Girard, Queen of the Félibres, prefaced with a "bon astru," or godspeed, from Frédéric Mistral. Mr. Janvier is an honorary member of the Félibrige. The English faces the Provençal, and, as page is made to offset page exactly, it is noticeable that the Provençal version is often more condensed than the original.

Although Chantilly and all its treasures are, after the demise of its munificent owner, to become the property of the French Academy, and thus, in a measure, of the public, few collections are at present so difficult of access. Great interest attaches, therefore, to the splendid quarto just published, which, bulky though it is, catalogues only the non-French pictures belonging to the Duc d'Aumale ('La Peinture à Chantilly, Écoles Étrangères,' by F. A. Gruyer. Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.). The text need not occupy us, as, apart from merely iconographic information and indications of size, vehicle, etc., it is positively without interest or value. What gives a real importance to this heavy tome is its forty magnificent heliogravures, which reproduce many of the most precious pictures. A few of these may here be mentioned: two Raphaels, which are both early, the tiny "Three Graces" being one of his very first achievements, while Timoteo Viti was still guiding his boyish hand; a fascinating profile of a young woman with the attributes of Cleopatra, painted by Pier di Cosimo, which bears the following inscription, "Simonetta Ianvensis Vespvccia," the civil name of the "Bella Simonetta"; a "St. Francis Wedding Poverty, Humility, and Chastity," which has the acutely tender feeling and decorative beauty of Pietro di Sano of Siena; a long cassone panel representing the Story of Esther, the masterpiece of some nameless great Florentine akin to Botticelli; a number of reproductions of pictures attributed to Van Eyck, Roger van der Weyde, Dierick Bouts, and Memling. Even the English school is represented by some fine Sir Joshuas.

A book by M. Paul Stapfer is always welcome; his 'La Famille and les Amis de Montaigne' (Paris: Hachette) as much as any of its predecessors. A delightful subject is here ably treated. Montaigne's parents and close friends, La Boétie, Mlle. Gournay, De Brach, Charron, and of course the captivating essayist himself, are the very living personages about whom M. Stapfer chats—for his book, he expressly states, is a series of "causeries," as is fitting, in view of the real hero of it.

Great men have come out of Brittany—Chateaubriand and Renan will suffice as samples—and the Breton race has literary aptitudes and an army of literary men, not as great as the two named above, yet worthy to have found a biographer in M. Joseph Rousse, who, in 'La Poésie bretonne au 19e siècle' (Paris: Lethielleux), has related their deeds in the field of verse. The book is not particularly well written; the portraits are of the newspaper class, and the subject, capable of being made very interesting, does not become so in the author's hands; but altogether we have a useful work of reference.

Under the guise of a novel, with the thinnest thread of a story, M.R. de Bonnières gives us, in 'Lord Hyland' (Paris: Ollendorff), an attractive account of the humanizing and broadening of a fanatical English nobleman who has a mania for converting heathens, whether Christian or pagan. There is much boldness in the treatment of the theme, which involves questions that cause even now considerable discussion, usually acrimonious; but it would be hard indeed to take offence if the book is read without prejudice. It is distinctly interesting in itself and as indicative of the growing trend of thought in French literary circles.

Dahms's 'Das Litterarische Berlin' is a rather peculiar book. It gives the history of every newspaper and periodical in the city and in the suburbs, with such minute items regarding each as policy, contents, frequency of issue, names and addresses of the editors, rates for subscriptions and advertisements, office hours of the editors. In the majority of instances portraits of the editor-in-chief and frequently of many of his associates are exhibited. There are numerous articles specially prepared by men prominent in various kinds of newspaper work, such as criticism of the theatre, of music, of the Government; the critic's place in the theatre, in the art exhibitions, in the music hall, and in the Board of Trade; together with an article on the press ball. These articles are accompanied by good illustrations, the one accompanying the description of the ball being large enough to contain about one hundred portraits of Berlin society leaders. The whole book is admirably prepared and contains a large amount of well-classified knowledge.

Mr. John Rae communicates to the London *Athenæum* a hitherto unpublished letter from

Adam Smith to the Duke de La Rochefoucauld, written in 1785, and preserved in the public library of Mantes. The letter was in part occasioned by a promise on the part of Smith, subsequently fulfilled, to correct in a new edition of his 'Theory of Moral Sentiments' an injustice committed by him in that work, when he associated the distinguished ancestor of his correspondent, the author of the 'Maxims,' in the same condemnation with Mandeville. It appears, also, in answer to an inquiry of the Duke's for letters from Turgot, that, in spite of their friendship, Turgot and Smith had had no correspondence. Smith mentions incidentally the subjects of the two works upon which he was engaged during the later years of his life and which he had destroyed shortly before he died. One was "a sort of Philosophical History of all the different branches of Literature, of Philosophy, Poetry, and Eloquence." The other was "a sort of Theory and History of Law and Government." The materials of both, he says, were in great part collected, and to some extent put in tolerable order. But, he continues, "the indolence of old age, tho' I struggle violently against it, I feel coming fast upon me, and whether I shall ever be able to finish either is extremely uncertain." Posterity might perhaps dispense with the former of these treatises, but even in incomplete form the latter would have been an inestimable legacy.

An admirable scheme for enabling the public which buys books to make its choice with intelligence (and at the same time for increasing, no doubt, largely the number of books which it makes up its mind to buy) has lately been put in operation in London. The Library Bureau has opened a Publishers' Central Showroom, to which the principal English publishers will send all of their publications for inspection. No books will be sold at the showroom, and no orders taken—a regulation which is obviously essential to giving the proper character to the undertaking.

A very useful work has been issued by the Library Bureau (Boston) in 'A List of Books for Girls and Women and their Clubs,' put together by various different writers who are more or less authoritative in their different fields. The books are for the most part such as would be equally interesting for men as well, but its special adaptation to women is emphasized by the large number of titles given under the heads of Domestic Economy, Home Sanitation, and Women's Clubs. The text-books under the head Education are apparently chosen upon no principle whatever. Particularly valuable are Parts I. and III., Fiction, and Art (Fine Arts by Russell Sturgis and Music by H. E. Krehbiel). The former especially is delightful reading, and one cannot but wonder that so many acute and witty things can be said about two hundred and fifty novelists without any sacrifice of sound judgment or accurate characterization. These two parts (as well as the other three) may be had separately for a very modest price, and they deserve a wide circulation.

Portugal is about to follow the example of some greater Powers, and celebrate a quatercentenary of its own. At the request of the Geographical Society of Lisbon the Government has just determined to celebrate, with much pomp, in 1897, the four-hundredth anniversary of the expedition which, on July 8, 1497, set out, under the command of Vasco da Gama, for the discovery of the route to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Few details of the celebration have as yet been settled upon, but it is expected that special expositions will be opened at Lisbon, and many scientific congresses held, to which the world will be invited.

—We have already reported the contents of the second number of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan), and shall confine our present notice to the "Documents." The very valuable Diary of Richard Smith of New Jersey, in the Continental Congress (1775 1776), of which, by the way, the historian Bancroft had the benefit, has, for its most significant entry, under date of September 26, 1775: "Com^ee brought in a Letter to [query from?] Gen Washington, in the Course of it E Rutledge moved that the Gen. shall discharge all the Negroes as well Slaves as Freemen in his Army. he (Rutledge) was strongly supported by many of the Southern Delegates, but so powerfully opposed that he lost the Point." On January 16, 1776, "A Report passed from the Com^ee on Gen. Wash^ns Letters, . . . to allow Him to reinlist the free Negroes," etc. Next in interest is a letter from Lincoln to N. J. Rockwell, in the nature of a circular to his political friends, dated Springfield, January 21, 1846: "You, perhaps, know that Gen^l Hardin and I have a contest for the Whig nomination for Congress in this District. He has had a turn; and my argument is that 'Turn about is fair play.' I shall be pleased if this strikes you as a sufficient argument." The sufficiency of this argument for what used to be called rotation in office is still recognized by the majority of Lincoln's countrymen. The holding of office is still a matter of personal aggrandizement as opposed to a public trust, the competent and faithful discharge of which should be a bar to envy or jealousy on the one hand and to insecurity on the other.

—Most timely of all is an inedited letter of John C. Calhoun's to Waddy Thompson, dated October 29, 1847. The whole of it deserves to be read and pondered in this war-crazed time, but we can make room only for the following extract, for its parallel to our present false and hypocritical situation:

"In deciding that question [how to bring the Mexican war to an end] it must not be overlooked that both parties, by large majorities, stand committed by their recorded votes, not only to the war, but [to the contention] that the war is a war of aggression on the part of the Republic of Mexico—aggression by invasion and spilling American blood on American soil; and thus committed also to the Rio Grande being the western boundary of the State of Texas. It is true that very few of either party believed that there was any just cause of war, or that the Rio Grande was the western boundary of Texas, or that the Republic of Mexico had made war on us by the invasion of our territory, or any other way; but it is equally true that, by an act of unexampled weakness (to use the mildest terms), both stand by admission on record to the very opposite of their belief. And what is worse, they have, by this act of unpar[all]eled weakness, committed large portions of both parties out of Congress to the war, as just and unavoidable on our part. . . . The fatal error of the Whigs in voting for the war has rendered them impotent, as a party, in opposition to it."

—The meeting of the Modern Language Association at New Haven during the holidays was an unusually pleasant one, the charm of the place and the cordial hospitality of the Graduates' Club and other organizations doing more to produce this effect than the general excellence of the papers read. Of the latter there were, in fact, too many; suitable discussion being impossible. The subjects treated are a fair index to the relative activity in the various departments of modern-language study in this country. Of the twoscore papers presented, nearly three-fourths pertained to Germanic subjects and less than one-fourth to Romance. Of the twenty seven Germanic papers, fully half were English, ten German, and three Scandinavian, etc. A majority of the seven Romance papers treated of French subjects. Of the English papers, but two concerned strictly linguistic matters: Dr. Belden's paper on Anglo-Saxon prepositions, and Mr. Grandgent's paper on the *p* in words like "warmpth." The remaining English papers dealt with the modern period, with the exception of five that fell in Middle-English times. It is remarkable that, of these, four were devoted to Chaucer. Prof. Price of Columbia made an elaborate presentation of the story of Chaucer's "Troilus and Crysseyde"; Prof. Manly of Brown proved that in writing the "Squire's Tale" Chaucer was not indebted to Marco Polo; Prof. Easton of Philadelphia presented many interesting features of Chaucer's versification; while Prof. Hempl of Michigan made these same facts throw new light upon Chaucer's literary workmanship and the chronology of his writings. The evidence presented made it more than likely that the "Palamon and Arcite" was written in the heroic couplet, and that we still have a large part of it but slightly revised in the "Knight's Tale." A somewhat less scholastic character was given the meetings by certain papers of a more general literary flavor: "The Conventions of the Drama," by Prof. Brander Matthews of Columbia; "Fiction as a College Study," by Prof. Bliss Perry of Princeton; "The Comparative Study of Literature," by Prof. Marsh of Harvard; "The Significance of Pastoral Literature," by Dr. Smith of the University of Pennsylvania; as also by one or two papers on politico-social movements rather than on literature—for example, the paper of Dr. Baker of Johns Hopkins University on "Das junge Deutschland" in America. By the election of Prof. Calvin Thomas of Ann Arbor to the presidency of the association, this distinction falls for the first time to a Western man, and for the first time to a teacher of German. The choice is, however, regarded as a peculiarly happy one in that Prof. Thomas not only is distinguished for his familiarity with Germanic and Indo-European philology, but is also generally regarded as foremost among American students of German literature. He is at present engaged in the Goethe archives at Weimar, in the preparation of his edition of the second part of "Faust."

—*Minerva*, "Jahrbuch der gelehrten Welt," continues to grow in size. The fifth volume, which has just appeared (Strassburg: K. J. Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), contains sixty pages more than the preceding one. This year the editors do honor to Italian educators by choosing for their frontispiece a portrait of V. G. Schiaparelli, director of the Royal Astronomical Observatory in Milan. In numerous respects the book is more complete than heretofore, especially in regard to American institutions. Important additions are also observable in the case of institutions of western Europe—witness the description of the French archives at Paris and of the archives of Holland. The Papal institutions at Rome are for the first time adequately represented. Owing to the difficulty in presenting to Europeans a clear idea of American colleges and universities, quite an essay has been introduced in the early part of the work, calling attention to the main differences between the German system and our own. The outline of the historical development of our institutions, and the classification of them, are, on the whole, very just. In

the estimation of the editors of *Minerva*, the following are entitled to the name of university: Harvard, Johns Hopkins, Columbia, Yale, Cornell, Chicago, Michigan; others likely to become worthy of the name after a few more years of development are Wisconsin, Minnesota, Colorado, California. The University of the State of New York is carefully distinguished from all the others, and is compared to the University of France. It is somewhat surprising, however, that the University of Indiana and Washington University in St. Louis are the only ones added to last year's list. The book is divided into four parts: (1) a classification of institutions according to their geographical location; (2) an alphabetical list of institutions, with a description of each and a list of faculties; (3) an alphabetical list of instructors, with a reference to the place where the institution with which each is connected is described. The number of students attending the great universities is thus set down: Paris 11,010 (10,643), figures in parentheses being for the previous year; Berlin 8 652 (8,343), Vienna 6,714 (4,856), Madrid 5,829 (5,867), Munich 3,561 (3,408), Leipzig 2,957 (3,067), Harvard 3,290 (3,156), Michigan 2,772 (2 695), Yale 2,350 (2,202), Cornell 1,686 (1,801), Chicago 1,587 (878). These figures are probably for 1894-'95, although the book states that they are for the winter term 1893-'94—exactly the same statement that stands at the head of the list for the preceding year.

—The time has come to make what we may call a topographical survey of painting in Europe, at least as far as the older schools are concerned. Public galleries have already garnered in most of the masterpieces, and the few pictures of note still remaining in private hands are fairly well known and readily catalogued. At the same time, good reproduction has become so cheap that such a survey as we speak of can afford, with but slight addition to the selling price, to include fairly adequate illustrations after at least the most important pictures. An undertaking of the kind we have just outlined has been begun by MM. La fenestre and Richtenberger in 'La Peinture en Europe' (Paris: Quantin). The first two volumes of the series, dealing with the Louvre and with Florence, left much to be desired in the way of accuracy of statement and acquaintance with the latest research. We are, however, happy to give unstinted praise to the third volume, just published, which deals with the paintings in public and private collections, churches, and other lay and secular foundations in Belgium. Perhaps the easiest way to convey an idea of the nature of the volume will be to name the more important of the works reproduced. At Brussels: Dierick Bouts's "Penitence of Otto," Petrus Cristus's "Descent from the Cross," Van Eyck's "Adam and Eve," Quentin Matsys's "Story of St. Anne," a "Crucifixion" and the "Portrait of Barbara Vlaenderberch," by Memling, Patinir's "Rest in the Flight," and Roger van der Weyden's "Charles the Bold." From Louvain we have reproductions of Bouts's "Martyrdom of St. Erasmus"; from Antwerp, Antonello da Messina's "Crucifixion," Titian's remarkable early picture containing the portrait of Pope Alexander VI., Jehan Fouquet's "Madonna," Mabuse's "Four Marys," Quentin Matsys's "Entombment," Memling's "Portrait of a Canon," little "Madonna," and "Christ and the Angels," and Roger van der Weyden's "Seven Sacraments"; from Ghent, Van Eyck's "Adoration of the Mystic Lamb"; from Bruges, the shutters of Gerhard David's "Baptism" and his "Cambyses and Sisamnus," and of course several of the Memlings in the Hospital. We scarcely need add that the best of Rubens and of other later masters is also reproduced.

—A young savant, M. Abel Lefranc, secretary of the Collège de France, has come upon a manuscript in the Bibliothèque Nationale which contains the whole of the later work in every kind of Marguerite of Navarre. If anything might be taken as certain, it would seem to be that, after so many learned researches and so many careful studies, both in regard of Marguerite herself and of her time, our knowledge of her writings was complete. And yet we now find that she left behind her in poems, dramas, dialogues, "chansons spirituelles," letters, and light poetry, about twelve thousand unpublished verses. By what strange chance such a mass of literature has lain hid, and by what train of circumstances the manuscript which contains it has escaped the researches of the learned during the hundred years that it has lain in the Bibliothèque Nationale, can hardly be explained. M. Abel Lefranc is himself as much astonished at this as anybody, and as little able to clear up the problem. Strangest of all, the title of the manuscript is duly inscribed in the catalogue, 'Les Dernières Oeuvres de la Reine de Navarre, lesquelles n'ont pas encore esté imprimées.' The volume has the elegant and characteristic covering of the celebrated collection of the learned Bouhier (1673-1746), *président à mortier* of the Parlement of Dijon, and member of the Academy—a collection which was broken up at the time of the Revolution and divided among many public libraries. M. Abel Lefranc happened to pick up the manuscript by the merest chance at the Bibliothèque Nationale, and opened it, and the discovery was made. In the *Figaro* of December 27, 1895, he states that several of the compositions show erasures and interlineations which greatly add to the difficulty of deciphering. The necessity of these appears from what is told us by Brantôme of the literary habits of the Queen. He says that she most often either dictated or wrote in her litter, as she went on journeys. There are two dramatic compositions in the collection, ten letters in verse to Marguerite's daughter, Jeanne d'Albret, with three of that princess's answers, dialogues and lyric pieces, and two long poems, "Le Navire" and "Les Prisons," the latter being of about five thousand verses, and the most extended work of the royal poet. It appears evident that all these were written at the same period of Marguerite's life, that is to say, during its last four or five years. The whole of the new-found works will be published as soon as may be, under the auspices of the Société d'histoire littéraire de la France.

—An important monograph, by Mr. Samuel Garman, of 'The Cyprinodonts' of the entire earth has been published as one of the "Memoirs of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy" (vol. xix., No. 1). The so called Cyprinodonts constitute a family of fishes related to the pikes; the species about New York are generally called killifishes and mummichogs. All are of small size, and some among the smallest of fishes; the largest are the "four-eyes" of tropical America. Most have the sexes externally well differentiated and are viviparous. The sexes of the four-eyes (*Anableps*) are "rights and lefts," that is, "a dextral male pairs with a sinistral female," or vice versa. It is noteworthy that while, in the species with plain or moderately bright males, the females are larger—often very much larger—as among fishes generally, in one genus (*Mollienisia*), the males, which are very ornate representatives of that sex, reach larger dimensions than the females, and thus falsify a generalization extended to all teleost fishes. Mr. Garman displays an unusual acquaintance with the literature of the subject. In reviving the old name Cyprinodontes for the family, however, he will not be followed by all ichthyologists. He has shown that Wagner was the first to distinguish the family, but he proceeds to state that Wagner's name "*Cyprinoïdae* is incorrectly written; etymologically corrected, it is identical with *Cyprinidæ*." *Cyprinoïdae*, however, is what was intended by Wagner, and was given because he wanted to imply likeness, but not pertinence, to the Cyprinids: *Cyprinoïdae* is a compound with εἶδος, 'form'; *Cyprinidæ* with -idae, the patronymic suffix. Ichthyologists will certainly be greatly helped by the very numerous references to together the widely scattered literature brought together in Mr. Garman's historical survey and synonyms of the groups and species. About 134 species are recognized and distributed among 32 genera.

WHITE'S MONEY AND BANKING.

Money and Banking, Illustrated by American History. By Horace White. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895. Pp. 488.

Mr. White's book is not a systematic treatise on money and banking, and does not aim to give an elaborate account of theories, or a refined criticism of conflicting views. Apart from a few short chapters, the exposition of principles has the appearance of being brought in incidentally, as though suggested by the events of the story, rather than as constituting the central object of the work. This mode of treatment will not be found fully satisfactory by the economic student who may go to this book with a view to finding a compact body of doctrine; but it has evidently been adopted with a view to attracting the general reader, unaccustomed to economic reasoning, but intelligently interested in those questions of currency and banking which are now of such predominating interest in our national affairs.

The keynote of the book is given in the following passage in the preface:

"It is the aim of this work to recall attention to first principles. For this purpose it has been deemed best to begin at the beginning of civilized life on this continent, and to treat the subject historically. The science of money is much in need of something to enliven it. If anything can make it attractive, it must be the story of the struggles of our ancestors with the same problems that vex us. The reader will find an abundance of these in the following pages. Indeed, a complete and correct theory of money might be constructed from events and experiences that have taken place on the American continent, even if we had no other sources of knowledge. This may be said of the science of banking also. All the wisdom and all the folly of the ages, as to these two related subjects, have been exploited on our shores within the space of less than three hundred years."

There are, in fact, few who will not be astonished at the abundance of illustration which our financial history, as here unfolded, furnishes of almost every conceivable point connected with money and banking. We are certainly, for instance, not in the habit of thinking of old Peter Stuyvesant as a well of wisdom from which we may profitably recommend some of our free-coinage friends to draw in-

struction. Yet here we find him, a quarter of a millennium ago, grappling manfully with the double-standard question on Manhattan Island. Beaver-skins and wampum were used as currency, as well as metallic money, and the little colony got hot over the question whether beaver should be rated at six florins or eight to the skin, and wampum at eight beads to the stiver or ten But Stuyvesant declared that it was immaterial whether the legal rate was eight for a stiver or ten, "because the dealer marks, holds, or sells his goods according to the abundance of wampum and the price he has to give for beavers."

Only a small portion of the book, however, is occupied with the curious details of the history of wampum, beaver, and tobacco money, instructive as these are; and we soon come to the doleful history of the paper currencies of the separate colonies and of the Continental Congress. Of course, every one knows how these paper substitutes for money went rapidly down-hill, and how each new issue made confusion worse confounded. The phrase "not worth a Continental" still survives to remind the descendants of the men of the Revolution how worthless the currency of the united colonies became. But this general impression is apt to be a shadowy one; and the vivid and interesting detailed account in this book will come, after all, more or less with the force of a revelation to most readers. Not only are we given the startling figures which tell the story of the depreciation in the paper money of one after another of the colonies, and in the Continental currency; but we are made to realize what desperate and futile expedients were resorted to in the attempt to avert the inevitable consequences of financial folly. On the first head, we are told, for instance, that "in 1763 the value of the New Hampshire shilling was a little less than a half-penny; in 1771 it vanished altogether. Rhode Island old-tenor bills in 1770 were worth 26 for 1." It is interesting, too, to learn that "the bills of the middle colonies were kept within reasonable bounds—a result due mainly to the stubbornness of their Governors." Though Mr. White draws no parallel here, not a few readers will be reminded of a similar service rendered by executive firmness nearer to our own day. Of Continental money the amount issued, between 1775 and 1779, was two hundred and forty-two million dollars, and "in 1781 the whole mass became worthless." An act of the United States Congress passed in 1790 provided for the funding of the bills in 6 per cent. bonds "at the rate of one hundred dollars in the said bills for one dollar in specie!" Only $7,000,000 was presented in response to this not very tempting offer.

As regards the means resorted to by the governments of the separate colonies, and by the Continental Congress, to make water run uphill, the account of them makes picturesque, even if melancholy, reading. We have, as a matter of course, legal-tender acts, struggles with the home Government over their validity, repudiation (more or less complete) of old issues, emission of new bills giving rise to such distinctions as old tenor, middle tenor, new tenor first, and new tenor second; but we have, in addition, efforts to force the currency of these precious bills on those who had property for sale, at the value which the legislative fiat put upon them.

"We find in nearly all the colonies severe penalties on those who charged more for their goods, lands, or services in bills of credit than in hard money. In some cases the penalty was a fine, in others imprisonment, in others confiscation of the property offered. There is no recorded instance in colonial history where the penalties had any effect to reduce the prices of property, or to equalize paper prices and silver prices, although there are many cases where individuals were outrageously robbed."

The Continental Congress resorted to impressment, on a large scale, to procure army supplies, at arbitrary prices, for the almost worthless paper money; and finally, in 1779, against the protest of Robert Morris, the Superintendent of Finance, it endeavored to cut the knot of the currency difficulty, so far as providing for the army was concerned, by resorting to the plan of raising, from the several States, "specific supplies" for the army, *i. e.*, avoiding the intervention of money altogether by making requisitions for beef, pork, and so forth. The result was an experimental demonstration of the necessity of money as part of the machinery of civilized life. "Instantly there was a tangle of the public accounts which nobody could unravel. In some cases, flour collected for the army was not forwarded because there was no money to pay teamsters. It remained at the place of collection till it was spoiled. Other consignments, which were actually sent, arrived too early or too late, and were left on the ground exposed to the weather." The whole experiment was a dismal failure. In August, 1780, Washington, writing to Congress, said: "The present mode of obtaining supplies is the most uncertain, expensive, and injurious that could be devised." Mr. White's account of the history of colonial and Continental money is interspersed with an abundance of instructive comment and discussion. In concluding his chapter on Continental money, he refers to the "paper-money debauchery" of several of the separate States after the Revolutionary war, and quotes from Judge Story the following declaration as to the Revolutionary and post-Revolutionary legal-tender laws: "They entailed the most enormous evils on the country, and introduced a system of fraud, chicanery, and profligacy which destroyed all private confidence and all industry and enterprise."

The next subject taken up is the paper-money legislation of the Civil War. Naturally, the prevailing note here is one of deep regret that the experience of our fathers did not avail to keep us away from the maelstrom of irredeemable paper money. Mr. White points out with great effectiveness, both by the examples of history and by intrinsic considerations, that the notion of the necessity of irredeemable paper for the carrying on of wars is a delusion. Referring to the fact that in many wars quite as trying to the resources of the countries concerned as was our Civil War, and notably in the wars of France under the first Napoleon, specie payments were not suspended, he remarks: "Yet sane people talk as though there had never been a war, from the siege of Troy till now, without the use of depreciated paper, whereas this is only a modern device of slovenly financiers." And he avails himself of the assertion made in several reports by Mr. Memminger, the Confederate Secretary of the Treasury, "that it was impossible to carry on a modern war by means of taxes alone," to point out the fallacy of this view, and to explain how the issue of paper money merely veils the true nature of the operation of taxation, and distributes the cost of the war among the people, only not according to a sound or equitable system. "Every country," says Mr. White, "pays the cost of a war at the time of the war" (of course, money borrowed from abroad is here left out of the account), and he continues as follows:

"The Southern Confederacy presents an easy illustration of this maxim, because it was for the most part isolated, having little communication with the outer world, and because all of its debts were obliterated at the end of the war. Obviously somebody paid the cost. It was not paid by foreigners (except the trifling sum of $15,000,000 borrowed abroad), nor did it fall from the moon. There being nobody else to pay it, the people of the Confederacy must have paid it, and must have paid it during the time of the war and not a moment later. To levy taxes sufficient to pay the whole of each year's expenses within the year would not have made the burden any greater than it actually was. The Confederacy, by following Mr. Memminger's conception that taxes to pay interest on loans would be sufficient, did not get rid of heavier ones. It only took them in a different way."

This quotation affords an illustration of the way in which, throughout the book, discussions of a general character are brought in at such points as the current of the narrative suggests; a method which will doubtless cause them to be read by very many to whom systematic economic exposition is insupportably dreary. In this particular instance one point is overlooked as regards the general thesis, though it does not apply to the case of the Confederacy. If, during a war, paper money were issued only in such quantity as not to be depreciated, and if this paper money were redeemed after the war, its issue would have acted as a *bona-fide* loan, and would have operated to defer payment of the corresponding part of the cost of the war until after its conclusion. Of course, it would have done so through the expulsion of a corresponding amount of gold, which would have been set free for purchases abroad (in so far as it was not hoarded).

We have perhaps devoted too much space to giving an idea of the contents of that portion of the book which relates to money; and even of this portion we have not indicated the parts which deal with the gold and silver standards (including a long account of the successive international congresses which have struggled with the question of silver), nor the brief chapters relating to the currency of foreign countries. The history of our coinage legislation and of our actual experience in regard to gold and silver money is of especial pertinence to current questions. Thus, the circumstances bearing on the well-known fact that we have had the single gold standard *de facto*, though not *de jure*, ever since 1834, are of decided interest just now. The story of how France came to the gold standard is instructively told. Some interesting points are mentioned bearing on the question of the effects, in India, of the fall of silver; the most striking being the fact that rice, the chief food product of Bengal, has "more than doubled in price since the rupee began to fall." The chapter on "the crime of 1873" is conclusive on a matter which we should be glad to think was no longer likely to be heard about, but which, at all events, is far from being the burning question it seemed to some in the palmy days of Jones and Stewart and "Coin." The concluding chapter of the part of the book devoted to money deals with our present financial situation, points out why and to what extent the Government keeps our various other dollars at par with the gold dollar, shows the evils of fiat money, explains the inelasticity of a Treasury currency, owing to the necessary non-possession by the Treasury of the machinery of banking, and touches on other matters of present-day interest, includ-

ing an account of how the contract made with the Morgan syndicate last February saved our monetary system. It closes with some discussion of the Supreme Court decisions in the legal-tender cases.

The second half of the book is devoted to banking. With this, though perhaps as interesting and certainly as important as the first half, we shall have to deal much more briefly. It is less easy here to pick out salient points and to convey, in brief space, an idea of the matters dealt with. The first chapter gives a short statement of the functions of a bank, the second describes the operation of the clearing-house, and the remaining seventeen chapters follow, for the most part, historical lines in the treatment of the subject. The history of the two Banks of the United States is full of interest and instruction, and the personal and political side of the struggle between Andrew Jackson and the second Bank is vividly presented. Successive chapters deal with the various classes of State banks; and their rise and fall, as well as the legislation affecting them, is made the occasion for impressing upon the reader the general principles which underlie the operation of banking. Thus, we have, in the chapter on "Some Notable Banks," a full account of the development of the Wisconsin Marine and Fire Insurance Company (started by the Scotchman, George Smith) into the great issuer of paper money for the Northwest; and, in this somewhat unexpected place, we find, under the head "Advantages of 'George Smith's Money,'" perhaps a fuller explanation of the nature and benefits of an elastic banking currency than anywhere else. The history of ante-bellum banking in the United States contains much in the way of example as well as of warning; and if the story of "wild-cat" banking presents a state of things almost incredibly bad, the history of the Suffolk banking system of Massachusetts, the Bank of South Carolina, the Bank of Indiana, and many others, shows how safe and beneficent a banking system is when based on sound principles.

After a chapter on the national-bank system come the three final chapters of the book, which again deal with general matters, the first being devoted to "The Quantity Theory," the second to "The Mechanism of Exchange," and the third to a number of points related to banking problems of to-day. Mr. White emphasizes everywhere the fact that credit is the thing with which banks are essentially concerned. A passage which occurs in the chapter on the mechanism of exchange is worth quoting as a specimen of the author's style. Referring to Mr. Hepburn's definition of the discount of commercial paper as "the swapping of well-known credit for less known credit," he says:

"The banker, if he understands his trade, enables the most deserving persons in the community to get possession of the tools and materials of industry without the use of money. The most deserving persons, in the commercial sense, are those who can make the most profitable use of tools and materials, and who are believed to be honest. By swapping its well-known credit for their less-known credit, the bank performs a service to society by economizing tools and materials. Anything which puts these things into the right hands and keeps them out of the wrong hands is a gain to the world. The continued existence of a bank is conclusive and incontestable proof that it is doing this thing, for if it were not, its own losses and expenses would soon eat it up."

Mr. White's book is not devoted to the propagation of any special views, but is designed to enlighten readers of ordinary intelligence in regard to the history and the essential principles of money and banking. In its theoretical arguments and its statements of doctrine, while they are not always hedged about with such caution and particularity as would be expected in an economic text-book, there is rarely anything that we can find fault with; and there is a refreshing vigor and frequently even pungency in the expression, which is not often met with in books on this class of subjects. The treatment of the "quantity theory" is not to our mind satisfactory; it fails in that highest requirement of controversial writing, the stating of the doctrine you oppose in the best form of which it is capable. Moreover, Mr. White's views, as expressed in this chapter, seem to be contradicted by his own remarks on page 197, touching the fall in the value of greenbacks between 1874 and 1875, of which he says "the explanation is that there was a greater demand for instruments of exchange in the former year than in the latter. Consequently they would buy more goods per dollar and therefore more gold."

Nothing could be more timely than this book. It ought to have the effect of making thousands of intelligent persons who are interested in the burning financial questions of the day, but who feel that they see them "through a glass, darkly," take the trouble to equip themselves with an understanding of the problem and of its history.

GROSVENOR'S CONSTANTINOPLE

Constantinople. By Edwin O. Grosvenor. 2 vols., illustrated. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1895.

Mr. Grosvenor, now professor of European history at Amherst, was for many years professor of history at Robert College, Constantinople. He improved the opportunities there afforded for the study of the history of the antiquities of that city, and these two large volumes are the result of his work and investigations. In his preface he acknowledges his indebtedness to various "distinguished gentlemen," so many and so distinguished that the list sounds very much like a "recapitulation of glittering names," to use his own words. But the two to whom he considers himself most of all indebted are Alexander G. Paspatis and Gen. Lew Wallace. The latter, whom Prof. Grosvenor designates as "the foremost writer of America," furnishes a commendatory introduction to the work.

Prof. Grosvenor's style has a somewhat Byzantine tinge, which may be due to his long and careful study of Byzantine writers, the evidence of which one finds on every page of these volumes. For he is no mere second-hand student, but one who has read the tedious tomes of the little-known Greek writers of the Byzantine Empire. Moreover, he is a member of the Hellenic Philologic Syllogos and the Society of Mediæval Researches of Constantinople, as well as of the Syllogos of Parnassos of Athens. Through his membership in these societies he has been for many years in close contact with every one in Constantinople who is interested in or has studied the ancient or mediæval history of that city, and has thus been able to draw, as it were, upon a common stock of information. Whoever in Constantinople finds an object of interest or discovers new facts, reads a paper at the Syllogos, and, in conveying his own new information, obtains in return the information and the criticisms of scholars interested like himself in the same researches. The language of the Syllogos and its publications is naturally Greek, for, with the exception of a very few Englishmen and Americans, it is almost exclusively the Greeks who are interested in the study of the former history of Constantinople.

But it is not merely that Prof. Grosvenor has been able to draw on the accumulated information of all those who are interested in the antiquities of Constantinople; in the many years of his residence he appears to have visited every church, every mosque, every cistern, and to have explored every region of the city for remains of ancient Constantinople or Byzantium, and in these explorations he has made discoveries and formed opinions of his own which constitute an original contribution. Now and then, however, he seems to propound a theory or opinion as though it were a well-attested and generally accepted fact. For instance, on the capitals of the three-tiered columns which support the roof of Bin Bir Derek cistern there are a number of monograms, some of them repeated several times, some of them upside down and some of them wrong-side foremost. Prof. Grosvenor assumes that these are monograms of senators of the time of Constantine, and that Philoxenos, who, we are told, gave this cistern to the city, did not himself bear the entire cost, but that, the undertaking being too great for any one man to accomplish, various senators contributed in larger or smaller amounts, the monogram of each contributor being inscribed on one or more capitals, in proportion to the amount of his contribution. The rude or careless workmen who did the stone-cutting cut these monograms in the capitals in any fashion, frequently upside down and wrong-side foremost. So far as we are aware, Prof. Grosvenor has no other ground for this hypothesis than the fact that there are monograms of various individuals on the capitals. History or tradition ascribes the cistern to Philoxenos only. Now, however plausible his theory, Prof. Grosvenor has no right to state it as a fact on such evidence as this. He makes no mention, by the way, of the cross on a ball which is to be found on at least two of the columns in the Bin Bir Derek cistern, and which evidently belongs to the period of Justinian. In his description of another cistern, Yeri Batan Serai, Prof. Grosvenor asserts as a fact that "it still serves its original purpose, supplying water from the aqueduct of Valens in as copious measure as of old." This may be true, but, inasmuch as other authorities declare that the source of supply is unknown, it is regrettable that Prof. Grosvenor does not inform us definitely of the source of his information.

The plan of the book seems to be to present a panoramic view of Constantinople in all the epochs of its existence. This is, perhaps, best illustrated in the chapter on the Hippodrome, which was first published some five years ago in separate form as a pamphlet. In this, after restoring the Hippodrome from its ruins, Prof. Grosvenor endeavors to make it live by bringing before the mind's eye picture after picture of stirring events which have occurred there: the revolt of the Nika; the extraordinary history of the famous or infamous Theodora, wife of Justinian, who, making her first appearance as the orphan of the deceased keeper of the bears of the faction of the Green, a pitiable little child, vainly begging at her mother's bidding from the patrons of the faction which had employed her father, becomes at last the real ruler of the world, and wreaks her vengeance in the same place on those who then scorned and insulted her. Again, we have the picture of Basil, the groom, be-

striding and controlling the wild Arabian steed which no one else could manage, and by his courage and dexterity so approving himself to Emperor and people that he finally, in his turn, ascends the imperial throne. No panorama of any other spot can be stranger or more picturesque than this panorama of the Hippodrome. The book is not a guide-book, however, and he who wishes to know the chronological order of events and the precise history of each occurrence must look elsewhere. No authorities are cited. The reader must accept Prof. Grosvenor's word; and if he doubt that, he will find it an exceedingly difficult matter to check the accuracy of the information given. Perhaps for the purpose which Prof. Grosvenor had in mind this method is the best, provided that the author is always sufficiently careful regarding his facts. After reading the chapter on the Hippodrome, for example, one has a very vivid impression both of the general life of the Hippodrome, and also of the immense part which the Hippodrome played in the history of Constantinople. One can even restore fairly well the general appearance of the enormous structure.

In another chapter we are taken up and down the Golden Horn, and then up and down the Bosphorus, going on one side and returning on the other, and completing our trip at the Princes' Islands. As we come to each village we are told by our cicerone of the most striking events connected with that village, of the part it played in Byzantine, and sometimes in Turkish, history, and of the great buildings which stood or still stand there. Sometimes the stories are romantic, sometimes gruesome. On the island of Proti, one of the Princes' Islands, where so many princes and princesses, mutilated or with shorn heads, were cast into monastic cells, after being torn from their thrones by palace conspiracies, we meet among others the entire family of the Emperor Leo V. "A leathern sack lying at the Empress's feet contained the headless remains of her husband Leo. . . . The roughly shaven head of the Empress Theodosia testified to the violence with which, in the euphemistic language of the Byzantines, she had just been made 'a citizeness of heaven, wearing the raiment of the angels,' or, in other words, a black robed nun. At her side cowered her four grown-up sons in the agony of a just-performed and nameless mutilation." Eight years before, this same Leo, the Armenian, had turned Michael I., his wife, and his children, into monks and nuns on that same island. Through such pictures as this with which these pages abound, we obtain a vivid conception of the intrigues and vicissitudes of the Byzantine court.

Having explored the shores of the Golden Horn and the Bosphorus, we are next taken through all parts of ancient Constantinople itself—that is, the modern Stambul. At each bath, each forum, each palace, each church, each cistern, each prison, and each antiquity, we are told some story of its founder, its restorer, its destroyer, or of those who have in any way connected themselves with its history.

The second volume is devoted almost entirely to the churches, mosques, and *turbehs*. The section dealing with the churches is designated "Still Existing Antiquities," and begins in the first volume. Besides Sancta Sophia, the churches which receive most minute and affectionate mention are "Kutchouk Aya Sophia, the ancient Church of Sts. Sergius and Bacchus," built by the Emperor Justinian before he ascended the imperial throne, in 527 A.D; and the "Kaehrieh Djami, the Church of Chora." The former of these does not receive from the ordinary visitor to Constantinople the attention which it deserves. As Prof. Grosvenor says:

"No other building in Constantinople has exerted equal influence in subsequent Byzantine church architecture. The towering Sancta Sophia, acme of Byzantine attainment, has served as a model for almost every Moslem mosque, whatever its proportions, which has been erected since the conquest. Apparently the Christians shrank from imitation of Sancta Sophia, their proudest architectural achievement, but the Church of Sergius and Bacchus has been the honored pattern, copied with greater or less fidelity in every Orthodox sanctuary of the East."

Prof. Grosvenor is the first to point out, we believe, the meaning of an apparent irregularity in the architecture of the southern side of this church, and to show that the private entrance to the imperial palace of Justinian was at that point. "The clear cut monograms of Justinian and Theodora" are still visible on the capitals of the columns in this hitherto unexplained niche on the southern side. The latter of these two churches, the "Kachrieh Djami," although in a much more out-of-the-way situation, is better known to the ordinary visitor on account of the beautiful mosaics which are still to be seen there. It is called by the guides the "Mosaic Mosque." Prof. Grosvenor gives us welcome illustrations of all the better preserved of these mosaics.

As one reads the account of the ancient Christian churches, now all of them mosques, except the Church of "the Theotokos, the Mouchliotissa," and Saint Irene, which is a museum of arms, one realizes that the Moslems, after conquering Constantinople, did not treat the Christian religion with that moderation and liberality which some apologists pretend. It is true that all of the churches were not converted into mosques at once, but, little by little, the covetous conqueror wrenched them from the hands of his powerless Christian subjects. In describing "Fetihieh Djami, the Church of Pammakaristos," Prof. Grosvenor tells of the *fetva*, or religious decision of the Sheik-ul-Islam, in 1530, almost eighty years after the conquest, declaring that "in a city won for Islam by the sword, the Christians had no right to any religious property whatsoever," and of the method by which, through bribery and indirection, this *fetva* was circumvented by the Patriarch Jeremiah I. and the Grand Vizier, Ibrahim Pasha. Nevertheless, in 1586, the Patriarch was ousted from this church also and the church itself converted into a mosque by Sultan Murad III., after the Christians had already been compelled to remove the cross from the dome by Sultan Suleiman, in 1547.

But while Prof. Grosvenor thus points out incidentally the oppression which the Christians have undergone in Constantinople at the hands of their Turkish conquerors, he, with all modern writers, shows that the half-century of Latin rule, 1204 to 1261, was more destructive of the antiquities of Constantinople than the four and a half centuries during which the Turks have governed the city, and that the treatment of the conquered Greeks by the Venetians and Franks at the capture of the city in 1204 was more brutal, in view of the circumstances, than their treatment at the capture of the city by the Turks in 1453. He thus shows what were the grounds of the bitterness which, from the Latin conquest onward, the Greeks have felt towards Rome, and also how extreme that bitterness became, so that, when the choice was between Latins and Turks, there were many, if not the majority, who preferred the latter. The pathetic attempt of Constantine XIII. to secure assistance from the west by submission to the Pope alienated a portion of his own subjects, while it brought him no assistance from without. In the section on "Zeïrek Djami, the Church of Pantokrator," Prof. Grosvenor tells us that when, on the 12th of December, 1452, Constantine "proclaimed the ecclesiastical union of the Orthodox Eastern Church with the Church of Rome, monks and nuns crowded here before the cell of Gennadios, imploring his advice," and then at his instigation "anathematized the union and all who favored it. After that event Constantine could no longer count upon the support of his own subjects in resistance to the Ottomans." Six months later, when the Turks had captured the city, Gennadios was made Patriarch.

Outside of the Church of Saint Irene, within the iron railing, are several great sarcophagi. One of these, of porphyry, is, Prof. Grosvenor tells us,

"of all sarcophagi cut from a single block, the vastest in the world. Its inner cavity or receptacle is eight feet nine inches long, four feet one inch wide, and three feet eleven and one-quarter inches deep. Hence it was evidently designed for the reception, not of one coffin, but of two, one resting upon the other. Not a single monogram or character of any sort breaks the sphinx-like plainness of its inner or outer surface. A chain of collateral evidence, which it is impossible to doubt, demonstrates that this sarcophagus was the sepulchral chamber wherein the coffins of Constantine the Great and of his mother Saint Helena, removed from her earlier tomb at Rome, were placed together in filial and maternal nearness for their final rest."

Nevertheless, good antiquarians not only doubt such an identification, but even positively affirm that this cannot be the sarcophagus of Constantine. This is another example of Prof. Grosvenor's readiness to accept hypotheses as proved facts. We are afraid that it must be said that he is not an altogether reliable authority, although his work is by far the most satisfactory on Constantinople that has yet appeared in English.

There is one chapter which is not only unreliable, but which must seem to any reader, in view of recent events, extremely offensive, and that is chapter iv., entitled "His Imperial Majesty the Present Sultan." After speaking of his exalted rank and "that lordly dynastic line of which he is heir and representative," Prof. Grosvenor adds: "But a still sincerer respect and homage are due the present Sultan because of the intellectual and moral qualities which characterize him as a ruler and a man. . . . The new Sultan manifested unusual talents in organization and administration. There was no problem too humble or detail too minute to receive his careful consideration. Sympathetic, generous, and large-hearted, he endeavored to benefit as well as rule his people." And again: "The many political evils existent in the Ottoman state, incurable because of their very nature, are not his creation, but his inheritance. These he endeavored to mitigate and reform." Sultan Abdul Hamid has shown himself peculiarly skilful in winning sympathy through personal interviews. His method in these interviews is somewhat the same as that which he attempted in the now famous letter to Lord Salisbury. He throws himself upon the mercy of his hearer. He tells him confidentially of the great difficulties of his situation, his earnest desire to make his nation great and glorious and place it in the forefront of progress, and how impossible he has found the execution of these noble designs. He begs counsel and advice, and flatters his auditor by praising the latter's country and asking him to tell him in what manner its rulers

have succeeded in achieving such wonderful results; and especially he makes much of the part which his auditor has played in that which has been done. He asks about railroads, and steam, and electricity, and arms; and displays considerable and minute knowledge in regard to some recent discoveries and inventions. It must be said frankly that he is insincere, and that the representations of his intentions which he makes in these interviews are falsehoods. He is, however, an able and skilful flatterer, and has completely cajoled one or two distinguished Americans, from whom Prof. Grosvenor has derived his ideas. The revelations of the Sultan's real character and of his views of government which have been made in the last few months are surely enough to enlighten the rest of the world, if not these gentlemen. Abdul Hamid has deprived his Grand Vizier and other ministers of all power, and the government of Turkey under him has been a government not of the Porte, but of the palace. The palace—that is, the Sultan—is therefore responsible for all that occurs.

In the transcription of Turkish names, Prof. Grosvenor follows somewhat unnecessarily the French system, writing "dj" for "j," "ou" for "u," etc. The book is well and profusely illustrated, but it is not sufficiently supplied with maps. The numerous references to the various regions, hills, etc., are difficult to understand and follow for lack of fuller maps. The index, also, is poor. The outward appearance of the volumes is fine. Within we are treated to heavy and luxurious paper and large open print; but unfortunately the paper is so highly glazed that the print cannot be read, especially by artificial light, without trying even the strongest and most youthful eyes.

RECENT NOVELS.

Gray Roses. By Henry Harland. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros.

Into the Highways and Hedges. By F. F. Montrésor. D. Appleton & Co.

Forward House. By William Scoville Case. Charles Scribner's Sons.

On the Point. By Nathan Haskell Dole. Boston: Joseph Knight Co.

A Truce, and Other Stories. By Mary Tappan Wright. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Doty Dontcare. By Mary Farrington Foster. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Story of Babette. By Ruth McEnery Stuart. Harper & Bros.

Melting Snows. By Prince Schoenaich-Carolath. Translated into English by Margaret Symonds. Dodd, Mead & Co.

When Love is Done. By Ethel Davis. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

The Wise Woman. By Clara Louise Burnham. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Coming of Theodora. By Eliza Orne White. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Red Star. By L. McManus. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Name This Child; A Story of Two. By Wilfrid Hugh Chesson. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.

ARE we not a little tired of the high-minded damsel of the Latin Quarter who disbelieves in marriage but is devoted to her children? Or has this lady come to stay, and must we expect her in every style at the pen of every novelist? Mr. Harland now has the floor, and portrays her as well as another does. Upon the mind of the broken-spirited reviewer of fiction she palls; nor do we hold him literarily guiltless who helps to create a new lower standard in story for the prima-donna. The virtue of woman, as an adorning grace in the heroines of fiction, will soon, if the writers keep up their present pace, be relegated to that amused estimation in which we now hold the plaints of Amanda, the rounded periods of Evelina—things gone by and therefore funny. Those stories of Mr. Harland's which are without this mark of the beast are full of his own particular attraction—the light touch, the ingenuity, the delicately tantalizing swaying of the balance between poetic and realistic. "Mercedes," a story of white mice, is a graceful trifle; "The Reward of Virtue," a really powerful sketch. Mr. Harland's English needs looking after, and the Latin Quarter has driven him to quite unnecessary Gallicisms. "I must have been hoping that he would speak quand même," and "he felt a little bewildered about the mot juste," remind one of those travelling Americans who ask if one can cross the Mer de Glace on a mulet.

'Into the Highways and Hedges' is the sombre story of an itinerant preacher and his high-born wife. It is a novel built on free and fine lines and in a lofty and ample spirit. The unpremeditated, almost accidental marriage between these seemingly ill-matched persons, their strange home-coming, the development of their lives into a culmination which the reader will best enjoy in finding it for himself, form the first nucleus of interest; the second hangs on a trial for life, with striking pictures of Newgate as it was when the day of Elizabeth Fry was but dawning. There are lover-like sketches of the salt marshes of the English coast, and there are keen and deep portrayals of character which give the book distinction; there is strength with restraint, and naturalness with delicacy; the theology is old-fashioned but glowingly alive, and the modern spirit has its manifestation in the absence of "story-book" satisfactions and retributions. This is, all in all, a book of unusual scope and dignity.

Of course it was to be expected that followers of Stanley Weyman would arise and try to shine. The time is ripe and they are here. Mr. Case is one of them, and has written a romance full of mystery, fighting, and explosion, paying Mr. Weyman the further tribute of imitating that style of his that is compounded of archaism and sentiment. The lovable ruffian is here, and the fair lady of many perils and stanch heart, with the goodly band of attendant fighters, pirates, and disappointed lovers. They are wholesome company, and we will not quarrel with them on the trifling ground of having met them several times before in the past three years.

Mr. Dole's story, or "Summer Idyl," as he calls it, shows a distinct gain in cohesiveness over a previous novelette of his. For this relief, much thanks. But it is so slight, mild, childlike, and bland that one wonders how ever it came to stand alone. A few illustrations from photographs of New England coast scenery serve as a prop to this infant life, which is blameless, but hardly promising considered as a book. As a "booklet" it is far superior to much of the twaddle published under that name, and, in so classifying it, one recommends it to a large number of readers who will find herein the evidences of wide reading, intimate love of the sea, a good command of English, and a home-brewed humor.

Mrs. Wright's tales are also of the coast, and are full of the mysterious weirdness of the sea. But the scenery is lamentably profuse; it for ever breaks in on incident and talk, and is, as Schopenhauer said of life, a needlessly interrupting episode. The worm will turn, and landscape-writing is becoming a pest whose counteractive bacillus the nations pray for. The reader of these stories is impressed, first of all, however, with their unusual quality, and this not so much because they are more or less indeterminate, since that is the order of the day, but because of the originality shown in their construction, their situations, and their conversations. They have some tragic force, much emotional turbulence, and an odd juxtaposition of the realistic, the spectral, and the humorous. With the development of their best traits, strong work may well be looked for from their author in future. On the other hand, they now hover dangerously near the region where power is caricatured into affectation and originality into formlessness.

The genuineness of 'Doty Dontcare' falls comfortingly upon the nerves. Here is a real and interesting place, the Island of Santa Cruz; landscape drawing which illustrates and does not persecute; human beings with modes of speech and of living tropically picturesque, with uncomplicated passions like love, jealousy, and revenge; here is a situation full of interest, both historic and ethnologic, and finally, here is tragedy, culminating, indeed, in revolution, but, alas! never absent from the daily lives of those with whom even one drop in sixteen flows dark in the blood. This is a small book, and the story is somewhat stiff-jointed, but it commands attention at once by its obvious faithfulness of description of a lovely island garden and of a striking episode in West Indian history.

From Santa Cruz and its many races an easy transit is made by way of Mrs. Stuart's story to New Orleans and its mixed population, where, besides the usual creole element, we meet Italians and gypsies. 'Babette' is a story of a little creole girl written for young readers; the melodrama is well adapted to them, and the ever-absorbing theme of a stolen child is sure to awaken and hold their interest. In the working out of this good old-fashioned plot, we are perfectly willing to be met by the most amazing coincidences, recognitions, and resuscitations. Why not? Let the deaf mute learn to talk, the idiot to think, the child-stealer to repent. Such marvels are of the right and natural kind for childhood, and will help them into a love of larger romance.

The scene of 'Melting Snows' is laid in Germany, where one naturally expects to find Charlotte's bread-and-butter side by side with Werther's suicide, so that in this story the air of the kindergarten mingles easily with that of the tragic stage. One is prepared for the naïve and submits to it; and the tragedy has a cumulative force as it marches which is unexpectedly effective. The translation is good, yet in quoting Scripture it might be better to use the existing versions. When we read, "one deep calleth another because of the noise of the water-pipes," we are made to feel that the psalmist was thinking less of the sea than of a system of plumbing—an impression probably erroneous. The printing and paper are admirable and make reading a pleasure.

'When Love is Done' is clearly conceived but clumsily written. The author has had something definite and wise to say, but has said it in a way borrowed from bad models, in which the didactic poses for the serious and the awkward for the simple. The pages are

marred by crudities of all sorts, and the style offends with involutions, sentences within sentences, and "loops, whorls, and arches" (as if Galton's finger print classifications had struck through the printer's ink). It is a tribute to the matter of the book that its manner does not utterly condemn it. Upon the subject of woman's work and her need to work in a systematic way, a door is opened, letting in a fresh and bracing air, which blows neither hot with modern excess of zeal nor cold with antiquated conservatism. True, the tone is one of bitterness against the conventions which make caste even in republican America, and against the men who live by these conventions instead of by their affections; but on the whole it is a tonic bitterness, and far better for young readers than the stories where the governess marries the earl. We commend this book to love-sick girls as a somewhat melancholy bit of reading, but one full of suggestion as to sources of recuperation and health. It will be a pleasing novelty to them not to be told that their only salvation is to teach the orphan boy to read, the orphan girl to sew. The fathers, too, who think that that is the only alternative to marriage are respectfully invited to pause and consider; though we confess to a private conviction that the fathers of to day are in a fairly docile attitude towards their ambitious daughters. That the higher education of women should lead them not necessarily to doing men's work, but women's work in a larger way, is so simple an idea that the novelists have hitherto let it alone.

A kindred problem, the sacred right of woman to be a milliner and a swell, is treated in Clara Louise Burnham's novel, 'The Wise Woman.' There is a great deal of village sputter and feud as to the existence of this right; then the milliner, when Lord Orville looms, is advised by the Wise Woman (one of Miss Burnham's idolized and apotheosized spinsters) to prevaricate about the millinery business and to chant her Long Island ancestry. Thus, when the moment is ripe for Lord Orville, his blushing fiancée is no longer a milliner (a thought Gilbertian, this), and is paraded before society by her friends, leagued in counsels of hypocrisy, as having merely played at the trade, hobby-wise. The wedding takes place, but the problem falls to the ground. This is merry, but is it ingenuous? We have always thought Miss Burnham's books belonged to the department of guileless sport rather than to literature; but if she begins to espouse causes and do it in morganatic fashion, we shall question if her books carry their own excuse for being, notwithstanding their cheery, chatty, fun-loving tone. Her Long Island proverb, "A child in the hand is worth two on the beach," is perhaps better than consistency.

'The Coming of Theodora' shows how intolerable the cardinal virtues may become in the hands of a person who does not know how to manage them. In fact, they sit so uneasily on the pages that the pages sit uneasily on the reader, who spends an uncomfortable hour over the book and wonders just why it was written. Its excellent English and the clever delineation of the happy-go-lucky Edward, the tender wife Marie, the fiercely excellent Theodora, hardly atone for the feeling imparted of an ever present pea-in-the-boot.

'The Red Star' is a little story of military life during the Napoleonic wars in Russia. The hero is an officer in the Emperor of Russia's horse guards; the heroine, a Polish girl of high rank. The story begins with a marriage of convenience between the two, till that moment strangers to each other. The ceremony is obnoxious to both, and also to the reader, upon the disclosure that the bridegroom has another and a hated wife. But how he earns the little Pole's forgiveness and the reader's, is told in a spirited recital which carries us from camp to field, into battle and siege, through hardships and narrow escapes. We see the Russians fly from Eylau, and we retreat with Murat from Königsberg. The desolateness of the Russian plains, the horrors of war, the honor of patriots, the fulness of moral cowardice and of physical bravery, and the daring of woman when she goes a-soldiering—all have an animated recording in the pages of this slender volume. It is the fifth in order of the Autonym Library, a series of which the clear printing rejoices the eye, and the convenient little shape at once puts itself insinuatingly into the hand.

'Name this Child' is the sickly story of a sickly boy who addled his brain by reading, at dead of night, the secretly discovered manuscript diary of a lunatic, and who in consequence did many foolish things, of which the most foolish was incessant analysis of himself. Narrowly escaping suicide, he settles down into a quiet married life, not "a cynic," we learn, but "the grand deprecator," with a "peculiar mentality," which leads a former schoolmate to observe, "I would not be those thinking people for ten thousand pounds." "I leave you, reader, with a smile," says the author in closing. The sweet sorrow of this parting is likely to be mutual if any eye save the patient reviewer's ever sees these final words. The madness of the theme is sanity itself compared with the madness of method. To do what the French critic accused Shakspere of doing—"trying all styles but the simple"—seems to have been the author's aim. The outcome is a wild-eyed, rumple-haired, dictionary-fed anarchy of language which creeps and oozes and crawls upon the spirits. It is quite true that under all is a grain of sense and a flash of power that extenuate but do not redeem. For ourselves we should freely forgive one who, reading the book, should exclaim with Marcus Aurelius, "I thank the gods that I did not make more proficiency in rhetoric, poetry, and the other studies."

A Cyclopœdia of Works of Architecture in Italy, Greece, and the Levant. Edited by William P. P. Longfellow. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 4to, pp. xxxii, 546.

THIS very handsome book contains twelve photogravures, one of them from a drawing of the interior of Sancta Sophia in Constantinople, and the others from direct photographs of important buildings and groups of buildings. It contains also 256 text illustrations, of which the greater number are half-tones, the others being plans or photographic copies of plates in other books. Credit is given to the books from which all these are taken. The preface calls attention to the photogravure of Sancta Sophia as having been prepared from a drawing, because the large photographs of that wonderful interior are made up of several pieces each, which cannot be rightly adjusted. It also names the carefully constructed picture on page 412 of St. Peter's from the chancel end, a view which other buildings prevent the student from obtaining in the presence of the church itself, although it is only right to say that Alinari publishes a very large picture which is almost equally complete, showing all but the base of the wall, and of course far more valuable as record. The other illustrations are good and well chosen, and in many instances at least are somewhat unfamiliar, either because the building itself is less well known or because the point of view chosen is novel. A glossary, purporting to deal only with those technical terms which are used in the text, and a bibliography very complete and good, so far as the author and title alone are concerned, precede the dictionary proper. This, which constitutes the entire body of the book, is composed of a list, with descriptions and comments, of the buildings thought most noteworthy in the towns, villages, and ancient sites of the countries indicated in the title. The list is alphabetical, first as to the geographical names, second as to buildings in each locality. The space allowed the different towns and other places is carefully measured according to the architectural importance and the number of the buildings considered worthy of treatment. Thus Rome has nearly one hundred pages, Ravenna ten, and Brindisi half a page.

The book, it will be seen, is built upon the lines of a guide-book. Those who are familiar with the German guide-books for Italy written by Dr. Gsell-Fels will have a fair conception of the way in which the buildings are brought before the reader. The amount of space given to a building in Gsell-Fels's book for its architecture alone without its contents is not so very different from the amount of space given to it in the Cyclopædia; the German work is often fuller in the account of classical buildings, and gives valuable maps and sketch-plans, but in mediæval and later work the advantage is with the Cyclopædia. Moreover, the latter is superior in the critical judgment and insight shown in its descriptions. The same treatment has been given comparatively to the architecture of lands where Gsell-Fels's guides do not run. That which the traveller or the would-be traveller will welcome the most kindly is perhaps the extending of first-rate guide-book service to the towns of the Dalmatian shore, of Syria, of the coast of Asia Minor, and of the Mediterranean isles. To many of these localities there is no fitting aid whatever, the guide-books being inadequate and extremely vague in their statements, and these and the books of classical geography often antiquated and greatly needing the mention of recent discoveries. The three pages devoted to Pergamon, for instance, are a real gain to every student as summing up the accessible knowledge of that most important site. The two pages and a half devoted to Assos give an excellent account of this interesting town, brought to the knowledge of men by the American explorers of about 1880. The little known ruins of Palmyra are treated as thoroughly as the subject admits, in the present state of our knowledge, in the two pages devoted to it, and the other sites of Roman ruins in Syria and its back country are taken up, each in its turn, and our very slight and imperfect knowledge of them is presented in a compact form. The centre of Asia Minor is as little known as Syria; what there is to give is well given here. The Balkan peninsula has received careful treatment, and the world of students will welcome this new and valuable source of information about its important ancient structures.

As for Italy, the latest researches of students of early pointed architecture have justice done them, as is seen under Casamari, Fossanuova, San Galgano, Ceccano, Valvisciolo, and Santa Maria d'Arbona; the later Gothic architecture is treated very fairly under the names of the well-known towns where

it has flourished; the earliest Renaissance is well handled, as under Florence and under the minor heads Capella Pazzi, Palazzo Strozzi, and the church of S. Lorenzo. In fact, the whole development of the architecture of modern Europe from the fall of the Roman Empire to the French Revolution is to be found here by those who know where to look. Of classical remains the treatment is peculiarly satisfying. What is most needed, and what is well ascertained, is presented in a perfectly comprehensible way. The articles on buildings in Pompeii seem to be quite unsurpassable as lucid and brief description. Herculaneum is, however, set forth in an article hard to understand, because it is not made clear how much the largest part of the explored remains is still deep under ground, accessible by wells and galleries only, and because the immense and celebrated villa in which were found so much important sculpture and the library of scrolls which are being slowly unrolled and deciphered, is only hinted at under the name of House of Aristides.

This brings us to the mention of what is perhaps the greatest disappointment that this book has for the student, namely, the absence of allusion to the little-known towns where something very interesting is to be found, and where more might be found if students were sent to them in greater number. It is a disappointment not to find any mention of Pomposa in the Venetian flat country, and Gavanana in the Apennines above Pistoja, Colle di Val d'Elsa in Western Tuscany, and Santa Maria di Falleri not far away to the southeast (although of this the Etruscan walls are mentioned), Piperno near Rome, and San Marino near Rimini, Pietra Santa and Monte Oliveto. But these would not rightly be classed as omissions; they are places left unnamed because there is not room to name all. More doubtful is the propriety of leaving unnamed many valuable buildings in towns where many other buildings are described. Perhaps on looking up, say, Florence, and on finding only a partial list of the buildings there which are dear to students, one has more reason to complain. Again, however, let it be urged that no cyclopædia was ever complete, or even consistent and uniform in its system of admission and rejection of topics. Fortunate and meritorious indeed the book which is so nearly consistent as this one.

The tone of criticism is uniformly just and moderate, without excess or partisanship of any sort. Mr. Charles A. Cummings and Prof. A. L. Frothingham, jr., are credited with most of the articles on Italian buildings since the fall of the Roman Empire. The late Thomas W. Ludlow prepared most of the articles on classical architecture, and those who have noted his extraordinary achievements in the way of compiling and marshalling information, as in the architectural definitions of the 'Century Dictionary,' will be prepared for the good work there is in the book before us. The question must be asked, however, what is the authority for calling the smaller temple at Baalbek "Temple of the Sun," and giving the larger one to Jupiter, thus reversing the usual attributions, while the photogravure at page 144 gives columns of the smaller temple as of the "Temple of Jupiter," according to the common practice?

Vergil in the Middle Ages. By Domenico Comparetti, Professor in the University of Florence. Translated by E. F. M. Benecke, with an introduction by Robinson Ellis, M.A., Corpus Professor of Latin in the University of Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Good wine needs no bush, and Comparetti's 'Vergilio nel medio evo' is Chianti of the best. It was published twenty-three years ago at Leghorn, and at once gained for its author world-fame among students. Its character and contents are so well known that it really does not require either our notice or our praise. However, it is a pleasure to introduce the late Mr. Benecke's excellent translation to those of our readers who are not familiar with Italian, or have been unable to procure the rather scarce Leghorn edition. Prof. Robinson Ellis, Mr. Benecke's sponsor, has sought for years to have Comparetti done into English. His efforts are at last successful, and a much wider circle will now have access to one of the soundest and most engaging products of modern scholarship.

The work is divided into two parts, each of which deals with an important aspect of mediæval culture. The first section is occupied with the vicissitudes of Virgil's literary fame during the centuries which intervene between Propertius and John of Hauteseille, the author of the 'Dolopathos.' The second examines the fame of Virgil in popular legend, and in the medium of the new popular literature which was independent of classical tradition. Comparetti has steeped himself in classical and romance writers alike. Nothing escapes him which relates to Virgil. Nor is this all. He is the historian of whole phases of mediæval thought and feeling. His theme is so much wider than is implied by the title that one can read for pages together in the first part of his book without encountering any direct reference to Virgil at all. His aim is not only to present mediæval conceptions of Virgil, but to use these conceptions as a means of gauging the mediæval mind. He gives us both text and gloss; and even when he seems to go far afield —for instance, in the chapters on "Mediæval Latin Poetry in Classical Form" and "The Causes which led to the Renaissance"—he has always a sufficient reason, viz., the desire to adjust this particular study to whatever else is known of the character of literary pursuits and attainments during the Middle Ages. Later on he accumulates marvellous stories about Virgil till the limit of the grotesque is reached. But here the reason is the same. He says, in explaining his copious reference to myth and legend: "It must not be supposed that my object is merely to surprise and amuse by narrating curious facts and follies. What led me to interest myself in these studies, and to devote much time and labor to them, was the consideration of how noteworthy a part of the history of the human mind was reflected in the varied and various phenomena of which the subject is composed."

"Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas,
Atque metus omnes et inexorabile fatum
Subjecit pedibus, strepitumque Acherontis avari."

Here in the midst of one of the finest passages of all verse, the historical Virgil reveals himself. The poet of the 'Georgics' is no thaumaturge. He has, rather, the spirit of an experimental philosopher. But when once the fourth Eclogue had been wrested into a prophecy of the birth of Christ, Virgil easily became exalted by connection with "quella Roma onde Cristo è Romano." The 'Æneid,' with its constant glorification of Rome, did the rest. "Unde etiam in antiquis invenimus opus hoc appellatum esse non Æneidem, sed Gesta populi Romani." The Middle Ages could not be expected to make more difficulty about turning racial legend into authentic history than did the predecessors of Servius. These are the two main factors in the transformation. The prophet becomes a mage: the poet who had most nobly treated the destinies of the last kingdom of the vision of Daniel, became inseparably connected with it in the memory and imagination of the Middle Ages. Already, under the Flavians, Virgil towers above other Latin authors like Saul in Israel. Macrobius regards him as omniscient and infallible. Priscian cites him 1,200 times. At the moment when the Lombards entered Italy he is almost the sole exponent of classical culture. Comparetti, in summing up the first five chapters of his book, presents Virgil to us as he stood on the threshold of the era of incubation which produced the modern nationalities:

"As supreme centre of the literary tradition left by the Romans, as representative of classical learning, as interpreter of that Roman sentiment which survived the downfall of the Empire, the name of Virgil acquired in Europe a significance well-nigh equivalent to that civilization itself. Such was his charge to the nations of the future, committed to him by paganism as it died. Centuries before, Dante spoke of Virgil as 'virtù somma.' Justinian had said almost as much when, in the most perfect monument of the practical wisdom of the Romans which has survived, he puts Virgil by the side of the divine Greek epic poet who was to him 'the father of every virtue.'"

We cannot undertake to follow Comparetti through either part of his book—through the allegorical interpretations of Fulgentius, Bernard of Chartres, and John of Salisbury, or through the legends of Conrad von Querfurt and Gervase of Tilbury. The subject involves endless detail, and an adequate treatment would require pages. We wish, however, to touch upon one point in his remarks concerning the relations between Dante and Virgil, a theme of much more permanent interest than Neapolitan folk-lore, with its bronze flies, floating castles, and magic mirrors which revealed approaching danger. The main thesis which Comparetti seeks to establish is that the choice of Virgil as guide "is not, as is generally considered, a mere freak of the imagination determined by external causes, but has just as true a psychological reason as the choice of the other guide, Beatrice." He clears away the reasons which might have inclined Dante to choose Aristotle rather than Virgil. Dante saw Virgil much more truly than the average mediæval scholar. He did not regard him as omniscient. The Stagyrite is to him "il maestro di color che sanno." But Dante, in so far as he was creative, was a poet and not a philosopher. Virgil was his favorite author, his master in style, the singer of the glories of Italy. Dante's idealized theory of the Holy Roman Empire rested on a Virgilian basis, for in the 'De Monarchia' he treats the 'Æneid' as authentic history. Furthermore, the 'Æneid' was to Dante an allegory which traced the soul's progress towards perfection. He derived his main idea and many details from it. But, most of all, Virgil had, by reason, attained to the one great truth which made him of all pagans appear to the Middle Ages "the purest and the nearest the Christ of whom he had been unconsciously the prophet." Comparetti does not, however, insist on one fact which seems to us particularly clear. Every virtue ascribed by Dante to Virgil but makes him the more a foil to her who leads the way through the heavens of the "Paradiso." Beside Virgil at his best, Beatrice "sticks fiery off." Her reprimand to Dante, when, in the Earthly Paradise, he laments the loss of Virgil, speaks

volumes for the superiority of things spiritual over things rational and things ethical.

Prof. Robinson Ellis, in his introduction, can suggest only "a single point in Prof. Comparetti's sketch of the growth and history of the Virgilian legends upon which something might be urged on the other side." This relates to the influence of Naples in the formation and diffusion of the legends connected with Virgil's name. Soundness of judgment is, indeed, the crowning merit of Comparetti's book—soundness of judgment firmly based on thorough investigation. We have already spoken of the excellence of Mr. Benecke's translation. The conclusion of his labors was almost immediately followed by that accident in the Lötschenthal which cost him his life.

Bookbindings, Old and New: Notes of a Book-Lover, with an Account of the Grolier Club of New York. By Brander Matthews. Macmillan & Co. 1895. Pp. xiii, 342.

THIS volume, which is one more of the Exlibris Series, is a pleasant and very readable account of old and recent bookbinding. It is illustrated by more than a hundred photographic pictures, in the text or on the separate leaves inserted. The text is divided into five books, though they are not called "books"—five departments, entitled severally Bookbindings of the Past, Bookbindings of the Present, Commercial Bookbinding, Books in Paper Covers, and the Grolier Club of New York. Each book, as we have called it, or each division, is divided into chapters, each with its separate title; but, in spite of this appearance of system and the abundance of technical terms which are used (and, it is fair to say, explained), it is chiefly as agreeable talk about the coverings of books that this volume will be known and remembered. In the second department, called Bookbindings of the Present, one chapter is entitled "The Technic of the Craft," and under this heading a very good brief account of the processes of binding and decorating the modern book is given. This, however, has been done before, and more fully, and the chapter entitled the "Outlook for the Future" contains little beyond a series of jocose suggestions as to binding 'Two Years before the Mast' in fishskin, and 'Dr. Johnson' in bearskin, and similar devices, some of which seem to have that doubtful kind of humor which is known as twitting on facts. More important, we think, is the chapter entitled "The Merits of Machine Binding," and with this are to be reckoned the other chapters of the same division.

The distinction between all kinds of commercial bookbinding, on the one hand, and all kinds of "extra" bookbinding on the other, is clearly marked, and it is explained that commercial bookbinding is not binding, in a strict sense, but "casing"; that is to say, the covers are prepared in advance, and the stitched books are put into them. All our readers will have noticed the great number of quaint and novel fancies which American and other designers have worked up in stamps to be impressed upon cloth covers, and in the fancy of the cloth coverings themselves. Mr. Matthews's chapter on the search for novelty deals with many of the strange whims which have been embodied in some of these cloth covers. The chapter on "Stamped Leather" deals with the more elaborate class of edition binding—namely, that to which belong the pretty covers of Mr. Pyle's 'Robin Hood,' and the Harper edition of the 'Quiet Life' with the illustrations of Abbey and Parsons. The subject is carried on in the chapter upon "Paper Covers." Designs for the printed decoration of these, from the early days of *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, when it *was* new, to the very recent and very vigorous design by Mr. Low for the *Bookbuyer*, are given, and among them are one of Mr. Walter Crane's when he was a less mannered designer than he has since become, and one of the inimitable drawings of Caldecott.

The reader would be glad of a little more critical discrimination. Bookbinding in leather is a decorative art of rather strict limitations, and there is much in the modern attempts to introduce novelty in design which cannot be thought successful in result, however original in conception. The designs for commercial book-covers seem to challenge criticism in their very character of a new departure, and it is the more important that they should be looked into with a critical eye-glass. The volume before us, in its simple jacket of dull green, a little glossy, and with plain gold letters, is non-committal.

Dixie; or, Southern Scenes and Sketches. By Julian Ralph. Harpers. 1895.

THERE is sufficient reason in their statistical value, apart from their readable style, for the consolidation into a volume of Mr. Ralph's papers contributed to his publishers' periodicals. Unfortunately for the statistics themselves, the very progress that they represent the new South as making will soon leave them behind, as of historical rather than of present interest. They are, however, in the tale of mills, of furnaces, of refineries, and especially of diversified agriculture, astonishing and captivating to all who have the true interests of the whole country at heart; and the very vivid descriptions of places and manners that belong only below the line, and that must be witnessed to be described, add an element of romance which is the more attractive in not being fictitious. The description is flecked with close observation and shrewd comment, as when, for instance, Mr. Ralph alleges that the cause of the creoles' dislike for Mr. Cable is not his portrayal of their life but of their English; and at the same time it betrays the tourist and not the resident in speaking of shell-stone for coquina (in St. Augustine) and depot (in Atlanta) for car-shed. It is hard to tell whether the writer's alleged ignorance of "toddy," which he professes to have first seen, and by implication first heard of, on the Arkansas in the Territory, is real. But if it was, the Grecian Porson's classical pun, when he found himself stranded at a wayside inn without whiskey or candle, and disappeared up stairs grumbling οὐδὲ τόδε, οὐδὲ τἄλλα, would be lost upon him. But such ignorance is venial, if not commendable, in one who knows so much that is better and tells so much that is more fascinating. Mr. Ralph notes the immunity in late years of New Orleans from yellow fever, but fails to recognize, or at least to report, the importance of the Louisiana disinfection stations, the so-called quarantines, at the jetties and above, to which, with the greater cleanliness of the city, exemption is due. Whenever the opportunity offers, he combats the idea that the waste lands of the South are sterile or the worked lands exhausted, and he cites example after example of successful truck-farming on abandoned cotton-fields, and is especially enthusiastic as to the possibilities of white labor in Mississippi. It is a little odd that, having run the rake of his observation over so much of the South, he failed to draw anything out of Georgia below Atlanta, omitting beautiful Savannah and its great cotton mart and the rice fields, with no hint of their existence. Alabama is concentrated about Birmingham—what patience can one have with this appropriation of foreign names, in a flattery that usually has no significance, and which might have been discarded here for native nomenclature! (Birmingham does echo its original, but it might so easily have found a Cherokee designation of its own.) It is too much to expect for the whole South such a description as Mr. Ralph has given of Biloxi on the Gulf and of the Teche, but, as a part of the renaissance of which he is the herald, at least a few pages might have been spared for Tuskegee, the wonderful outgrowth of Hampton, where the negro is learning to use his brain and his hands together.

Lectures and Essays. By Henry Nettleship. Second Series. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xliii, 266.

THIS volume is a sequel to one of the same name published in 1885. With the exception of a lecture on Madvig and a Memoir of Mr. Nettleship by his wife, all the articles in it are republications. Those upon Latin topics are already well known to the scholars whom they interest; the others are so inferior that one regrets their revival, for which, however, the author is responsible, since he thought them worth publishing in his life-time—thus once more exemplifying the purblind partiality of literary men for their weakest productions. The world of scholarship owes much to Nettleship. His work in the line of minute investigation, for which he was specially qualified both by nature and by his training, is always excellent. The articles in this volume which involve the examination of details must long remain papers of great value to the student of Latin. But when he leaves that range of subjects which gives scope for this kind of treatment he is fragmentary, inconclusive, in every way unsatisfactory. When he approaches some educational or ethical subject, it is with an extremely limited fund of ideas—not bad, perhaps, in their way, but altogether inadequate. Nevertheless he takes up the subject as broadly as possible, and raises expectations of a comprehensive treatment; but when he has shot off his small supply of ammunition, he leaves a disappointed reader, and a subject partly over-discussed and partly neglected and ignored. Thus, in the essay on classical education, after promising a history of the subject, he quite leaves out the extremely interesting period of the Middle Ages, frankly confessing that he is not competent to speak of it. Why, then, write on a subject so imperfectly studied? There is no lack of books in which he might have found sufficient material to bridge such a deplorable gap.

There is also, in these *parerga*, a sad want of structural unity and definite purpose. The writer goes rambling through many pages of diffuse writing without bringing out any new thing which seems worthy of so many words. The impression left on the reader's mind is that of an article written to fill up an hour, or so many pages of a magazine. This, however, would not be a fair conclusion. Mr. Nettleship was quite incapable of any such purpose. Nor will any one tax him with indolence. His chief merit, indeed, was industry—laborious, painstaking industry. We repeat, he is admirable in the accumulation of details in his own special field. He is, in this respect, almost a German; and his admiration of the

shallow German theories about specializing education, though perhaps heightened by his residence at a German University, must have come to him through something in his own nature. But when we have done justice to his accuracy and diligence in his specialty, which is the garnering of *minutiæ*, and have paid a passing tribute to his high motives and correct moral principles, though this is not precisely literary praise, we have said all that can be said for him as a man of letters. Some of his failings are not very noticeable when he is on his own ground. Yet, even there, he has serious faults both as a thinker and as a writer. He is prone to generalize on an insufficient number of particulars; he is prejudiced; and when he has approached a subject under a bias, he refuses to see anything that crosses his preconceptions, as, for example, in his judgment of Juvenal, in whom, from a literary point of view, he cannot see anything but a declaimer. This also is very German. He is, moreover, eccentric as only an Englishman can be. For example, he has discovered a correct poetic judgment and insight in Cicero, whose bad taste in poetry made him an object of derision to his contemporaries, while he declares that "it would be difficult to quote from Juvenal one really poetical line." This shows that Mr. Nettleship had just about as much taste in poetry as Cicero had; and also that, whatever came into his head, no matter how crude, he would say it without respect of persons.

It will be observed that these defects hang together. They all flow from a want of comprehensiveness, an inability to take in the whole of a large subject in one general view, without which no structural unity, no proportion or measure, and therefore no literary art is possible. And literary art Mr. Nettleship had none. He begins his essay on classical education with a definition of the term. His definition is inept and insufficient; but writers have a large latitude on this point in the interest of clearness. Only, Mr. Nettleship soon forgets all about his definition, and the same thing is referred to in subsequent pages as "literary" and as "liberal" education. When he is analyzing Cicero's style of criticism, he gives several pages of quotations from that author without any indication as to what they are expected to prove. When these quotations are at last read through, he claims this and that quality for Cicero as a critic; and the reader, if he would verify the claim, must go back and read them all over again. But a worse thing comes of this want of grasp, so natural, after all, in one whose intellectual vision was of the microscopic sort; and that worse thing is obscure and confused thinking. Clear thinking on a large subject demands the ability to keep in view a considerable number of things, in order to see their relations, and especially their relative importance. Of this quality Mr. Nettleship had as little as anybody can get along with. But confused thinking leads to obscure writing, and to the profusion of words which are merely *vox et praeterea nihil*. There are many periods in these essays which are capable of any meaning that an ingenious reader may be able to read into them. A definite meaning of their own they have not.

That a man who possessed one field so well should yield to what is sometimes regarded as the clerical vice of attempting to teach all things, merely shows that this is a temptation to be guarded against by all who are accustomed to be listened to with respect when speaking *ex cathedra*. The penalty is a general loss of credit; but the fair minded reader who loves truth better than revenge will not claim the forfeit from Mr. Nettleship, because the man is essentially honest and earnest. He often recognizes the flimsiness of what he gives, and refers to his efforts as "fragmentary," "scattered," "inadequate" remarks. But what he fails to see is that no one compels him to publish anything in that condition. Still, nobody doubts his motives nor his earnestness. Of the latter, indeed, there is more than enough; his seriousness is something appalling. There lurks no smile between the covers of the book; no lambent gleam of wit such as even Cicero, to say nothing of the inimitable Plato, contrives to flash, now and then, on the driest subjects, as an incentive and reward to the attentive reader. One cannot without effort believe that the author of these papers can be the person of whom Mrs. Nettleship could say (p. xlii):

"His sense of humor was keen and delicate, and often, by some witty remark, he would give an unexpected turn to a conversation that threatened to become too serious. He told anecdotes well, having a retentive memory, and a knack of reproducing other people's gestures and intonations. . . . He would invent rhymes or pour out a torrent of puns and jokes, till every one was infected with his high spirits. He wrote a good many parodies and *jeux d'esprit* in prose and verse, some of which were privately printed, but the secret of their authorship never divulged."

Such is the testimony of his biographer, whose memoir is by far the most readable thing in the book—we mean, of course, as literature. After wading through so much ponderous solemnity, it is almost with a sense of injury and wrong that we learn that, after all, this extreme prosiness was not unavoidable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Vol. VI. July-Dec., '95. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
Bain, R. N. Charles XII and the Collapse of the Swedish Empire. Putnams. $1.50.
Ball, W. W. R. A Primer of the History of Mathematics. Macmillan. 65c.
Chisholm, G. C. Longmans' Gazetteer of the World. Longmans, Green & Co. $13.
Claretie, Jules. La Frontière. W. R. Jenkins. 25c.
Drachmann, Holger. Paul and Virginia of a Northern Zone. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Eastwick, James. The New Centurion: A Tale of Automatic War. Longmans, Green & Co. 40c.
Foulke, E. E. Twilight Stories. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Gargoyle, Solomon. Five Sins of an Architect. Riverton, N. J.: Riverton Press.
Hawkes, Clarence. Pebbles and Shells: Verses. Northampton, Mass.: Picturesque Publishing Co.
Hidden, A. W. The Ottoman Dynasty. New York: N. W. Hidden. $2.
Inouye, Jukichi. The Japan-China War. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; New York: Scribners. $6.
Jacobs, Joseph. The Most Delectable History of Reynard the Fox. Macmillan. $2.
Kent, Prof. C. F. The Wise Men of Ancient Israel and their Proverbs. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, Charles. The Water-Babies. Macmillan. 75c.
Kukula, R., and Trübner, K. Minerva Jahrbuch der Gelebrten Welt 1895-1896. Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Westermann. $2.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLV. Pereira—Pockrich. Macmillan. $3.75.
Luce, Morton. A Handbook to the Works of Alfred Lord Tennyson. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Lukens, H. T. The Connection between Thought and Memory. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 90c.
Maclaren, Ian. Beside the Bonnie Brier Bush. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Metaphors, Similes and Other Characteristic Sayings of H. W. Beecher. New York: A. J. Graham & Co.
Powell, G. H. Excursions in Libraria: Being Retrospective Reviews and Biographical Notes. Scribners. $2.25.
Ramsay, Prof. W. M. St. Paul the Traveller and the Roman Citizen. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Putnams. $3.
Stoddart, T. T. The Death-Wake; or, Lunacy. A Necromaunt. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.50.
Talleyrand's Letter to the Pope. New York: Peter Fickler. 25c.
Weizsäcker, Prof. Carl von. The Apostolic Age of the Christian Church. Vol. II. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnams. $3.50.

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The Week.

THE Venezuelan Commission has addressed to Mr. Olney a letter which ought to have been written and signed by him and addressed to Sir Julian Pauncefote on the 20th of July last, and have taken the place in this correspondence of his despatch of that date to Mr. Bayard. Had it done so, some hundreds of millions of money would have been saved, and the national reputation for peaceableness and rationality would have remained intact. It is a document evidently emanating from men of sound mind and disposing memory. It points out that an ex-parte body like the Commission, seeking to report on a controversy to which it is not a party, cannot get on very well without help from the disputants in the shape of evidence or "data and arguments." So it proposes that Mr. Olney should ask the grabbing British for "documentary proof, historical narrative, unpublished archives, and the like." They even ask for "an attorney or agent" to appear before them. Secretary Olney has replied that he has done so. Now we sincerely hope, in the interest of peace, that the British will comply. But in the interest of future peace, and in the interest of American self-respect, we must remind our readers that this admission of the Commission of its own ignorance and helplessness follows close on the President's "protest" in his annual message to Congress against "the enlargement of the area of British Guiana, in derogation of the rights and against the will of Venezuela," which is a plain finding that the British were in the wrong, first in enlarging their boundaries, and secondly in refusing to submit to arbitration any claim the Venezuelans might choose to set up. It follows close, too, on his declaration that we should find out the true line of frontier for ourselves and force Great Britain to accept it, if need be by war. To go now, after causing enormous loss of property and filling two nations with anxiety, and confess to the British that we not only do not know, but have never known, whether they had wrongfully enlarged their borders or not, and that the commission we appointed to find the true line cannot get on without their help, is right, but is something which no honest and patriotic man ought to hear of without deep and vindictive indignation. It is virtually the confession of a crime against civilization, and can the perpetrators of it think over it without bitter self-reproach?

A great many Republican journals are at last showing signs of recovery from the lunacy of Jingoism by disapproving of the Davis resolution. They say we have had enough of Monroe for the present. Secretary Olney assumed sovereignty for us over the whole American continent—about half the habitable globe—and this, of course, carried with it all the claims of every description embodied in the Davis resolution. This resolution is simply notice that wilful annoyance to us as sovereigns will be considered "unfriendly," which sounds very like public notice from an individual that any open pulling of his nose will be taken in bad part. Having proclaimed ourselves rulers of the western hemisphere, and nobody having arisen in rebellion, we ought to be content. But both the performances of Mr. Olney and Mr. Cleveland and the Davis escapade show the extreme inconvenience of having to live by "doctrine," instead of by plain common sense.

An interesting article on the Venezuelan boundary, by Mr. H. R. Mill, from the point of view of a geographer, appears in *Nature* of January 2. He objects to all the lines that have been drawn or proposed as "an outrage on geography," inasmuch as they "cut natural features and mathematical lines at all angles, and in irregular curves which it would be impossible either to describe verbally or to lay out accurately on the ground without a survey as minute as for a railway." The difficulties in the way of any survey whatever in the disputed territory are enormous. Precisely there are to be found the richest and densest tropical forests of the world, and a recent explorer of the Barima River testifies to the severe labor required to force one's way into the woods at all. This will make it certain that our Venezuelan Commission will not go to the spot, axe in hand, to blaze the true lines through the forest, which we are thereafter to defend *ferro et igne*. Such patriotic rail-splitting must be done in youth to make a man eligible to the Presidency. Mr. Mill justly argues, from the defiance of all the principles of scientific political geography shown in the various suggested boundaries, that the case is eminently one for arbitration, and the drawing of a conventional line in such a way as to give a fixed and easily ascertainable frontier. He asserts, what we believe to be true, that the boundaries of every South American republic are disputed. If Uncle Sam is to take the job of surveyor-general for all that region, with the office of infallible arbitrator of metes and bounds thrown in, he had better prepare for roughing it for some time to come.

Mr. Balfour's speech at Manchester, last week, on England's foreign complications, was that of a civilized man as well as of a member of the Government. His assertion, in the latter capacity, that Great Britain has no cause for quarrel with any nation on the face of the earth, is timely and will be most reassuring; while his strong words about the "unnatural horror" of a war with the United States show that he does not keep his love of civilization as a thing for display merely in books and academic discourses. He put his finger upon our deepest shame and disgrace in the whole flurry, however, when he referred to the "newspaper articles," extracted from the American press, which "appeared to regard a war with England as a thing to be lightly indulged in, an exhilarating exercise, a gentle stimulus." A philosophic observer like Mr. Balfour cannot be blamed for regarding such barbarism as "distressing," but it is doubtful if any foreign observer can understand the phenomenon. It takes a native, long inured to the charming ways of the press in this country, to perceive that not a mother's son of the journalistic shriekers for war had the faintest idea that there would be any war. It was only the shouting for war that they found exhilarating; and their real "exercise," in case of actual war, would consist in running away as far and as fast as possible. Even in such pot-valor, moreover, they grossly misrepresent and outrage the cities and towns in which they vegetate. This is a thing that a foreigner cannot be expected to know, but evidence accumulates that the papers and politicians completely misunderstood the prevailing and respectable sentiment of the country, even of the West. Fortunately, war does not go on silliness any more than, as Bismarck said, on hatred; otherwise we should be constantly at war.

Senator Lodge appears to be giving his thoughts to the purchase by this country of the Danish West India Islands. There is not the slightest evidence that Denmark has made any overtures to us signifying a desire to part with them. But inasmuch as they are really worthless, and a source of expense to her, it may be that an offer on our part to pay, say, $7,500,000 for them, or even to take them for nothing, would be favorably received. It may be worth while to note what took place in reference to the island of St. Thomas in the winter of 1868-'69. Mr. Seward was then Secretary of State. He was possessed with the idea of territorial extension. In a note at the bottom of page 328, vol. iv., of Pierce's 'Life of Sumner,' we read that "he [Seward] once said at Sumner's table, in 1868, that in thirty years the City of Mexico would be the capital of the United States." (The time will have expired in two years from now.) Mr. Seward entered into a negotiation for

the purchase of St. Thomas in 1867. The price to be paid was $7,500,000. "It is a worthless island," says Mr. Pierce, "remarkable for hurricanes, earthquakes, and droughts, destitute of productions, and inhabited by a miserable population." No wonder Denmark was eager to clutch that sum of money for a possession that she would not accept as a free gift if it belonged to anybody else. When the treaty of purchase came before the Senate committee on foreign relations, it was rejected unanimously. The committee consisted of Sumner, Fessenden, Cameron, Harlan, Morton, Patterson, and Casserly. Not one of them would consent to it, nor would anybody else in Washington except Seward. The House of Representatives, by a two-thirds vote, passed a resolution against any further purchases of territory.

President Grant, when he came into office, in March, 1869, threw the treaty out of the window at once, so far as the executive department was concerned. Soon after its rejection the island was shaken by an earthquake, which nearly demolished the town of St. Thomas and the ships which happened to be in the harbor. One of the effects of this earthquake was to transfer the centre of West Indian commerce to Barbados, where it has remained ever since. Those of our statesmen who want to acquire the island now, want it for war purposes solely. In this way it would possess many advantages. Being an outlying possession, it would enable us to get into war more easily than we can now. Being easily exposed to blockade and bombardment, it would require expensive fortification and the presence of a considerable fleet. Large naval appropriations would be called for expressly on account of St. Thomas. Much stress is laid on its advantages as a coaling station, but it should not be overlooked that we can get all the coal we want at St. Thomas in time of peace by paying a fair price for it, whereas if we were engaged in a war, St. Thomas would belong to us only on condition that we had a stronger naval force than the Power we were fighting with.

Senator Hale called up his Hawaiian cable bill on Thursday, for the purpose of making a speech upon it. The present scheme is to drop the Government building and control of the cable—for which, in the last Congress, Senators Hale and Lodge were for some days willing to die in their tracks—and to fall back on the good old plan of a subsidy of $250,000 a year to a private corporation. We do not know how fully Senator Hale explained the contract already made by this corporation with the Hawaiian Government. At the time, it caused no small outcry in Honolulu. The concessionaire, Mr. Spalding, ex-United States Consul, and his counsel, ex-Minister Thurston (how naturally these exes go in for subsidies!), were charged with putting through a secret and monopolistic contract. The company was to have exclusive rights for twenty years, and to be given, as one Government organ complained, "the whip hand in making terms with Australia, Japan, or any other country of the Pacific." However, as the $40,000 a year subsidy from Hawaii was contingent upon getting six times as much from the United States, it was thought safe to put the act through even with the onerous conditions. In other words, Hawaii gave the company a sort of crowbar with which to break into the United States Treasury. But Senator Hale was, of course, equal to turning this corner with grace and skill. Objection to a subsidy to a monopoly? He hoped Senators would understand that if this country abandoned the project, the British would at once rush in and fairly cover the Pacific with their devilish military cables. To this there could be no answer, and the bill "went to the calendar." It ought to go to the Greek Kalends.

It appears, from a circular issued last week by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, that the suggestion for a public subscription in place of the syndicate subscription was communicated by him to the President in a letter dated January 4—that is, two days before Secretary Carlisle's circular was issued. In this letter Mr. Morgan held the opinion that less disturbance of the money market would result from a loan made through and by the syndicate, but, in view of the legislation proposed and the dicussions that had already taken place in Congress, if the President should think best to call for a public loan, he would cheerfully cooperate to that end. He urged his fellow-members to join in it, and dissolved the syndicate in order that they might be free to do so, and he has pledged his firm to join others in taking whatever portion of the loan may be left over after the subscriptions close. It is fair to presume that the Secretary of the Treasury would not have issued the call so promptly (although he might have done so eventually) without the assurances conveyed in Mr. Morgan's letter, since it would have been a serious responsibility to give a bird in the hand for one in the bush—to reject the offer of responsible parties for all the gold he wanted, on the chance of getting a smaller but indefinite amount from some other unknown source. Indeed, the coöperation of the syndicate was the essential prerequisite of the success of the loan, and it is that coöperation which makes it a success to-day.

The small premium on gold existing at the present time in conjunction with an open Treasury and daily redemption of the Government's legal-tender notes in gold, is a phenomenon which needs some explanation. It is due to the prevailing superstition that it is not patriotic, or at all events is not good manners, to draw gold from the Treasury with which to pay for the forthcoming issue of the United States bonds. For this reason people will go to bullion dealers and offer them one-half per cent. or some other premium for gold, and then the bullion dealers will buy sterling exchange and import the yellow metal. Those who sell sterling have to export gold to make their balances good on the other side, and this they must obtain from the Treasury. This explains the phenomenon witnessed last week of gold imports and exports passing each way on the ocean—all in obedience to the prevailing superstition. The premium on gold in the Street is simply the cost of cartage and shipping. It would be much easier and more rational, and likewise devoid of expense, if the buyers of bonds would wait till the time comes to pay for them, and then go to the Treasury with any legal-tender money they have and pass it in. If the Treasury officers say they must have "coin" for the bonds, it is only necessary for the bond-buyer to demand coin for his greenbacks, and when it is given to him pass it back in payment for his bonds.

The idea prevailing in Congress, and in the country to some extent, that the shrinkage of the gold reserve is due to a shrinkage of revenue or an excess of disbursements over receipts, is a mistake. It overlooks two facts. One is, that the Treasury actually has an enormous surplus on hand, more than $100,000,000. In the matter we are now considering, the source of this surplus is quite immaterial, whether from bond sales, or internal taxes, or customs duties, or what not. The money is there, and it is applicable under existing law to all ordinary governmental uses. The other forgotten fact is, that between July, 1890, and October, 1893, the Government forced into circulation $156,000,000 of Treasury notes, besides 36,000,000 silver dollars, or a total of nearly $200,000,000 of currency, for the greater part of which there was no business demand or requirement. That there was no such demand is evidenced by the fact that we exported $141,000,000 of gold during the time that we were putting out this new lot of fiat money. The panic of 1893 had its origin here, and not in any deficiency of revenue. Senator Sherman naturally prefers to look in some other quarter of the heavens for the cause of that financial crash. The fatal act of 1890 bears his name. That he is not wholly unmindful of the truth, however, is made plain by the terms of his recent resolution and speech in the Senate, in which he proposes to imprison all the greenbacks and Treasury notes that are sent in for redemption, and not to pay them out except in exchange for gold. This would not be a bad idea in itself, because it would amount to a retirement of

greenbacks *pro tanto*. It would curtail the banking functions of the Government to some extent. It moves the St. Paul *Pioneer Press* to the sarcastic remark that Senator Sherman's affection for the greenbacks, as the best paper currency ever invented, moves him to take them out of harm's way by putting them beyond the reach of a rude, unfeeling world.

The venerable ex-Speaker Grow made last week a vigorous assertion of the prerogatives of the House against the dangerous encroachments of the Executive. It was an awful thing to have a financial bill laid before members known as "the Secretary of the Treasury's bill." Liberty was on its last legs when a letter from the President could be read in the House just before a vote was to be had on a tariff bill. The ex-Speaker was eloquent on the duty of the House to itself in the matter of making the President keep his place. But the question arises, Where was Mr. Grow on December 18 last? Had the House no prerogatives then? Was he sitting by, frightened and dumb like the rest, when a President practically usurped the power of Congress to declare war, and not a voice was raised to assert the privileges and dignity of the House? The ex-Speaker had a glorious chance then to assert the constitutional rights of the House; and his argument would not then have seemed to assert, as it does now, that it is usurpation to ask Congress to pay the country's debts or reform taxation, but strict constitutional patriotism and propriety to urge it blindfold into war.

Bill Chandler is quite as zealous a supporter of Speaker Reed for the Presidency as is Matt Quay, and the New Hampshire Senator has taken to writing articles in favor of the Speaker's nomination. The most novel feature of Chandler's arguments is that he presents the former "czar" in the light of a compromise candidate, who is neither out-and-out for sound money nor bitterly opposed to soft money. It may be that Eastern Republicans, who believe in the gold standard, and silver-State Republicans, who believe in a 50-cent dollar, will rally with enthusiasm to the support of a man who stands on such a platform; but it is hard to recognize in this "wobbling" candidate for a Presidential nomination the man whose friends used to boast of his courage and positiveness.

It is not wonderful that the victory which Representative Bartlett won last week, single-handed, over the whole school of pension sharks gathered in the House of Representatives and its lobby, has attracted wide attention. The public Treasury can always supply itself with watch-dogs of the Holman variety in Congress; any member can win cheap fame by becoming a chronic objector, and blocking all legislation which does not seek an outlet for expenditures in his own district. But it requires a higher order of courage to defy malicious misrepresentation and vulgar personal abuse from one's own colleagues, by taking a stand alone against an army of time-servers bent on holding the soldier vote at any cost. There was not a point made by Mr. Bartlett during the debate to which every honest citizen will not assent. The blatherskites, on his own side of the House as well as on the other, had to appeal to the lowest instincts of the mob behind them in order to find material for their speeches in response. The deserving veterans have a better champion in a Representative who tries to protect their reputations against the taint of fraud, than in one who is willing to rob the Treasury for the sake of shielding himself from a false charge of disloyalty.

The choice of Chicago as the place, and the 7th of July as the time, for the meeting of the Democratic national convention is significant and encouraging because the free-coinage element in the committee desired St. Louis, as a headquarters of silver sentiment, and a date a month earlier, because they thought they would be stronger, the shorter the preliminary discussion. Precedent dictates the holding of its convention by the party in control of the Administration before that of the Opposition, but the Democrats are now in a minority in each branch of Congress six months before Presidential nominations are to be made, for the first time since 1872, and they feel little like taking the initiative. A more striking sign of party demoralization is the almost complete absence of any serious discussion of candidates, or of any organized movement for the nomination of any man. It is quite without precedent that the party which elected the President at the last election should enter a Presidential year without any general expression of opinion in favor of any candidate for the next term, and, indeed, without evidence that anybody is very anxious to secure the nomination. This extraordinary situation only reflects a general feeling ten months before the election that the Republican candidate is sure of success. Yet so sudden and great have been the revolutions in public sentiment of late years in the United States that it is foolish to regard the result of the voting next November as already settled.

Philadelphia Republicans always elect their delegates to the national convention very early, and the custom was maintained this year by conventions in the five Congressional districts last week. A touch of humor was lent to the occasion by the adoption, in a convention controlled by the Senator's friends, of a resolution declaring that their delegates "should favorably consider the name of Pennsylvania's representative Republican for the Presidency, Hon. Matthew Stanley Quay," and instructing them to vote for him if his name shall be presented to the convention. Of more significance was the resolution adopted in another convention which was run by one of Quay's lieutenants, "recognizing the splendid abilities, the masterful leadership, the wise and safe statesmanship, and the distinguished public record of the Hon. Thomas B. Reed of Maine," declaring him "the best exponent of our party in council and in action," and instructing the delegates to "earnestly labor and consistently vote for the nomination of that matchless man of the people as the standard-bearer of our patriotic party." Philadelphia is the first city in the country to elect and instruct delegates, and the Speaker of the House is thus entered in the race ahead of all rivals. This fact illustrates one advantage of being the favorite of a party boss—but there are also disadvantages in enjoying such favor.

There has been a good deal of talk about the exact nature of the control of Great Britain over the foreign relations of the Transvaal, and the general impression has been that the Boers could hold no intercourse with foreign Powers except through the British Government. But this contention does not seem to be sustained by the text of the treaty of 1884. This treaty was a sort of revision of the Sand River Convention of 1852, which first guaranteed the independence of the Boers. Here is the article which is supposed to cut them off from foreign intercourse except through the British Foreign Office:

> "The South African Republic will conclude no treaty or engagement with any state or nation other than the Orange Free State, nor with any native tribe to the eastward or westward of the republic, until the same has been approved by her Majesty the Queen. Such approval shall be considered to have been granted if her Majesty's Government shall not, within six months after receiving a copy of such treaty (which shall be delivered to them immediately upon its completion), have notified that the conclusion of such treaty is in conflict with the interests of Great Britain, or of any of her Majesty's possessions in South Africa."

Under this, treaties have been concluded with both Portugal and Holland, with British approval. But this plainly does not prohibit anything except the conclusion of treaties with foreign powers without British sanction. Treaties must be negotiated, and negotiation means a great deal of intercourse, which must be in the main friendly, and may include various sorts of friendly expressions. A government which might negotiate a treaty with Germany must surely be allowed to receive congratulations from Germany on any piece of good fortune, including the repulse of a party of filibusters. In fact, it does not appear that Oom Paul is cut off from any sort of correspondence with any power which is not openly unfriendly to Great Britain.

THE ROOT OF THE TROUBLE.

THE finances and currency of a great and very rich nation are and have been for ten years in such disorder that the Government is borrowing money, with immense hubbub, every three or four months to keep its own paper at par in a time of profound peace. In the midst of this hubbub all branches of the Government have agreed with wild acclamation, although possessing neither army nor navy, to challenge the greatest maritime power in the world to an armed conflict concerning a boundary dispute on foreign soil between this maritime power and a small and semi-barbarous community consisting mainly of Indians and negroes. When this act of folly has shaken the whole edifice of national and private credit, nearly all the public men of the nation in question have thrown the blame on the persons most interested in national prosperity, the bankers and brokers, and denounced them as public enemies, while some have rejoiced in the prospect of having the leading commercial cities laid in ashes by a foreign fleet. Others have gone still further, and accused foreigners of selling their own property cheap for the purpose of annoying their enemies. In the meantime neither branch of the National Legislature shows the smallest capacity to pass bills concerning domestic affairs, while one of them is principally occupied in drafting defiances to peaceful neighbors, and in proposing schemes of taxation and finance which the rest of the civilized world looks on as insane.

Along with this state of things at the capital, all the large cities and many of the large States are given over to the government of bosses, who control all legislation by means of money derived from blackmail levied on corporations as the price of exemption from confiscatory attacks. In this way the attempts made by persons of acknowledged intelligence and integrity to improve social conditions are invariably frustrated, and the comments of these persons on public affairs treated with hilarity. In fact, in whatever direction we look, we see the classes which civilized men have hitherto agreed to consider bad because venal, or dangerous because ignorant and inexperienced, in full control of affairs. If the public men are wise and skilled and pure, then the experience of the human race touching statesmanship and morals is not worth a farthing rushlight.

The name of this country is the United States of America. What is the cause of all these troubles? It was given last week in terse language by Prof. Wheeler of Yale College in a lecture on the Monroe Doctrine. Said he:

"We say that the message was called out by the danger to our institutions. Why don't we take them in out of the wet and not let them remain out over night? Our danger does not lie in Venezuela, nor in the land south of the frost line. It lies not in contact with England, whose institutions are as free as our own. The liberties of our fathers are in peril. The danger lies in the degeneracy of our public men, and in the failure of the attempt to get a decent municipal government. Republican government has often been a curse. The ballot has no virtue, and under certain circumstances it is a source of great corruption."

Now, if this be not true, what is the matter with us? Why are we in this wretched condition? If these men at Washington are competent, why do they not get us out of our present slough? Why did they ever let us get into it? Why do we have to borrow money to keep our paper at par? Why do we all wear the "shackles of the money power"? Why has not something been done long ago to break "the power of Wall Street"? Why are foreigners able to annoy us by selling their own property at fifty cents on the dollar? Why have we so many tons of silver stored at Washington? Why is it not made to circulate freely among an impoverished people? Why is Spanish America, over which we claim dominion, left in such a condition of ignorance and barbarism? Why are the bulk of our intelligent classes, who do the principal work of our civilization, so discontented and anxious? If they are mistaken, why are they such dreadful fools? Prof. Wheeler answers all these questions, and many more which we do not ask. The cause of all our troubles is the rapid deterioration of our public men. When a ship runs on a mudbank in broad daylight, with the charts unrolled and the instruments of navigation in good order, the cause is not the ship herself, nor the passengers, nor the mudbank, nor the daylight, but the captain or the pilot.

An anti-war sermon delivered in Philadelphia during "the scare" by the Rev. Joseph May, Dr. Furness's successor, contains one tremendous passage, which we quote in full:

"I have lived through two generations. I recall vividly the shameless bodies which sat in our congressional halls and laid the spirit of the North, the principles of our government, the safety of the Union, prostrate before the slaveholding oligarchy. But I know of no Congress that ever sat before in which there was not at least one righteous man to raise his voice against national folly and national danger; against the usurpation of the executive and in warning of the perils to which clumsy diplomacy, acute technicality, and rash and partisan speech were exposing our people. Alas, that we have allowed such a class to take possession of our affairs, that when the most dangerous word of this century was recklessly spoken, not one man had the virility, the patriotism, the mere practical wisdom to rise in his place in stern rebuke, in solemn warning! We have little hope from our politicians of anything good, or wise, or patriotic."

This refers to the wild vote of approval given to the President's sudden declaration of war by both houses of Congress, for it was, we think, the first time since man invented the bow and arrow that a nation declared for war without deliberation. There is no African tribe so low in civilization as not to deliberate or hold some kind of council before putting the community in peril through a challenge to a powerful enemy. We care not what the cause may be, it is human to deliberate before fighting, bestial to bite without caring what follows. It was no Mugwump who said, two thousand years ago, "What king, as he goeth to encounter another king in war, will not sit down first and take counsel whether he is able with ten thousand to meet him that cometh against him with twenty thousand? Or else, while the other is yet a great way off, he sendeth an ambassage, and asketh conditions of peace."

Therefore, we think it may fairly be said to the young men of the country that they will study in vain sociology, and economics, and statecraft, and vainly get their patriotism on the boil for war, unless they can put a better order of men, more rational, more instructed, and more upright, in charge of our public affairs. We cannot go on very long out of all intellectual relations with the rest of Christendom, calling wise what they call foolish, wrong what they call right, and treating as malefactors the men whom they treat as benefactors. There has been no special creation either of men or things for the benefit of America. Human reason and human experience work here in just the same way as elsewhere. Two straight lines cannot enclose a space in any part of this continent. It cannot be true here, any more than elsewhere, that people whom no wise man would think of consulting about any private affair are fit to regulate the affairs of a nation of 70,000,000 in peace or war. Behind the currency question, and the tariff question, and the Monroe question, and every other question which agitates this community to-day, lies the question of more honest and competent national and State legislators.

THE NEW "AMERICAN" DOCTRINE.

SENATOR SEWELL of New Jersey introduced resolutions on Thursday affirming that the Monroe Doctrine was originally propounded as a warning to the allied Powers of Europe not to attempt to subdue the revolting colonies of Spain; that the true ground on which it is based is our interests, and our interests only; that neither by the Monroe Doctrine nor any official declaration have we ever come under any pledge to any Power or estate on this continent that binds us to act merely for their protection against invasion or encroachment by any other Power; and that when a case arises in which a European Power proposes to acquire territory by invasion or conquest, it is then for us to determine whether our safety and our integrity demand that we shall resist such action by armed force if necessary.

These affirmations are not left by Mr. Sewell to stand as mere abstractions. He goes on to connect them with the immediate crisis by affirming:

"That the Executive has pressed the Monroe Doctrine beyond what was contemplated at the time of its announcement, and that the resultant sequence of the positions thus taken seems to be a committal of this Government to a protectorate over Mexico and the Central and South American States. That this would be most unwise and dangerous, and would vio-

late the sound and well-established policy that we should avoid all entangling alliances with foreign Powers, whether they be European or American. That this action was premature, looking to the history of the controversy, and inopportune in view of the business and financial condition of the country.

"That neither Congress nor the country can be, nor has been, committed by the action or position of the Executive Department in reference to the Venezuelan boundary controversy, as to the course to be pursued when the time shall have arrived for a final determination. It will then be our province and our duty to adopt such a line of policy and to take such action as may be then demanded by our sense of duty to the country, and by a due regard for its honor and dignity, the welfare and safety of our people, and the integrity of our institutions."

If Senator Sewell's resolutions had been introduced a year ago, when there was no particular excitement on hand, they would probably have been adopted without debate, or, if objected to at all, would have been opposed on the ground of being a needless affirmation of the undisputed policy of the Government. In the absence of any particular stirring of the war spirit, founded upon misinformation, everybody who paid any attention to the matter (except, perhaps, the Manoa Company) would have said that Mr. Sewell was right in his interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, but that its reaffirmation was perhaps needless and a waste of time. His resolutions derive their chief significance from the change of public opinion that has taken place since the President's message was sent in. They would have found no place in the Senate's proceedings unless there had been abundant popular support for them. How many recruits Mr. Sewell may find among his Republican colleagues it is impossible to predict. Probably most of them would come to his support if they had not made such a disgraceful exhibition when they allowed themselves to be stampeded by the President. They will naturally seek refuge in the other resolution reported on Monday by the committee on foreign relations, which reads as follows:

"Resolved, That the United States of America reaffirms and confirms the doctrine and principles promulgated by President Monroe in his message of December 2, 1823, and declares that it will assert and maintain that doctrine and those principles, and will regard any infringement thereof, and particularly any attempt by any European Power to take or acquire any new territory on the American continent, or any island adjacent thereto, or any right of sovereignty or dominion in the same, in any case or instance as to which the United States shall deem such attempt to be dangerous to its peace or safety, by or through force, purchase, cession, occupation, pledge, colonization, protectorate, or by control of the easement in canal or any other means of transit across the American isthmus, whether under unfounded pretension of right, in cases of alleged boundary disputes, or under any other unfounded pretensions, as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States, and as an interposition which it would be impossible, in any form, for the United States to regard with indifference."

As there is no boundary in certain regions between Great Britain and Venezuela, and as the boundary is disputed in other places, this is virtually an invitation to Venezuela to claim any line she pleases, even the whole of British Guiana, if the Dictator for the time being should see fit to do so, and a prohibition to Great Britain to dispute any such claim on pain of war with the United States. It overrules the position taken in this matter by successive Secretaries of State during twenty years of controversy, and also that taken and solemnly promulgated by the President within the last two months in a message which, as it stood, was considered sufficiently warlike. It overrules, also, Monroe's admission of the legitimacy of the European colonies already existing on this continent at the time he compounded his doctrine—for a notice to a colony that it must not dispute any territorial claim which any Spanish-American neighbor may make, is virtually notice to quit. It makes that colony's existence illegitimate for all practical purposes.

This notice, too, which, if addressed to us, would be considered an insult of the most flagrant character, that would range even the most peaceable of us on the side of war in spite of want of preparation, is addressed to one of the strongest Powers in the world, certainly also one of the proudest and most warlike, and most famed for tenacity and resources, which is already in a state of irritation over this very question; and it is addressed by a nation which is borrowing money quarterly to keep its demand notes at par, has no army at all and only a very small navy; and it is addressed in defiance of the protests of the great body of intelligent, sober-minded, and religious persons of all callings, who may be considered the mind and conscience of "this our nation." We can recall no case in history in which any government, big or little, has submitted to such terms except after complete defeat in a bloody conflict. They might have been presented to Thiers by Bismarck, but only after Sedan and the capture of Paris.

We do not need to comment on them at any length, or indeed to comment on them at all, as far as the readers of the *Nation* are concerned. Upon Jingoes any comment or argument would be wasted. We have for the past two months read the remarks of a large number of their papers on this Venezuelan dispute and the President's message, and have never found in one of them any ratiocinative defence either of the Monroe Doctrine or of the Cleveland Doctrine. All objections to it made by sober-minded people are generally met, by a Jingo, with loud yells, and profuse vituperation, and invitations to quit the country if you do not like it. "Do you not see," you say to him, "that such and such consequences will follow your attempt to put your Doctrine in force as you understand it?" "I don't care a rap," he replies, "about consequences; that's the way I feel. Huroo, huroo!" and then he jumps about like a maniac, and tries to stand on his head.

We need hardly remark that most of the emanations from Congress touching foreign policy just now are to be judged by much the same rules of interpretation we should apply to the resolutions of one of D s's or Sovereign's assemblies. We must not consider them as acts of government or expressions of national policy. We must examine them as agencies for the delusion of home voters—as part, in fact, of the general humbug of campaigns. Each party just now, within six months of the Presidential nomination, cannot bear to let this dispute with England pass away without getting some capital out of it. A peaceful settlement at this moment would leave all the profits of the escapade with Cleveland and Olney. Something has, therefore, to be done to extract from it a reasonable usufruct for the Republicans. So they are "going him one better." Mr. Gresham said: "You will surely arbitrate this matter." Mr. Olney said: "You must arbitrate or you will be killed." Mr. Cleveland said: "The responsibility of this is awful, but I can bear it." Now, Lodge & Co. say: "You must get out of this continent before the convention meets." This is the precise way in which Debs approaches great questions. They have no difficulties for him.

All we have to say about it to-day is to ask patriotic Americans whether they believe that it is possible for free government, if carried on by such men on such lines, to be permanent or peaceable. This is the question of the hour. It is, we venture to assert, present to the mind of every thinking man and woman in the country. The late chairman of the committee on foreign affairs of the Senate, and a present member of the committee, was present at a public dinner in this city within a month, intoxicated, and delivered himself of an incoherent speech, part oral, part written, which lasted one hour and fifty minutes, and was hiccoughed out to a deriding, hooting, and insulting audience. Yet this man is one of those who have charge of the "national honor" at Washington to-day, and was sent abroad in 1892 as our representative to sit with gentlemen and scholars in a great international tribunal!

DANGER SIGNALS IN NOVELS.

Mr. Thomas Hardy's latest novel has been condemned, on moral grounds, by critics on both sides of the Atlantic with a unanimity quite unparalleled in the case of a writer of his deserved repute. As to the justice of the strictures made on his 'Jude the Obscure' we will not here express an opinion; but the defence which he sets up, or which his friends, at any rate, set up, is worth examining. Objectors to the propriety of many things in the novel are referred to the preface of the unexpurgated edition. There it is distinctly stated that the book is "a novel addressed by a man to men and women of full age," and that, this being remembered, the author is "not aware that there is anything in the handling to which exception can be taken." In other words, the inference is that by openly re-

pudiating the obligations of a writer *virginibus puerisque*, you successfully escape them.

An obvious difficulty with this inference, at the start, is that the repudiation is not open enough. It appears in a preface. But the majority of novel-readers are as impatient as Bacon of "prefaces and passages and excusations." Many young women invariably begin reading their novel at the last chapter; some begin in the middle and read both ways; but who ever heard of one reading a preface? The danger-signal, to be truly effective, should have been placed conspicuously on the cover. Parents should have been warned in large type to keep the book under lock and key; or dealers required to demand a certificate from all purchasers that they were "of full age." With such precautions, no awkward mistakes would have been possible. The apothecaries do these things better. On their poisonous prescriptions they put a suggestive skull and cross-bones, or take pains to sell their carbolic acid only in a roughened bottle, so that a man reaching out in the dark for a sedative dose will not get one far too effective.

But a more serious objection is that any warning of the kind, however emphatic and plain-spoken, cannot fail to be, under a system of perfectly free buying and selling, provocative and alluring rather than preventive. For every parent put on his guard, for every ingenuous youth turned away, ten buyers and readers will be attracted who might have let the book entirely alone but for the hint that it was no better than it should be. The way in which human nature, being what it is—especially youthful human nature, being what it is—reacts under such hinted prohibitions and obscure intimations of danger, is perfectly well known. The warning is always read as a challenge. Old experience may wag its head as sagely as it pleases, and advise hot blood to wait till it is cooled before doing or reading certain things; but it is of the nature of hot blood to want to do and read things immediately, the sooner the more risky. To prescribe the reading of books is a much more certain way of insuring their neglect, with a kind of settled repugnance, than to forbid their reading.

The futility of such warnings in other fields of literature than fiction has often been demonstrated. Take a theological book like 'The Kernel and the Husk.' The author, Dr. E. A. Abbott, in *his* preface, warns away all those not troubled by doubts about the supernatural. He would disturb no one's faith. But how is such a notice certain to operate? Assuredly by making many a careless turner of the leaves say to himself, "Why should there be any doubts about the supernatural? If some people have them, why shouldn't I? Let's see what this man has to say." Thus the book gets a wider hearing through the very fact of professing to be addressed only to a narrow circle. Every one knows, also, how such warnings fail to work, or in a little while lose all their terror, in the case of suspicious foreign novels. "French novels" may have been for a time a red flag to make a Saxon reader reverse and put on the brakes. We say nothing about the difficulties of a foreign tongue as helping on the temporary taboo, for, of course, we know that everybody except ourselves is perfectly at home in French. But it was not long before the age of the translator dawned, and now the masterpieces of French and Russian fiction are found everywhere, their indecencies covered with nothing except a garb of unintelligible English. In fact, danger signals of this sort are very like those which the sagacious McKinley had put upon foreign-made goods. He was convinced that patriotic and virtuous shoppers, seeing the legend "Made in France" stamped upon otherwise seductive articles, would turn away in horror and call loudly for American products at twice the price. But it did not work that way; and the student of books should learn from this profound student of markets that to stamp goods or books "haute nouveauté de Paris" is not to deter but to incite buyers.

We cannot but think that it is a serious loss with which the English novel is threatened in going over to French fashions. In France, novels and series are stamped "pour les jeunes filles," and no one thinks anything of it, because everybody understands that all novels not so marked are distinctly not for "les jeunes filles." Such discriminations have not been necessary in English fiction until lately. The English novel began in indecency, because it began in an age of loose manners and speech, and also because it was understood to be written for men and clubs, not for women and girls. The Rev. Laurence Sterne had no satisfactory answer to give when, asking a lady if she had read his 'Tristram Shandy,' he was told, "I have not, Mr. Sterne, and, to be plain with you, I am informed it is not proper for female perusal." Few novels at that time were considered fit for female perusal. But the important English fiction of this century has been, until within a decade, of a kind that might safely be left to free publishing and reading without the intervention of censorship, either governmental or parental. We neither affirm nor deny that this has resulted in a limited, a truncated English fiction, as compared with foreign work in the same field. We leave it an open question whether a change from the old custom may not signify a gain for art; but we are certain that it means a loss to our comfort, to our traditions, to our manners.

A BRITISH GUIANA COLONIST UPON THE VENEZUELAN BOUNDARY QUESTION.

GEORGETOWN, January 6, 1896.

To associate the name of the Great Republic with that of a British colony, in a question of international politics, may sound like the coupling of Alexander the Great with Alexander the Coppersmith. All the same is it a fact that the most friendly relations have for many years past subsisted betwen the citizens of the United States and the colonists of British Guiana. This good understanding is the result of a long-continued trade between the two countries, to their mutual advantage. That trade was at first carried on between Dutch colonists in what was in those days a part of Dutch Guiana, and British colonists in what afterwards became the United States of America. With Portland (Me.), Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, and with Fernandina (Fla.) and other ports in the South, British Guiana has for years had commercial transactions, exchanging its sugars for cargoes of breadstuffs, lumber, tobacco, ice and iced provisions, mules and other animals, hardware, notions, and things in general. The tariff of the colony does not impose any discriminating duties upon American goods, which enter the colonial market on the same terms as do British goods. Money matters between the commercial men of the two countries are liquidated with hardly a reference to a court of justice. Should the American citizen need to assert his rights by legal process, he would find equal justice meted out to him in the courts of the colony; and so would a Venezuelan. In colonial society, the American is welcomed as a kinsman. He may travel from one end of British Guiana to the other and find himself, everywhere, at least as safe as if he were in the United States; and so might a Venezuelan, and he would find even more safety and freedom than in his own country. Among those who have taken a share in the infantile gold industry of the colony, are some American citizens and one or two Venezuelans. Not a single soldier is stationed in British Guiana; and yet in no South American republic does order reign so peacefully as in this quiet colony.

The people of British Guiana have gone on developing (very slowly, it is true) the resources of their land; living at peace with their neighbors—the Dutch on the one hand, and the Venezuelans on the other. Although they have been from time to time subjected to insult from the Venezuelans, no difference was shown in the treatment of persons of the latter nationality living in the colony or coming there to do business with its inhabitants. The British colonists have taken no part in supporting the ever-recurring revolutions of that unsettled republic. On the contrary, for many years a provision has appeared in the colonial customs-duties law that duty shall be paid upon gunpowder upon its landing in the colony, and that no drawback of duty upon gunpowder should be allowed. This special provision originated in the wish of the Government of British Guiana to discourage the exportation of gunpowder to Venezuela during the troublous times that so often befall that state. This is not urged as any very virtuous act, but it is certainly not an unfriendly one. Then, the Venezuelan State of Guiana, which adjoins the British colony, has often been in revolt against the authority of the President for the time being of the central Government; but no British Sam Houston has appeared upon the scene to repeat the precedent of Texas, although British subjects have for years been numerous in that State, numbers of persons having gone thither from the West Indian Islands to work at the rich gold-fields in that country.

The British colonists have suddenly had their

attention distracted from the making of their world-famous sugar, the "Demerara crystals," from cutting their splendid timber, the "greenheart," and from the working of their goldfields, by learning that they stand charged with putting themselves in contravention of the Monroe Doctrine, which, it appears, gives a mysterious power to the people of the United States to take away from British colonists territory to which they consider themselves as rightfully entitled as were the British colonists of North America to the colony of New York in the old days before the Revolution of 1776. Having been carefully taught the ten commandments in their youth, those colonists are much shocked by the pronounced determination of Brother Jonathan to outrage the eighth, for "Thou shalt not steal!" would seem to apply to lands as well as to goods. Of course, the colonists know that Americans have been led to take up a hostile position upon the question of the Venezuelan boundary by the importunacy with which it has been misrepresented to them that, in this matter, the colonists of British Guiana have not themselves observed the eighth commandment, despite their early instruction. But here we have the case that Victor Hugo pithily described, where an unfounded charge is taken to be true if repeated often enough. "If some one accused me of stealing the towers of Notre Dame, and repeated the accusation often, I should have to run away from Paris, even though the towers were to be seen standing; for," added Victor Hugo, "no one would believe in my innocence." So it is that, after lustily crying "Stop thief!" for some years, the Venezuelans have led the Americans to believe that British colonists have been robbing that nation of part of its territory.

That there must be two sides to this question can easily be seen by two items relating to it that appeared in the *Daily Chronicle*, a newspaper of Georgetown, the capital of British Guiana, in December last. On the 24th of that month was published a cutting from an American journal, in which, telegraphing from Washington, on the 4th, to New York, a correspondent reported the brave words of Representative Livingston of Georgia upon the situation in the terms following:

"Representative Livingston of Georgia, who introduced the joint resolution yesterday looking to the formation of a Congressional committee to investigate the boundary question, was asked to-day what the United States ought to do if Great Britain declines to arbitrate. 'Why, fight her, of course,' was the emphatic reply. 'No other course will comport with our dignity and self-respect. Venezuela is not to be considered in this matter. *Great Britain has violated the Monroe Doctrine. She is continually acquiring additional territory in South America.* We cannot and must not permit this. We should go to war first.'"

There you have in the words italicized the result of Venezuelan misrepresentations. Representative Livingston says: "Great Britain has violated the Monroe Doctrine. She is continually acquiring additional territory in South America." Representative Livingston has been misinformed.

The second item that has been referred to appeared in the Georgetown daily paper already mentioned, on the 27th of December last, and took the form of a public news telegram from New York to British Guiana, as follows:

"New York, December 26.

"Intelligence from Madrid announces that the newspaper *El Nacional* publishes an article strongly advocating the establishment of an *entente* between Spain and the United States regarding Venezuela, arguing that *Venezuela's claims* against British Guiana *are identical with the ancient ones of Spain against England.*

"The London *Standard* publishes a despatch from Madrid in which it asserts that the article appearing in *El Nacional* is an inspired one and is causing considerable sensation."

Now, here we have the Spanish statement, one clearly hostile to England in motive, and made with the intention of currying favor with the United States; with self-interest at the bottom of it, as regards possible intervention by America on behalf of Cuba. And what is the effect of this unfriendly pronouncement of the "inspired" *Nacional*? This, that Venezuela's claims against British Guiana "are identical with the ancient ones of Spain against England." Surely, this statement of the case, given with all the weight of the evidence of a hostile witness, does not support the allegation of Representative Livingston, that Great Britain "is continually acquiring additional territory in South America." The Spanish statement shows that the "claims" are "ancient" ones; that the "claims" are "identical"; and that, while Great Britain was in possession, which used to be regarded as being nine points of the law, the Spanish nation "claimed" against Great Britain's possession. The alleged "claims" of Spain were never asserted against Great Britain except on Spanish maps. But, long years before Great Britain possessed the land now known as British Guiana, the Dutch had owned it, and there had been international contests over its possession between France and England, of which further notice will be taken later on in these notes. Meanwhile, let it be noted that, so far from Great Britain merely acting in this matter the cowardly part of a bully towards a weak nation, the British Government enjoyed its right to the possession of the territory of British Guiana unquestioned, diplomatically, by a powerful nation such as Spain then was, with her then vast dependencies in the New World, and at a time when the Spaniards had the power of the great Napoleon at their back. To enforce these claims, with all their "ancient and fish-like smell," the Venezuelans would bully the colony of British Guiana, but that the whole power of the British empire is at the back of the colony. The Venezuelans assert "claims" that Spain never made against Great Britain when what is now Venezuela belonged to Spain.

The British Government has expressed its willingness to submit to arbitration the question of the boundary of British Guiana, outside of the Schomburgk line; and to this decision the colonists willingly bow. To give up territory within the Schomburgk line would lead, step by step, to a demand for the surrender of the whole colony, as the application of the Monroe Doctrine might from time to time be capriciously stretched. To make clear to the world how just is the title of Great Britain to territory in its possession, it will be well to take note of the several occasions on which those territories were captured from the Dutch.

On four several occasions did England take from the Dutch that part of the territory now claimed by Venezuela. In 1665 England and Holland being at war, Lord Willoughby, the Governor of Barbados, sent an expedition against the Dutch colonies in Guiana. The success of the English was at first complete. What, at that time, was regarded as the boundary on the left side of the Essequibo? Let one of those who took part in the expedition answer:

"This yeare [1665] the English could boast of the possession of all that part of Guiana abutting on the Atlantick Ocean, from Cayan on the South East *to Oronoque* on the North West (except a small colonie on the River Berbishees), which is noe lesse than six hundred miles."

The colony in Berbice remained in possession of the Dutch. France joined Holland in the war against England, and it is specifically mentioned by the same authority that the settlements of Essequibo, Pomeroon, and Moruca, "indured great misery, in a long siege by the *French*." The manuscript account of the expedition by Major Scott is preserved in the British Museum (Sloane MSS. 3662).

In the end, the Dutch recaptured their settlements, and also took the colony of Surinam, which up to that time had been an English colony. By the third article of the Treaty of Breda, in 1667, it was provided that

"each party shall hold for time to come, in full right of sovereignty, propriety, and possession, all such countries, isles, towns, forts, places, and *colonies* as, whether during this war or before, have been taken and kept from the other by force of arms and in what manner soever, and that as they possessed and enjoyed them the 10th day of May last."

In this manner were the Dutch confirmed in their rights to their ancient settlements between the Corentyne and the Orinoco. Neither France nor England dreamed of asking for the assent of Spain to these transactions. Spanish claims had not been asserted during the military operations between the contending nations, in those settlements in Guiana. How solemnly England felt herself bound by the terms of article 3 of the Treaty of Breda, history attests. Sir John Harman, the English admiral, and Gen. Willoughby not being at the time aware of the fact that a treaty had been entered into, had actually retaken Surinam from the Dutch, and that colony had again come under an English governor. On news of this reaching England, the King sent out orders to restore Surinam to the Dutch, and this was promptly done. England, having acted with such scrupulous good faith in her observance of the rights in Guiana acquired by the Dutch under the Treaty of Breda, cannot be expected to ignore those rights now that by the chances of war she has herself succeeded to the enjoyment of a share in them.

Nor must we lose sight of the important fact that, while the Dutch were confirmed in the possession of their colonies in Guiana by the Treaty of Breda, the English, under the same treaty, were confirmed in the possession of New Netherlands, which became, thereupon, the colony of New York. One of the events of the war had been the capture of New Netherlands by the English. It is illustrative of the point of view from which colonies were then regarded in England, that the keeping of New York, in place of Surinam, "at that time was looked upon by many as a bad exchange" ('European Settlements in America,' London, 1757, vol. ii., p. 179). The Dutch had not obtained the sanction of the Spaniards for their settlement at New York. The English did not think, for a moment, of asking Spain to ratify the exchange. The original title by which New York formed part of the United Colonies was, in fact, exactly the same as that under which the old Dutch settlements between Surinam and the Amacura now form part of the British Empire. Has the Government at Washington ever doubted the validity of the

title by which the United States hold the Empire State? Papal bulls and Spanish "claims" notwithstanding, Americans possess themselves in peace, assured, as to their right, that Pope and Spaniard could not trouble it.

The second occasion on which the Dutch settlements were captured by the English was in February, 1781, when Great Britain was at war with Holland, Spain, France, and the North American colonies. In 1782 the colonies were taken from the English by a strong expedition sent from France for the express purpose of their capture. On the peace of 1783 France restored the colonies to Holland. As the English had again been turned out of the Dutch colonies, the evidence of an English official as to the boundary on the Essequibo side of the Dutch possessions in Guiana might be regarded as being that of a not too friendly witness. Such evidence is to be found in a chart published in London, on the 6th of October, 1783, by William Faden, Geographer to the King. The chart is one of "the coast of Guyana from the Oronoko to the River of Amazons." It was executed by De la Rochette, from the observations of Captain Edward Thompson of the Royal Navy, made in his Majesty's vessel *Hyæna*, when Captain Thompson "commanded in the Rivers Berbice, Essequebo and Demerari, and governed those colonies after their conquest from the Dutch." The boundary line given in this chart includes the Amacura River, which is that set down by Schomburgk. There is a curious error in this and in at all events one other chart of the Guiana coast published about this time. It is this: that the Barima River is given as the extreme northern line of the Dutch settlements, within which the Amacura is placed, wrongly, to the south of the Barima. As is well known, the Barima runs southerly of the Amacura. This lapse shows the ignorance of the draughtsman, but strongly testifies that the Amacura was within the Dutch possessions. It is well to repeat that the Dutch boundaries in 1665 and 1783, as testified to by Englishmen, were held to be such by persons who had been in authority in the expeditions that captured those colonies, and that their testimony was given after the English had suffered the mortification of expulsion from those possessions, and when there could not be any prospect of recovering them.

It was in 1796 that England became, for the third time, possessed of the Dutch colonies. On this occasion the British Government is said to have informed the Government of Spain, in a friendly manner, what the Dutch held to be the boundaries of their possessions bordering upon those of Spain. No protest was made by Spain against that representation, in any of its details. On the 5th of October of the same year the King of Spain declared war against the King of England, his kingdom, and vassals. Among the many reasons for war alleged by his Majesty—who, be it remembered, was forced into this war by his French allies(?)—was the following:

"The conquest which she [Great Britain] has made of the Colony of Demerary, belonging to the Dutch, and *whose advantageous position puts her in a position to get possession of posts still more important.*"

It will be observed that the name Demerary is here used to include the colonies of Berbice and Essequibo, which had been captured by the English at the same time. Not a word is said therein of any offence taken at the English representation of the boundaries of the Dutch settlements! As the French had themselves been in possession of those very colonies in 1782-83, they no doubt knew what the Dutch boundaries were. Is it not reasonable to conclude that, had they been able to question the correctness of the claim, they would have procured that the King of Spain, whom they were forcing into the war, should specifically resent an invasion of his territorial rights? The *advantageous position* of the Dutch settlements to which the King of Spain referred was, no doubt, their proximity to the Orinoco. The *posts still more important* were, in all reason, the Orinoco and its neighborhood.

The colonies remained in British possession from 1796 until 1802, when they were given up to the Dutch, in accordance with the terms of the Peace of Amiens. During the British occupation the Spaniards had sent a military expedition against that part of the Dutch settlements called Moruca, where, for many years previously, the Dutch had established a fort. The Spaniards, having at that time but the scantiest of population in any part of the right bank, collected their force on the left bank of that river when the expedition set out. They landed at night on the 19th of January, 1797. They were received by Dutch troops who, on the surrender of the colonies, had taken service under the British Government. The Spaniards were completely defeated, and but few escaped. Capt. Rochelle, the brave commander of the Dutch soldiers, died of wounds received in this engagement. On account of his services, the Legislature of the then United Colony of Demerara and Essequibo voted pensions for the support of his children.

For the fourth time the colonies *with their dependencies* (*en onderhoorige districten*) came into the possession of Great Britain on the 17th of September, 1803, and their cession by the Dutch was completed by the convention of the 13th of August, 1814. Some time after the capture of the colonies in 1803, and before their cession in 1814, a chart of the colony was published. It was prepared by an officer of engineers named Walker. Having no copy of this chart at hand, one can only say, from memory, that it gives the Amacura as within the Dutch limits. The Schomburgk boundary line was not evolved out of Sir Robert Schomburgk's imagination.

From the foregoing statements it will be seen that, for 230 years, Englishmen have borne public testimony to the fact that the Dutch were in possession of territory as far as the Amacura. It should be clearly understood that Great Britain does not claim up to the point

"Where Orinoco, in his pride,
Rolls to the main no tribute tide."

It is said that the Orinoco receives the waters of 436 rivers, and of more than 2,000 rivulets and streams. It does not, however, receive one drop of water from the little Amacura.

But, it will be asked, where were the Spaniards all this time? The answer is simple. They had some petty settlements high up the Orinoco. Being men capable of taking extended views, they "took possession" of Guiana, that vast country of 800,000 or 900,000 square miles, between the Orinoco and the Amazon, by saying they did so, when they first made a tiny settlement up the Orinoco. The Portuguese, the French, and the Dutch, being practical people, entered upon the land and possessed themselves of it, while Spain asserted its "claims" to Guiana by making maps that included the vast regions occupied by the nations mentioned. Will any one be bold enough to assert that the Spaniards ever had a colony on any part of the coast of Guiana, or that the Spaniards ever had any settlement there, as a settlement would be understood among nations? On the other hand, the Portuguese, French, Dutch, and the English all had colonies and settlements in some part or other of Guiana. And yet, among the grounds of "claim" set forth for the information of the world by the Venezuelan Government is the following fatuous declaration, in a despatch written on the 26th of January, 1887, by their Secretary for Foreign Affairs, Señor Urbaneja, to the British Minister at Carácas:

"According to the order issued by the King of Spain in 1768, the province of Guiana was bounded on the south by the Amazon and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean; so that the acquisitions of other Powers within those limits were not valid until they were made lawful by the consent of said monarch."

How one would like to have the opportunity of reading the *orders* of his most Catholic Majesty as to the boundaries of Mexico and Florida in 1768! How far would those regarding Mexico be respected by the United States?

A great deal still remains to be said as to the history of the European settlements in Guiana, and of the Dutch and English settlements especially, but that boundaries of the space in an American journal may not be transgressed any more than those of a British colony, under the *Pax Britannica*.

Perhaps the cogency of the British case may be best put to Americans by setting forth the historical fact that the Pilgrim Fathers actually contemplated making their settlement in the New World in Guiana rather than in North America. These forefathers of the great republic would, to Spaniards of that period, have been regarded as fit objects for the application of the system *de hœretico comburendo*. Will any reasonable man say that, seeking a place where they might worship God according to conscience, those persecuted exiles would have contemplated settling in any country under the dominion of Spain or within measurable distance of Spanish dominion? Let an old writer of the history of the settlements in New England be heard. Prince, under the year 1617, and between the dates September 15 and November 4, makes the following statements:

"This year, Master Robinson and his Church begin to think of a remove to America, for several weighty reasons, as 1.....
2.....
3.....
Upon their talk of removing, sundry of note among the Dutch would have them go under them, and make them large offers; but, choosing to go under the English Government, where they might enjoy their religious privileges without molestation, after humble prayers to GOD, they first debate, 'whether to go to Guiana, or Virginia?' And though some, and none of the meanest, are earnest for the former, they at length determine for the latter: so as to settle in a distinct body, but under the General Government of Virginia."

"And the young and strong Republic was by these in virtue bred,
She was cradled in adventure, she was nursed in goodmen's dread,
The young and strong Republic that has filled the world w th fame,
And with great praise and marvel of the Anglo-Saxon name."

N. DARNELL DAVIS.

LAFENESTRE'S LA FONTAINE.

PARIS, January 2, 1896.

HE who writes for children is assured, if he does his work well, of a longer immortality (if the two words admit of collocation) than any other writers. The 'Fables' of La Fontaine and the 'Contes' of Perrault will be read as long as the French language is spoken and un-

derstood. Victor Hugo, who had an inordinate vanity, said that he was not jealous of any French poet, but confessed that he was envious of La Fontaine. No French poet ever attained the extraordinary fluidity and ease of style characteristic of La Fontaine's 'Fables' and 'Contes,' except, perhaps, Molière in his "Amphitryon." M. George Lafenestre, who is a distinguished art critic, has been chosen, I do not know for what reason, to write the volume on La Fontaine in the "Grands Écrivains Français," and has acquitted himself very well of his task.

I enter my protest, however, as I have done before on other occasions, against the cut and-dried method adopted in these essays on our French writers, which consists in making a sort of scientific analysis comparable to a chemical analysis. I cannot help finding something artificial as well as monotonous in a method which induces the critic to give such headings to the successive chapters of his book. In speaking of La Fontaine as "l'écrivain" after having spoken of him as "l'homme," M. Lafenestre subdivides his subject into "l'œuvre," "l'imagination," "la sensibilité," "la pensée," "le style," "l'influence." Taine is answerable for this new method of criticism. I need not, I suppose, show that it is impossible thus to decompose the human mind as the molecule is decomposed into its component atoms. It seems to me a pity that this analytical criticism should have become a fashion in the new generation, which has been greatly inspired by the teachings of Taine. The collection of "Grands Écrivains Français" would gain much in variety and in interest if the same pattern was not applied to its critical essays.

There is little to be said about La Fontaine as a writer, and he need hardly be explained as such; there is more to be said about his life and the relations of his life to his writings. In this respect, M. Lafenestre's volume becomes very interesting, and will be found very readable. The house where La Fontaine was born at Château-Thierry on July 8, 1621, is still in existence. His father was a King's councillor, master of woods and forests, and *capitaine des chasses* in the Duchy of Château-Thierry. At the age of nineteen, he studied law, spent a little time at the Palais, and, feeling no vocation for chicanery, returned to Château-Thierry towards 1644. For ten years he led the easy and lazy life of the province, hunting, riding (he was still a hard rider at the age of seventy), dreaming, reading, and making at times a visit to his friends in Paris. He wrote verses, and paid court to the ladies of his neighborhood; his love affairs were more in the style of Boccaccio and of Rabelais than in the dramatic and sentimental style. His only real passion was poetical. He was a great dreamer, and La Bruyère said of him afterwards: "The man seems coarse, heavy, stupid; he cannot speak nor tell you what he has just seen. When he begins to write, however, he becomes the model of good story-tellers; there is nothing but lightness, elegance, fine delicacy in his works." His first work was a translation of Terence's "Eunuchus." He studied all the great writers of antiquity, and delighted also in the *conteurs*, French and Italian, of the Middle Ages and of the Renaissance.

His father left him his office and chose a wife for him, Marie Héricart, daughter of the *lieutenant-criminel* of La Ferté-Milon. He accepted the office and the wife, to please his father; but he neglected the wife as well as the office, and very openly. He conducted the affairs of the community so badly that his wife obtained in 1659 a separation of property. Tallemant des Réaux, speaking of this strange union, says: "His wife says that he dreams so that he sometimes remains for three weeks without believing himself married"; and this applies to the first period of his marriage. Mme. de la Fontaine was lettered—too much so for the taste of her husband, who objected to her criticisms. The only letters of La Fontaine to his wife which we possess were written to her during a journey which he made in 1663 to Limoges. They are very characteristic of the state of their relations after fifteen years of marriage, and sound more like the letters which a gay companion would write to one of his gay friends than like the letters of a husband to his wife. They show, at the same time, that Mme. de La Fontaine was not a prude nor a *bégueule*, to use the words of M. Lafenestre, and allowed her husband all possible liberties.

The famous *surintendant* Fouquet, who was a great patron of letters, offered a pension to La Fontaine, who became one of the visitors and parasites of the little court of Saint Mandé and of Vaux. He wrote for Fouquet the 'Adonis,' a poem in which is found a tender love for nature's beauties quite unknown in the seventeenth century. In it occurs this verse, which has become proverbial:

"Ni la grâce, plus belle encor que la beauté."

André Chénier used to say that 'Adonis' was the poem which he had read with the greatest profit. It is singular to find the man who was at times so Rabelaisan, writing such delicate and almost melancholy verses as these on voluptuousness:

"O vous, tristes plaisirs où leur âme se noie,
Vains et derniers efforts d'une imparfaite joie."

The friends of Fouquet, even the Marquise de Sévigné, liked something lighter and gayer than 'Adonis,' and La Fontaine was quite able to satisfy them. One of his great successes in the salon of Fouquet was a very light epistle on an adventure of a nun, a gay badinage which charmed Madame de Sévigné so much that she placed La Fontaine at once "among the gods." Every three months La Fontaine had to give a quittance for his pension in the shape of some madrigal. We do not understand such relations in our time, but they seemed quite natural in the seventeenth century; all poets were the pensioners of some king, prince, or great lord. It seemed as natural to La Fontaine to flatter Fouquet as it seemed natural afterwards for him to flatter Madame de Montespan, Louis XIV., Colbert, the Dauphin. It ought to be said, also, that he really liked Fouquet, who was able to inspire great friendships, and who was a very intelligent and able man. It was in Fouquet's house that he became acquainted with Chapelain, Mademoiselle de Scudéry, and Molière, of whom he said at once, "C'est mon homme."

La Fontaine spent lazily three years of his life on the 'Songe de Vaux,' a work written in honor of his patron and his magnificence, which was left unfinished and ought never to have been begun, though here and there you may find in it some fine verses. There is not much more to be said about 'Elymène.' When Fouquet was arrested and thrown into prison, La Fontaine had the courage to stand by him and to make an eloquent appeal to the clemency of the King. "Et c'est être innocent que d'être malheureux," one of the verses of his fine ode, has become proverbial. La Fontaine was exiled to Limoges, with his uncle, and it was from there that he wrote to his wife the letters which I have already mentioned. In 1664 La Fontaine had returned to Paris, and he spent his time between the capital and the house of the Duchess of Bouillon at Château-Thierry. The Duchess was one of the celebrated nieces of Mazarin, Marie Anne Mancini. During this period he wrote 'Psyché' and the "Quinquina" (after an illness of the Duchess, who had been cured by quinine). He also wrote his "Joconde," the first of his famous 'Contes'; and, after "Joconde," seven other *contes* in verse on subjects taken from Boccaccio. The volume of the "Nouvelles en vers tirées de l'Arioste et de Boccace," without any signature, had an immense success. A new edition came out with other *contes*. On March 31, 1668, appeared the first six parts of the 'Fables,' dedicated to the Dauphin. From that date La Fontaine may be said to have entered into immortality. His bookseller, Barbin, had to print immediately new editions, and soon afterwards published another series of Fables.

La Fontaine was at this time in a very productive vein, for he published also the 'Amours de Psyché et de Cupidon.' He had announced this work in the second series of 'Fables' in this way:

"Bornons ici notre carrière;
Les longs ouvrages me font peur.
Loin d'épuiser une matière
On n'en doit prendre que la fleur.
Il s'en va temps que je reprenne
Un peu de forces et d'haleine
Pour fournir à d'autres projets.
Amour, ce tyran de ma vie,
Veut que je change de sujets;
Il faut contenter son envie:
Retournons à Psyché."

With the versatility of his character and of his talent, he wrote, in 1691, a psalm in verse (a very feeble production, by the by) in a Jansenist 'Receuil de Poésies Chrétiennes,' and at the same moment some new 'Fables' and some new 'Contes.' Two years afterwards, he writes at the same time a poem on chastity, 'Saint-Malo,' and a new series of 'Contes,' the most licentious of the whole series. The two books were interdicted at the same moment—the first because La Fontaine had imprudently called the Cardinal de Bouillon "Altesse sérénissime" (a title to which the Cardinal had no right), and the second on account of its bold immorality. La Fontaine always needed some protection and some material help; he found, at this period, a new Providence in Madame de la Sablière, an amiable woman, who was familiarly called "La Tourterelle" (the Dove), the wife of a rich *fermier-général*. She was the friend (I use a mild expression) of the Marquis de la Fare. La Fontaine spent seven or eight years in the house of this amiable woman, which was called the Folie-Rambouillet; he remained there in a state of complete freedom, writing as he pleased and when he pleased. La Fontaine was elected a member of the French Academy after Boileau. He followed Madame de la Sablière to Paris, where she said she had taken with her "only her dog, her cat, and La Fontaine." He led to the end the life of a parasite and of an epicurean, and he remained also to the end a sort of Polyphile, writing on the most various subjects, always with the same ease and graceful fluidity of style, at times with a curious vein of sadness and melancholy, which was very rare in his time. In 1692 he fell ill. Madame de la Sablière was in a convent, but he found a new protector in the person of M. d'Hervart, a *maître des requêtes*, who had a large and splendid hôtel. He lived there till he died, on April 13, 1695, at the age of seventy-four.

Correspondence.

ENEMIES OF MANKIND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the "late unpleasantness" it may interest some of your readers to recall the opinion expressed some fifty years ago by such a distinguished writer as the late Judge Haliburton ("Sam Slick") in his 'Wise Saws' (c. 26), as to the relations which ought to exist between the two greatest branches of the English people, and the punishment that ought to be meted out to wilful disturbers of the peace. If so, here it is:

"Now we are two great nations, the greatest by a long chalk of any in the world—speak the same language, have the same religion, and our constitutions don't differ no great odds. We ought to draw closer than we do. We are big enough, equal enough, and strong enough not to be jealous of each other. United we are more than a match for all the other nations put together, and can defy their fleets, armies, and millions. Single we couldn't stand against all, and if one was to fall where would the other be? Mourning over the grave that covers a relative whose place can never be filled. It is authors of silly books, editors of silly papers, and demagogues of silly parties that helps to estrange us. I wish there was a gibbet high enough and strong enough to hang up all these enemies of mankind on."

Yours, etc., J. M. Geldert, Jr.

Halifax, N. S., January 17, 1896.

A NATIONAL UNIVERSITY AT WASHINGTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There are many objections to establishing a national university at Washington, but the strongest of all is the incompatibility of the pursuit of truth with responsibility to politicians. During the past few weeks we have had a striking indication of what would happen at a national university. Many eminent professors, exercising their right as citizens, have spoken and written on the Venezuelan question, and immediately Jingoes in the press and elsewhere have assailed those professors as if they were traitors, idiots, or flunkeys. It makes no difference that Prof. von Holst of Chicago, or Prof. Moore of Columbia, or Profs. C. E. Norton and Wm. James of Harvard, happen to plead for a sober consideration of the Venezuelan quarrel and to denounce war as uncivilized, up jump the Jingoes, led by the loquacious Theodore Roosevelt, and scream, "What business have these college professors to meddle, anyway? They don't know anything about the subject, and if they did they ought to hold their tongues."

Of course, only editors, or other persons with a magnified sense of their own importance and a lack of humor, who print three articles a month in the magazines and grant interviews to newspaper reporters every day, on any subject, would pooh-pooh the opinions of men like Norton, and Von Holst, and Wm. James, who think more than they talk. But should not this episode serve as a warning against any proposed national university, whose teachers would be at the mercy of every crank in Congress or out of it—for they would be regarded as public servants, unpermitted to say their souls were their own? If one of them dared to affirm that war is a crime, how quickly would Senator Lodge—whom Milton, with prophetic genius, described so admirably in 'Paradise Lost,' Book II., 109-112—have him impeached or arrested. And if another, in lecturing on economics, felt it his duty to point out the fallacies of protection or free silver, he would be squelched by McKinley or Teller.

The truth is, that most of the most important topics would be ruled out. Political economy could not, for reasons just suggested, be taught; nor the history of the Reformation, because that would offend the Catholics; nor the history of England, which would rouse the Jingoes; nor criminology, for that would bring out some unpleasant statistics about the Irish, and so alienate the "Irish vote"; nor the history of the United States, for if the Mexican war were truly narrated, it would anger the present disciples of President Polk; and the Rebellion could not be taught so as to satisfy both Northerners and Southerners; nor could Evolution, because all the orthodox would cry out against a doctrine which deprives them of the pleasure of believing that unbaptized infants are damned.

Perfect freedom is the indispensable condition for the discovery and imparting of truth; and at Washington that condition could not exist. The advocates of the scheme, which would give easy berths to a good many office-seekers, protest, of course, that care would be taken to maintain freedom of speech. But there are many ways, besides gagging, of silencing the preacher of unpopular doctrines, and we cannot doubt that they would all be used. Probably no self-respecting professor would accept such a position of servitude; certainly the most eminent professors, to whom free speech is dearer than preferment, could never be enticed into such a trap. T.

January 11, 1896.

THE COLORS OF MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see by the morning's papers that the medal recently presented to the Long Island Historical Society is garnished with a specially prepared ribbon, combining the colors of Brooklyn with "the colors of the State of Maryland—orange and black."

The colors of the State of Maryland are not orange and black, but gold (or yellow) and black. They are the colors of the Calvert arms, which have been used in the seal and on the flag of Maryland from early colonial times. They can be seen on the original exemplification of arms to George Calvert (1622) in the possession of the Maryland Historical Society, in Gwillim or any manual of heraldry, or on the State flag in the City Hall, Baltimore. Orange is not a heraldic color.

The colors of the Baltimore Baseball Club are, I believe, orange and black; but that is not the State of Maryland.—I am, sir, etc.,

Wm. Hand Browne.

Maryland Historical Society.

THE REASON FOR GLAZED PAPER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your review of Grosvenor's 'Constantinople,' in No. 1594, I find this sentence: "Unfortunately the paper is so highly glazed that the print cannot be read, especially by artificial light, without trying even the strongest and most youthful eyes." This is no new complaint, but one frequently heard in your columns, and many readers of the *Nation* must be left in a state of wonder at the obstinacy of publishers in using such paper in spite of repeated protests. Yet the reason for so doing is simple. I have not seen Prof. Grosvenor's book, but I understand that it is elaborately illustrated. Now it is perfectly understood by artists, engravers, printers, and publishers that decent printing of text cuts is possible only on this highly calendered paper to which your critic objects; and if such cuts are to be used at all, they must be printed on such paper or ruined in the printing. To me it seems that the publisher is praiseworthy rather than blameworthy for determining to print his cuts properly, but this is the judgment of an artist. A literary critic may be of the opposite opinion, but ought he not to recognize the reason for the publisher's choice, even in blaming it, and not leave it to be understood by the public that it is a mere matter of whim, or worse, of economy? The rough, hand-made paper which is the delight of bibliophiles is the despair of the poor designer of illustrations, and its use would probably lead to the abandonment of all illustration, or its restriction to such purely archaic adornment as Mr. Morris uses in the publications of the Kelmscott Press.

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 19, 1896.

[We were perfectly aware of the cause of the use of glazed paper. The *abuse* we owe partly to the change in the mode of wood-engraving in the quest for tint and half-tone, and especially to the advent of cheap "process." Often, for the sake of a small number of cuts in the text, the entire readability of a book (hygienically speaking) is destroyed. The effect on text-books for the young in particular is deplorable when we consider all the temptations of that age to overtax the eyes.—Ed. Nation.]

SCHOOLS IN FRANCE BEFORE THE REVOLUTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The sweeping conclusion, impliedly endorsed by you in your recent note on public instruction in ante-Revolutionary France, to the effect that the French peasantry of the *ancien régime* were in the full enjoyment of an excellent system of primary education, needs much qualification.

The number and quality of rural schools varied widely from province to province—Mr. Stanley Weyman's low view of the mental condition of the peasant being perfectly correct as to Brittany and the central provinces, and approximately so as to Gascony and the Toulousian; while your reviewer's opinion holds good as to the northern and northeastern provinces, where simple primary schools were abundant.

You point to the fact, as confirmatory of your general position, that in the districts now forming the department of the Meurthe-et-Moselle there were, in 1789, 599 communes, in 566 of which were one or more schools. As an offset to this, permit me to say that records of the time (cited by M. Taine) show that in Gascony "most of the rural districts are without schoolmasters," while in the Toulousian only "ten parishes out of fifty have schools." And in Brittany and the central provinces matters were even worse than in the south. M. Albert Babeau, whom you cite approvingly, gathers, from an inspection of marriage registers of the period, that in the Nivernois only "13 per cent. of the men and nearly 6 per cent. of the women" could sign their names. Taking, then, the average of these extremes, considering the kind of instruction likely to be doled

out to the lower classes by the French clergy in Voltaire's century, and not forgetting the bestial use made by Jacques Bonhomme of his newly acquired liberty in 1789, it would seem that the conclusions of your reviewer on "the universality and efficiency of village schools in France under the *ancien régime*" need revisal.

W. R. K.

MILWAUKEE, WIS., January 5, 1896.

[We cannot prolong this discussion. No monograph on the history of primary education in Brittany exists, to our knowledge, but M. Allain quotes M. Léon Maître for the district of Nantes, in which sixty-four out of eighty-one parishes had schools in the eighteenth century. We have further knowledge of the fact that La Chalotais, the famous Breton *procureur-général* of the Parlement of Rennes, published his 'Essai d' éducation nationale' in 1763, in which he complained, presumably from acquaintance with the condition of things in his own province, that "the Brothers of Christian Doctrine, who are termed *ignorantins*, teach reading and writing to people who ought only to learn how to draw plans and to handle the file and the plane, but who will no longer do so. . . . The laborers and artisans send their children to the local colleges." An echo to the complaints of La Chalotais is found in the complaints made to the Bishop of St.-Dié in 1779:

"There will never be any good popular education until the country schoolmasters, who depopulate alike the fields and workshops, are driven away. The complaints that the fields are left without workers, that the number of artisans is diminishing, and that the class of vagabonds is increasing, are due to the fact that our towns and villages are filled to overflowing with a multitude of schools. There is no hamlet without its *grammairien*."

With regard to central and southern France it may be allowed that in sparsely populated districts, like the mountains of Auvergne and the sandy wastes of the Landes, schools were few and far between in the last century, as they are at the present time; but even in the Landes there were, before the Revolution, 235 schools, though unequally distributed, in 330 communes. These statements of facts are mainly derived from the work of M. Allain on primary education in France before the Revolution, cited in the *Nation* for December 26, 1895.

M. Albert Babeau treats the whole question briefly, with references to authorities, in the first chapter of his 'Écoles de village pendant la Révolution,' in which he shows that he had formed a higher opinion of the extent of rural education in ante-Revolutionary France than in his earlier works, 'Le Village sous l'ancien régime' and 'La Ville rurale dans l'ancienne France.' He arrived at the conclusion endorsed by our correspondent, that primary education was more widely diffused in the north and east than in central and southern France, but his conclusions need to be modified in a more favorable sense since the publication of numerous local monographs by Fayet, Combarieu, Allain, and others.

As to the nature of the education given in the village schools, it is true that it did not much exceed reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and the catechism; but even this amount of education must have raised the French peasants, and did raise them, from the condition of absolute savages, which still remains the legendary belief and is endorsed by Weyman in his latest novel. "Bestial" is an absurdly strong word to apply to the action of the French peasants in 1789 in attacking the châteaux of the nobility.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

AN elaborate 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology,' edited by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton, will be issued by Macmillan & Co., together with a treatise on 'The Architecture of Europe: An Historical Study,' by Russell Sturgis; 'The Anatomy of the Human Body,' by Drs. John Cleland and John Yule Mackay, of Glasgow and Dundee; 'The Principles of the Transformer,' an electrical work, by Dr. Frederick Bedell of Cornell; and 'Studies in Structure and Style,' by W. T. Brewster of Columbia. The same publishers' spring list embraces 'The United States of America, 1765–1865,' by Edward Channing of Harvard; 'The Child and Childhood in Folk-Thought,' by Alexander F. Chamberlain of Clark University; 'Vocal Culture in its Relation to Literary and General Culture,' by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; 'A Brief History of English,' by Prof. Oliver F. Emerson of Cornell; 'Woman under Monasticism: Chapters in Convent Life and Saint Worship,' by Lina Eckenstein; 'The Empire of the Ptolemies,' by Prof. J. P. Mahaffy; Dante's 'Divine Comedy,' rendered in the nine-line metre of Spenser by George Musgrave, M.A., Oxford; Friedrich Ratzel's 'History of Mankind,' translated by A. J. Butler; the Works of Friedrich Nietzsche, in eleven volumes, edited in English by Alexander Tille; Georg Brandes's 'William Shakspere: A Critical Study,' translated by William Archer; a posthumous volume of 'New Poems,' by Christina Rossetti; and a 'History of Nineteenth-Century Literature,' by Prof. Saintsbury.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce 'The Historical Development of Modern Europe from 1815 down to 1880,' by Prof. Charles M. Andrews of Bryn Mawr; 'The West Indies and the Spanish Main,' a history of settlements, by James Rodway; 'The Nicaragua Canal: its History and its Future,' by Prof. Lindley M. Keasbey; 'A History of Modern Banks of Issue,' by Charles A. Conant; 'Early Long Island,' by Martha Bochée Flint; 'The Perambulation of the Forest of Dartmoor,' by Samuel Rowe, with numerous illustrations; and a new edition of Dasent's 'Tales of the Fjeld,' with 100 illustrations by Moyr Smith.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready 'The Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac,' by the late Eugene Field. We should have mentioned last week that they are the American publishers of the "Warwick Library of English Literature," of which we gave some account.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. have in preparation 'Shakspere's Heroes on the Stage,' by Charles E. L. Wingate.

Ginn & Co. will publish next month 'Selections from Keats's Poems,' by Prof. Arlo Bates.

In his 'Short Historical Latin Grammar' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), Mr. W. M. Lindsay presents a book based upon his large work called 'The Latin Language' (lately reviewed in these columns), and containing the main doctrines of that work without the detail of evidence upon which they are founded. It is a convenient little volume of some 200 pages; the matter is well arranged and clearly expounded. It is intended for beginners in the study of the development of Latin declension and conjugation. The language of it is simple, avoiding all but the most necessary technical terms, and the book may be highly recommended to those for whom it was compiled.

In April, 1892, Mr. Timothy Hopkins of the Southern Pacific Company (of Kentucky) presented his railway books to Stanford University, and made generous provision for their increase. In order that the collection, which, by September, 1895, had grown to 9,245 books and pamphlets, might be made immediately useful to those interested in the subject—if they be railroad men they may get passes to California—and that the increase of the collection might be facilitated, the library of the Stanford University recently put forth, as number one of its publications, a 'Catalogue of the Hopkins Railway Library,' by Frederick J. Teggart, A.B. It is a quarto of 241 double-columned pages, arranged on a simple classification with an index of personal names. It appears to be accurately made. The most striking features of the library evident upon cursory examination of the catalogue are the large pamphlet collections on the Erie and on the Pacific Railways, and the lamentable incompleteness of the sets of periodicals and reports. On page 191 curiosity is piqued by the entry, *s. v.* Southern Pacific Company, of "A collection of 740 pieces of stationery in use by the company. Album, folio."

The eighth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Illinois, on the subject of taxation, has been recently issued. It is a thoroughgoing single-tax document, and devoid of any new ideas on the subject; but it contains elaborate statistics of land and building values and assessments in Chicago, which are not without value. The method by which the figures were ascertained for all the tables is described with praiseworthy fulness.

The ultra-conservative spirit of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's treatise, 'Éducation et Instruction' (Paris: Firmin-Didot), will be a surprise even to those long familiar with the author's stanch adherence to the Latin tradition in French literature and education. In a field where, though not a stranger, he is evidently not as much at home as in his own, the less agreeable traits of the great literary critic are so strongly marked as to become repellent. We cannot imagine that his acrimony and "terrible assurance" will change the opinions of many as to the relative educational value of Latin and the sciences, or aid his colleagues in strengthening the educative influence of their work. The subject of the treatise itself is important enough, and M. Brunetière's contribution to it will interest members of the faculties of our higher institutions.

Müller's 'Vademecum für Studierende' will prove attractive to all interested in German student life, and especially so to those who expect to become students in Germany. The first part of the book is devoted to fraternities, and a brief historical sketch is given of the four general classes into which these fraternities naturally group themselves: the Corps, the Landsmannschaft, the Burschenschaft, and the new or free Burschenschaft, which dates from

1883, and whose aim is to counteract some of the apparently degenerating influences of the older fraternities, *e. g.*, duelling, court of honor, etc. Besides this historical sketch, the characteristics of each class at the present time are also set forth, with statistical tables showing at what universities the various fraternities are represented, the colors, date of founding, and motto of each. Another chapter exhibits all the scientific societies connected with the universities; another is devoted to fraternities and societies of all kinds connected with technical schools. A chapter on duelling shows how this practice has arisen in the universities, describes the instruments used, gives the regulations governing it, and demonstrates how little the laws have succeeded in restraining it. The drinking customs are explained somewhat in detail, and a number of student sports or games are elucidated. Finally, a collection of students' songs makes the book serviceable for the "Commers."

After a very deliberate and careful piecemeal publication, Dr. Moriz Heyne's 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' has been brought to a conclusion (Leipzig: S. Hirzel; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). It is attractively printed, and employs the Gothic letter for the editorial definition, etc., and the Roman (without substantive capitalization) for the illustrative quotations which lend the work its special distinction. The alphabetical sequence is interfered with by an arrangement of which the method is not clear, as witness these examples: *Trauen* introduces a paragraph, of nearly two columns, ending with *Traualtar* (which should have preceded not only *Trauen*, but *Traube*), *Traugebühr . . . Trauzeuge;* the next paragraph is introduced by *Trauer*. So *Tropfen* (sub.) must be sought under *Tropfbar*, together with a series of compounds closed by *Tropfenweise;* the next paragraph reverts to *Tropfen* (verb). The literary quotations are, as we have heretofore pointed out, very rich in drafts upon Goethe and Schiller, and also upon such recent sources as Ranke, Moltke, and Bismarck in particular. The first page of the final volume cites not less than sixteen authors; the last (and it is a short page) some twenty. About thirty-five quotations are found under *Strom* (to choose an instance at random). This feature, with the shades of meaning implied, makes Heyne a very desirable companion for students bent on something more than bare translation, and an interesting browsing-ground for those who have mastered the language. The etymologies are compact yet not stinted.

Lemcke & Buechner send us also the concluding parts of the eighth edition of 'Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon,' edited by J. Penzler. The two volumes number 1,064 and 1,202 pages respectively, in condensed but clear typography, displayed in double columns in the Roman letter. This gazetteer has a solid reputation for accuracy, and its range of inclusion is very great, especially for Germany, where every place having a hundred inhabitants is admitted; for Austria and Switzerland the lowest limit is 150, and for the rest of Europe, 300 to 500. Abundant details as to postal, telegraphic, railway, and industrial facilities are given, and the claim is not rashly made that for every place in the world of commercial significance this work is valuable for reference. It is finished just as an English work of large dimensions, 'Longmans' Gazetteer of the World,' makes its appearance, and as Levasseur's 'Lexique Géographique du Monde Entier' is beginning to put out its fascicules. But of gazetteers there cannot be too many, if good, and each will supplement all the rest by its peculiar copiousness.

From the same firm we have received the fifth issue of the Spruner-Sieglin Hand-Atlas for the history of antiquity, the Middle Ages, and of modern times, in its first division, containing maps of the Persian Empire and of the Macedonians in Alexander's time, the Parthian dominions, the north African seacoast, and the Roman Empire in the second and third centuries A.D.

Dr. Harrison Allen's article, of forty pages and four plates, "On the Embryos of Bats," is No. 2 of vol. i. of the 'Contributions from the Zoölogical Laboratory of the University of Pennsylvania.' About a dozen genera are represented, in more than thirty figures. The material was not all that was desired, but, according to the author, it shows the differences between fœtal and adult stages in bats to be greater in kind and degree than in other mammals, and that the numerous contrasts between embryonic and adult forms may be accepted as evidence of the relatively low grade of the entire order, the high degree of specialization notwithstanding.

In a November extra from the *American Journal of Science*, vol. l., Prof. O C. Marsh treats of "Restorations of some European Dinosaurs, with suggestions as to their place among the Reptilia." The plates contain restorations of Compsognathus, Scelidosaurus, Hypsilophodon, and Iguanodon. In a second paper from the same volume, December, he considers the "Affinities and Classification of the Dinosaurian Reptiles." On the plate, twelve restorations are figured for comparison. The Dinosaurs are placed as a sub-class of the Reptilia and distributed among three orders, Theropoda, Sauropoda, and Predentata, with twenty-six families and sixty-eight genera. The affinities of the exceptional genus Ceratosaurus on the one hand and Archæopteryx on the other bring these Saurians and the birds near together. Remoter affinities are traced through the Hallopoda, Zanclodon, Aëtosaurus and Belodon to the Crocodilia, by way of common ancestry. The same volume of the *Journal* contains a notice, by Prof. J. B. Woodworth, of his discovery in the Newark Group, at Avondale, New Jersey, of foot-prints similar to those of the Dinosaurs of the Connecticut valley.

In a recent circular sent out by Prof. Pickering, we learn that an interesting examination of variable stars has been in progress. Prof. S. I. Bailey, in charge of the Harvard station at Arequipa, Peru, has made numerous photographs of globular clusters, which have proved, upon examination, to contain an extraordinary number of variable stars—not a general condition of stellar clusters. The photographs used in this discussion were taken at Arequipa with the 13-inch Boyden telescope. In one cluster (Canes Venatici), no less than eighty-seven stars have been found to be variable. That this is unmistakable is proved by an independent examination of the plates by Prof. Pickering and Mrs. Fleming as well as Prof. Bailey. Another cluster shows forty-six variables, while others show three, four, or five each. In general, no variables have been found within about one minute of the centre of the clusters, on account of the closeness of the stars; and none of those found are more than ten minutes distant from the centres of the clusters. Some of the variable stars have short periods, of not more than a few hours. The individual stars in close clusters can be readily found only from photographic or other charts on which they are marked. The Harvard Observatory is preparing to publish charts of this kind, and meantime marked photographs will be sent to astronomers desiring to study them.

We learn from *Science* that a new star has been found by Mrs. Fleming in the constellation Centaurus, from a comparison with the Draper Memorial photographs. Its spectrum is monochromatic, and closely resembles that of the adjacent nebula. Like the new stars in Cygnus, Auriga, and Norma, it appears to have changed into a gaseous nebula. It is already beginning to fade.

As an indication of the recognition which women are beginning to receive in German-speaking countries, it may be mentioned that upon the occasion of the discussion of the bill for the admission of women to universities, a member of the Austrian Parliament said of Frau von Gizycki (whose husband was the well-known writer on ethics and professor at the University of Berlin), referring to her recent speeches in Vienna, that she would be an honor to any parliament in the world, and that of the three hundred and fifty-three members then present there were not many who could measure themselves against her for eloquence, culture, or learning.

A significant enterprise has just been launched in Vienna by the Archæological Committee for the gymnasia in that capital. A series of permanent photographic prints from approved plaster casts of sculpture that has come down to us from antiquity, will be issued for school use in connection with Greek and Roman history and mythology, at a price averaging fifteen cents a folio plate. The first of six instalments is now before us (Vienna: Carl Graeser; New York: Westermann), consisting of the well-known Augustus from Prima Porta, Zeus from Otricoli, Laokoön group (Vatican), Pericles (British Museum), Homer Sanssouci), and a less familiar bas relief of Orpheus, Eurydice, and Hermes (Villa Albani). The prints share the inferiority of the material they counterfeit, but on the other hand it has been possible to control the lighting so as to bring out the details of the statuary. Though some retouching is inevitable in all these mechanical reproductions, the present series is on the whole very satisfactory as well as cheap. There would appear to be no limit to it. A text-book of moderate compass will accompany the complete portfolio.

Mr. Unwin's new venture, the monthly *Cosmopolis* (New York: International News Co.), is a handsome large octavo, and justifies its subtitle, "an international review," by printing three tiers of articles in as many languages, English, French, and German. Stevenson's posthumous "Weir of Hermiston" leads the table of contents, and is bracketed with articles by Sir Charles Dilke, Henry James, and Edmund Gosse. Paul Bourget ushers in the French section, followed by Anatole France, Édouard Rod, Georg Brandes, and Francisque Sarcey. Ernest von Wildenbruch, Mommsen, Erich Schmidt, Spielhagen, and Helferich form the German contingent, and these nationalities reappear among the editors of the concluding chronicles. This, as will be seen, is a brave showing of names, and it would be a narrow intellect that could not find interesting reading in each division. Perhaps a first number calls for no further remark.

The London music-halls, to which we owe, if not the invention, the suggestion, of the substantive "Jingo," some time ago undertook to fix the pronunciation of "Rhodesia," the name of the ambitious South African premier's vi-

sionary domain, uncomfortably adjacent to the Transvaal. The mute *e* proving troublesome for geographic rhyming, it was boldly sounded, as follows:

"The boom, the boom, the boom, boys,
In fair Rhodesia.
Hurrah for Cecil Rhodes, boys,
The friend of Zambesia!
A cheer for Willie Regan, boys,
And one for Jameson!
But a tiger for Barnato, boys,
And the lands of Livingstone."

A correspondent writes: "In two different editions of the one-volume edition of Lowell's Poems I find a singular misreading of a word. The verses 'To a Pine-Tree,' stanza four, read in the first line,

'To the slumberer asleep 'neath thy glooming';

certainly a 'damnable iteration.' The early editions have 'lumberer.'" The error has happily not been perpetuated in the ten volume Riverside Edition of Lowell's Works.

The Department of State has, as our readers know, hopefully begun a series of calendars which will help to extend the proper basing of American history on documents. An agency like the English Historical Manuscripts Commission, formed to deal with historical materials not possessed by the Department, was still needed, and the establishment of such a commission was, as we have already announced, the most important step taken by the American Historical Association at its late meeting in Washington. We are now able to report the Commission constituted, and ready to begin its inquiries. It consists of Prof. J. F. Jameson of Brown University as chairman; Dr. Douglas Brymner, archivist of the Dominion of Canada; Mr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia; Prof. Wm. P. Trent of the University of the South; and Prof. Frederick J. Turner of the University of Wisconsin.

—We call attention to the communication, on another page, from British Guiana. It is from the pen of the Hon. N. Darnell Davis, C.M.G., Collector of the Port of Georgetown, and a well-known historical student and writer. Mr. Davis possesses a strong affection for the United States, and is unusually well-informed as to its earlier and later history. He has for many years been a contributor to the *Nation*.

—The Devil cannot complain that he has not his due in the current issue of the Oxford English Dictionary (Development-Diffluency). Six pages, or eighteen columns, are allotted to him under his proper rubric, to say nothing of the derivatives from the Latin and French roots. His elusive and metamorphic character is evidenced by the long catalogue of spellings of his name, from *diobul* to *del*, and his alias the dickens; by his vacillating gender in Old High German and Old English—from masculine to neuter; and by the numerous shapes popularly ascribed to him over and above the conventional likeness to Pan and the satyrs. Even in the Scriptures, Jerome must needs restore the Hebrew Satan in place of the διάβολος of the Septuagint and the *diabolus* of the Old Latin version. Wyclif, with his *Sathan*, followed the Vulgate except in one of the Psalms, where he let in "the deuell." The Devil's proverbial aversion to holy water was recognized as early as 1570; he was not so black as painted in 1596; he made his appearance when talked of in 1672; and he was "to pay" in 1711. A "poor devil" excited pity in 1698. Moxon, etymologizing in 1683, explained the name "printer's devil" by the fact that "these Boys . . . in a Printing House commonly black and Dawb themselves." An unfeed junior-counsel, however, is a "devil" irrespective of color, like his brother fag the *nègre* of the French art ateliers. Finally, to have done with his Majesty, we remark that *deviltry*, an Americanism for *devilry*, is supported by dialectal English. Another vocable possessing an obvious interest, in this instalment, is Dictionary, 'a repertory of *dictiones*, phrases or words.' The word is traced (*circa* 1225) to Joannes de Garlandia, a native of England, who adopted the form *dictionarius*, while Petrus Berchorius, who died in Paris in 1362, preferred *dictionarium*. Sir Thomas Elyot arrived with his *dictionary* in 1538, as, across the Channel, R. Estienne with *dictionaire* in 1539. The earliest works of this kind were bilingual or polyglot.

—Much curiosity attaches to the substantive *devoir*, which in Middle English was spelt *dever*, and stressed on the last syllable (de-vair'), then on the penult (dev'-ver), with the spellings *devour*, *devor*, *deavour*, and presently, by Caxton's powerful aid, *devoir* as in French, though retaining the penultimate stress. The English traditional form completely died out after 1600, and by degrees the French pronunciation got and retained the upper hand. The 'Song of Roland' (*circa* 1400) has: "Trist us neuer, If we in this mater do not our deuour"; and Tom Hood in 1845 revived this archaism for the sake of a pun—"He went to pay her his devours, When he'd devoured his pay." *Dicker*, too, has a singular history, as coming from the Latin *decuria*, 'a parcel of 10,' and being in vogue among our Teutonic ancestors in their skin tributes to the Roman conquerors, just as later in this country in our fur dealings with the Indians. The most Protean of all words in the present section, as respects meanings, is perhaps *dicky*, which denotes seven distinct articles of apparel, as, a detachable shirt-front, a collar, a bib, a petticoat, an apron, an oil-skin suit, besides a rag-bag, a driver's seat, and a naval officer. *Diaper* has nothing to do, etymologically, with "d'Ypres," in spite of all that town's napery. The verb *dictate*, we are told, is now usually accented on the last syllable in England, but Byron and Shelley consistently accented the first, as does certainly the best American usage. Pope, Thomson, Young, Cowper, Keats, and Tennyson to the contrary notwithstanding, *diamond* tends to become trisyllabic, as Shakspere made it; but metrical license will doubtless keep the pronunciation from "crystallizing." With *different* "the usual construction is now with *from;* that with *to* (after *unlike*, *dissimilar to*) is found in writers of all ages, and is frequent colloquially, but is by many considered incorrect. The construction with *than* (after *other than*) is found in Fuller," etc., to Dasent, as Dr. Fitzedward Hall has shown. A euphemistic American sense of *difficulty*, 'a quarrel, assault, homicide,' is unnoticed under this word. Longfellow's "*diapason* of the cannonade" is, we venture to think, misapportioned under the strictly musical definition; it belongs rather under the "more or less vaguely extended, with the idea of 'all the tones or notes.'" The poet chose it for its polysyllabic dignity, heightened in effect by its infrequent use and consequent obscurity of meaning—*omne ignotum pro magnifico*.

—The coincident progress towards completion of Pottier's Daremberg-Saglio and of Wissowa's rewritten edition of Pauly's classical encyclopædia in ten volumes (Stuttgart: Metzler), which has maintained its ascendency as the standard work of reference of classical philologians and antiquarians for more than half a century, wears the aspect of an international handicap match of polyhistoric scholarship. The new Pauly, like the old, is without illustrations, although volume i. contains a map of the Lacus Albanus region, a plan of Alexandria, and a map of the Oropian Sanctuary of Amphiaraos. Unlike the old, it is printed in two-column large octavo pages in Latin type, and on good paper. Unlike Daremberg Saglio's 'Dictionnaire des antiquités grecques et romaines,' its strongest point is nomenclature, so that it conflicts neither with its French rival nor with Iwan von Müller's great 'Handbuch der philologischen Wissenschaften.' Its editor's reputation as a critical scholar in the domain of Latinity, of Roman mythology and archæology is well established. He occupies the chair of classical philology in the University of Marburg, and is an industrious contributor to Roscher's uncompleted 'Lexikon der griechischen und römischen Mythologie.' A characteristic article of the first semi-volume, which stops in the middle of the article *Alexandros*, is the multiple one under *Aelius*. Including *Aelia*, it embraces no less than one hundred and eighty-four individual subjects, down to Aelia Verrina, wife of Emperor Leo I. The chief of all the Aelii is of course Emperor Hadrian, whose biography is given under No. 64. Nothing more convincingly proves the enormous setback in civilization which the Orient has labored under since the days of the Roman Empire than Von Rohden's rehearsal of Hadrian's journeyings from Rome to Athens, from Athens by way of Ephesus, Lycia, and Cilicia to Antioch, thence to Palmyra, Damascus, Gaza, and back from Antioch by way of Jerusalem and Arabia to Egypt, up and down the Nile with the Empress, thence into Libya, where he hunts lions, back to Antioch, north again to Adrianople, Mœsia (now Bulgaria), and Dacia (now Rumania), through the Vale of Tempe to Dodona, swiftly again, at the news of the rebellion of Barcocheba, to Jerusalem, and home by sea to Rome—for such is the abundantly verified itinerary of one of his fifteen-thousand-mile journeys. In his ascents of Mts. Casius and Aetna, "to see the sunrise," in his artistic dilettanteism, and in his constant professions of unselfish devotion to the good of his people, the first *Reisekaiser* is indeed quite up to the last. Kaerst's account of Alexander the Great leaves something to be desired in the absence of any allusion to his physical appearance, or to his important relation to Greek art as a subject of portraiture; also in the manner in which the lasting effects of his conquests on the Indian frontier are ignored.

—Specialists cannot afford to ignore the data collected under *Aberglaube* by Dr. Ernst Riess, now a resident of Philadelphia, under *Achaia* by Brandis, who takes little note of the archæological evidence of the high civilization of the Achæans before the Dorian conquest, under *Aera* by Kubitschek, who gives a six-page synchronistic table of astronomical and Julian years compared with the Greek Olympiads and supplemented by the Byzantine indictions, and under *Arithmetica* by Hultsch. The latest and fullest information on Aphrodite has been collected by Gümpel, who favors a purely Hellenic origin of the cult and Kretschmer's etymology ἀφρ-οδίτη = foam traveller, "an epithet deriving from Greek hymnology," rather than Preller's from a hypothetical Phœnician *aph'rudet* = the dove. The immense antiquity and the continuous use throughout Graeco-Italic antiquity of nude images *not* destitute of sexual significance, as the imagination of a Haw-

thorne conceived the Venus of the Medici and her congeners to be, is clearly shown. In two long articles of the third semi-volume, on Apollo and Artemis, Wernicke takes the advanced ground of denying the primary connection of either deity with solar and lunar worship. His Apollo is an earth spirit, and his Artemis a sort of apsara, or dew fairy, out of which aspects the vegetal, pastoral, genital, tribal, purificatory, and other sides of the cult of both originally unconnected deities develop plausibly under his hands. The last semi-volume is especially rich in important subjects pertaining to the history of Greek literature, criticism, and science: Archilochus, Archimedes, Aristarchus, Aristophanes, Aristotle. In Crusius's article on Archilochus and in Kaibel's on Aristophanes, as in Kaerst's on Alexander, no allusion is made to the extant antique portraits, or to the silver cup lately exhumed near Pompeii on which the skeleton of the Parian poet, with the inscription ΑΡΧΙΛΟΧΟΣ, appears in company with those of the foremost other poets *du temps jadis*. The revised edition of Pauly, comprising 14,400 pages, will appear in twenty semi-volumes at the uniform price of 15 marks, and also in 150 numbers of 6 signatures at 2 marks each.

—The Journal of the Society of Arts (London: George Bell & Sons) of December 6 gives an account of a paper and discussion on a revival of the water-glass method of mural painting which has been used by Mrs. Lea Merritt in the decoration of the little church of St. Martin's, Wonersh. This method, which depends on the fixing of the colors by spraying with certain "soluble silicates and metallic oxides" (water-colors being used), was invented in Germany, and was in great favor at the time of the decoration of the Houses of Parliament. Maclise's enormous pictures of Waterloo and Trafalgar were painted in this manner, but he does not seem to have been much pleased with the process or its results, and we believe it has not been used since his time until now. Permanence and resistance to climate, even in exterior decoration, are the merits claimed for it. It seems characteristically English that the discussion should have brought out the expression of great hopes for the enlarged use of decorative painting in England based upon the revival of a process. Here, we should be likely to consider a process of little importance, and to think that a desire for painted decoration on the part of the public and an ability to design it on the part of the artists were the essentials. It may be doubted whether, in the epochs when art was really living, any one has cared much for permanence. The external walls of Venice were covered with frescoes by Titian and Giorgione as we cover ours with red paint and white "pointing"—because it suited the taste of the Venetians; and the work was as little expected to last for ever. The English sense of "commercial integrity," as Sizeranne calls it, places great stress upon permanence, and English painters make their work distressingly ugly with a glowing sense of virtue in the knowledge that it will always remain so. When we really want art we can have it even in so ephemeral a thing as the poster. Why should we not paint our walls in the same spirit, leaving our successors to treat theirs in their own way? The permanence of bad art and bad decoration is one of the melancholy things in this world, and for one lost masterpiece that we regret there are thousands of daubs that we cannot get rid of.

—An article in the *International Journal of Ethics* on "National Prejudices" is of a timely interest, which its author, an Englishman, could not have anticipated when he wrote it. Whatever the amount of slumbering dislike and misconception that may exist between European nations now, it is nothing like the brutal ignorance and the harsh hatred which the best of men felt only a few generations ago for people of a different race from themselves. The quotations which this writer gives are interesting landmarks, from which one can infer how much brotherly love between nations will surpass its present development fifty years from now. For instance, Coleridge writes that he had never met a German clergyman who was a Christian; the Russians he pronounced brutal; the Dutch, he said, were animals; and the Belgians, as impudent as they were iniquitous, consisted of four million restive asses. For the French he had this in reserve: "Frenchmen are like grains of gunpowder—each by itself smutty and contemptible, but mass them together and they are terrible indeed." Dr. Johnson said of the Americans in 1769: "Sir, they are a race of convicts, and ought to be thankful for anything we allow them short of hanging." Of the French he says: "What do you expect, dear sir, from fellows that eat frogs?" When asked whether, after all, God had not made Scotland, he replied: "Certainly he did, but he made it for Scotchmen; and we must remember that God made hell." When in particularly good humor, he was willing to love all mankind, *except an American*. Swift wrote: "The greatest Inventions were produced in times of Ignorance; as the use of the Compass, Gunpowder, and Printing; and by the dullest Nation, as the Germans." And the prototype for all this is the yet earlier proverbial saying, "Can any goed thing come out of Nazareth?" A Franco-English alliance has been formed for the express purpose of removing the false views of the manners, customs, feelings, and history of each of those two nations which prevail in the other. Such an organization may easily become a powerful means for good.

—A bit of archæological news of some importance was announced on December 21 by M. Paul Delombre, in his report on the *crédits supplémentaires* asked for by the French Government. Among these is an item of 50,000 francs to pay for the exclusive privilege of making archæological diggings in Persia. M. Delombre gives the hitherto unpublished text of the agreement which has been made between the French Government and the Shah. The chief points in this agreement are these: On account of the scientific eminence of the French, and the friendly relations which for so long a time have happily existed between Iran and France, the Persian Government grants to the French the exclusive privilege of making diggings throughout the whole extent of the empire. All sacred places, like mosques and cemeteries, however, are to be exempt from disturbance; and the French excavating parties are held to respect the habits and customs of the country, and to do nothing to vex them. All expenses of whatsoever sort are to be at the charge of the Government of the Republic. If valuable objects in gold or silver are found, or if any jewels, these are to be the private property of the Persian Government; yet, in consideration of the cost and trouble of the diggings, one-half of such objects will be yielded to the French at a fair price; and, whenever the rest shall be sold, if ever, the French shall be given the first chance to purchase it. As to works of sculpture of all sorts, and inscriptions, they are to be divided evenly between the two Governments, but the French delegates are to have the right of making sketches or models of whatever may be found. Finally, "in recognition of the preference which the Persian Government accords to it, the Government of the Republic will make to his Majesty the Shah a present of 10,000 francs." It cannot be said that, as diggings go, the French have paid an undue price for their privilege. Everybody will wish them good luck in the exercise of it, and many discoveries in this relatively new and certainly most interesting and promising field.

SHERMAN'S RECOLLECTIONS.

John Sherman's Recollections of Forty Years in the House, Senate, and Cabinet. An Autobiography. Two volumes, illustrated. Chicago: The Werner Co. 1895.

MR. SHERMAN'S recollections derive interest from two sources—first, the importance of the events in which he has played a part; second, from their presenting a picture of the man himself. As a literary performance the book has no character whatever, but as the picture of a successful politician drawn by his own hand it is instructive. No doubt the success would have been more marked if the great ambition of Mr. Sherman's life, the Presidency, had been attained (we infer from these volumes that he has given it up); but, compared with that of most of his contemporaries, it has been very remarkable. In the world of politics success means remaining in office, and the question which has interested us in reading these volumes has been to make out the sort of character and mind required for the task during the past forty years. The answer is clearly that the first requisite has been a conviction that, no matter what one's party decides, the first duty of a statesman is to vote with it, and not set up his individual judgment against it; the second, that all differences of opinion, no matter whether they involve moral questions or not, can be compromised in some way; the third, that a public measure, no matter how good in itself, is worthless unless it satisfies the popular demand for the time being; the fourth, that when a statesman does not know in which of two opposite directions the popular current is moving, the thing for him to do is to "hedge"; the fifth, that speech is capable of many uses besides the bald and childish one of expressing one's thoughts. Mr. Sherman is a brilliant example of what would be called in France an "opportunist," and that he does not mind at least being criticised as such, seems a fair deduction from his quoting *in extenso* (pp. 810, 811) an article, by Don Piatt, in which he is complimented on a symmetry of intellect which "leaves nothing to regret except the thought that its perfection excludes the blemish of a soul." We shall not attempt to review Mr. Sherman's career in detail, but shall merely endeavor to show how his "recollections" of some of the leading events in it illustrate his character.

A marked feature of Mr. Sherman's personal recollections is their insipidity, and this is evidently due to his disinclination to recollect anything unpleasant or anything which might give offence. The stormy period of Grant's first term, for instance, ending in the revolt of 1872 and the nomination of Horace Greeley by the Democrats, is passed over almost in silence. We are told of the deposition of Mr. Sumner from the Foreign Relations Commit-

tee; we are told that it was "a period of slander and scandal," and that in the course of it the author himself was falsely accused of having made money corruptly; also, that he went to California and saw the Yosemite and the big trees—but this is pretty much all. Of course, in the personal recollections of a financier, it is unfair to expect a full history of his times; and this may account for the fact that there seems to be no mention of the long controversy over the distribution of the *Alabama* claims money, as well as for the statement that the only reason for the defeat of Blaine's nomination in 1876 was "antagonisms" between him and Conkling (p. 550), and that in 1880 he was defeated because nine delegates from Ohio voted *for* him instead of for the author—this desertion preventing a subsequent unanimous transfer of the delegation from Sherman to Blaine (p. 773). The Belknap and Schenck affairs are not discussed, nor is the Crédit Mobilier scandal, which at the time convulsed the country.

Mr. Sherman's first political contest of importance was that for Speaker of the House in 1859-'60. His attitude in it was characteristic of the man. Helper's 'Impending Crisis' had appeared, and a pamphlet had been made from it by F. P. Blair. Mr. Sherman had been asked during the previous Congress by a friend of his, Mr. E. D. Morgan, to sign a recommendation for the circulation of such a pamphlet. Mr. Sherman warily replied that he "had not time to examine the book," but that "if there was nothing offensive in it" he (Mr. Morgan) might use his name. So far from there being nothing offensive in it to the Southern half of the country, from which the "incendiary" work emanated, the moment Mr. Sherman was put in nomination for Speaker, a Missourian introduced a resolution denouncing the book, and declaring that no member of the House who had recommended it was fit to be Speaker (p. 169). The candidate was at once able to say that he had never read the book, nor the compendium founded upon it; that he had authorized his name to be used only in case there was nothing "offensive" in the book; that if there was anything offensive in it, he repudiated it, and that his attitude on the slavery question was a matter of record. His manly, straightforward speech on the subject brought him within three votes of an election. Strange to say, there are people to this day ill-natured enough to think that Mr. Sherman avoided reading the 'Impending Crisis' in order to be prepared to stand by his signature or repudiate all knowledge of the book, as the cat might jump. But the air at the time was full of suspicion and distrust. Thaddeus Stevens, Mr. Sherman tells us, said he would never vote for any other candidate until the crack of doom, and afterwards explained his change of mind by saying that he thought he "heard it cracking."

One great advantage of Recollections is that the author can recollect things pretty much as he pleases, provided, at least, that he has Mr. Sherman's caution of statement. For instance, what he recollects about Johnson's impeachment is that the latter was simply guilty of a plain violation of a penal statute, and that no substantial constitutional question was involved (pp. 430, 431); consequently he "felt bound" to vote guilty, but "was entirely satisfied with the result of the vote, brought about by the action of several Republican Senators." At page 144 he gives what he calls the "whole case" as to the French Spoliation Claims, and declares their payment to be "the most striking evidence of the improvidence of Congress in dealing with antiquated claims against the Government." He mentions that they were "referred to the Court of Claims," but seems to have wholly forgotten that this court—the Government's own court—had the whole case before it, and solemnly decided that the Government ought to pay the claims, and that the money thus far paid has been paid under this decision.

Again, his account of the legal-tender acts is most peculiar. In a speech made in 1876 we find him laying down in the most positive terms, as a "universal law of political economy," that "whenever two metals or two moneys are in circulation, the least valuable will drive out the most valuable; the latter will be exported" (p. 541). But when Mr. Sherman explains his action with regard to the law by which Government notes were made legal-tender (pp. 255, 288), he forgets all about this "universal law," and lays down a quite different one—that the disappearance of coin is "the universal result of great wars long protracted," and that "gold and silver flee from a state of war"; that consequently what had to be done was to provide some currency in advance *to take its place when it should go*. Hence it was necessary to make the new currency a legal-tender *between individuals*. But Mr. Sherman is altogether too cautious to state such a non-sequitur baldly; the legal-tender act also provided that the bonds should be paid in gold, and that the customs revenue should, for this purpose, be collected in gold. This of course strengthened the public credit, and consequently the greenbacks; and Mr. Sherman is able to say, "The legal-tender act, *with its provision for coin receipts to pay interest on bonds*, whatever may be said to the contrary by theorists, was the only measure that could have enabled the Government to carry on successfully the vast operations of the war." This confuses a very simple question—Did the Government's declaration that the greenback should be a legal-tender for a dollar make it worth a cent more in the market than if it had been simply a promise to pay? On this point Mr. Sherman brings forward no proof. It is very significant that he makes no argument to show that the legal-tender quality of the *silver* dollar increases its value in any way.

It is the vice of a mind given to compromise that it generally ends in thinking that compromise is an end in itself; and men having this bent will generally plume themselves on advocating some evil at war with all their professions and calculated to produce the greatest public disasters, because, as they maintain, they have by this means averted some other evil, which they of course insist would have been far worse. They do not seem to perceive that, though they may acquiesce in and submit to such evils, they advocate them at the risk of their reputation not only for consistency but for sincerity. Mr. Sherman's attitude with regard to the "Sherman silver law" of 1890 is an illustration of this. Mr. Sherman is opposed to inflation, and yet reported this bill authorizing the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver every month; how does he reconcile his action with his professions? By showing that a large majority of the Senate favored free coinage, that it was feared that the House might yield and agree to it, that if a bill for free coinage should have passed both houses, Harrison might have signed it, and that free coinage was a worse evil than the silver-purchase scheme. Consequently, Mr. Sherman did what he could to pass the latter. The difficulty with this view is that instead of being a genuine compromise, the act was merely a sop to the free-silver men, and would no doubt have ultimately led to free coinage if the total collapse of the scheme to buoy up the price of silver by Government purchases had not brought the Government to the verge of bankruptcy. But, apart from this, how can a man with any real convictions on the subject advocate and father a bill which he holds to be radically vicious, because something worse is proposed by some one else? On this principle, the candid patriot may advocate anything he pleases, provided he announces that he is opposed to it. Suppose the majority of the House are in favor of an act for the immediate murder of all adult Chinamen or Indians, while the Senate is in favor of killing all the children as well. The first is obviously the lesser evil; but Mr. Sherman would hardly like to report it from a conference committee and favor its adoption. On these principles we might be called upon to listen to arguments in favor of an act legalizing burglary as a lesser evil than an act permitting murder, or of an act authorizing larceny as preferable on the whole to burglary. The matter is clear enough where acts universally recognized as wicked are concerned; but to an experienced financier (the whole book emphasizes this) inflation is only a disguised species of wickedness, designed to enable the debtor to cheat his creditor. And now mark the result. The "compromise," once made, immediately becomes a good and wise measure, and although now Mr. Sherman thinks that "the day it became a law" he was "ready to repeal it" (p. 1070), this is one of those points on which his recollection is at fault, for what he actually thought at the time, as appears by a prepared speech which he prints (p. 1112), was this:

> "*What we ought to do*, and what we now do under the silver law of the last Congress, *a conservative Republican measure*, is to buy the entire product of silver mined in the United States at its market value, and, upon the security of that silver deposited in the Treasury, issue Treasury notes to the full amount of the cost of the bullion" (p. 1116).

It must not be supposed that we have the slightest desire to belittle the reputation which Mr. Sherman gained by means of the operations that led to the resumption of specie payments. His career as Secretary of the Treasury is the brilliant page in his life. His country no doubt owes him a debt of gratitude on that score, while for cleverness, ingenuity, tact, and adroitness there is probably not his equal in Washington; but his passion for arrangement of difficulties by way of compromise has unfortunately ended in connecting his name with the measure just referred to, passed by inflationists, and which has ever since made the possibility of the honest payment of its debts by the Government an open question. His whole discussion of the currency question shows that he wishes to persuade us that it may be settled by means of a perfectly honest compromise between those who want to cheat the creditors of the Government and their own, and those who want Government and private debts honestly paid. He is consequently opposed to all contraction of the currency and retirement of the greenbacks, and even thinks that the volume of the currency may be increased as the volume of business increases (pp. 755–756). To the fact that a Government currency keeps alive a perpetual political agitation for dishonest inflation Mr. Sherman seems totally blind, though for thirty years, in one form or other, such an agitation has existed.

One thing we miss sadly in these volumes, and that is some account of the actual means by which, through all the difficulties which have surrounded him, Mr. Sherman has managed to retain his foothold at Washington for forty years. In any country it would be an enormously long term of service—in America especially so—(he mentions with pride that his Senatorial career is the longest on record); and behind his action on the public stage which exhibits him rather as an adroit manipulator of legislation than anything else, there must have been forty years of management of the local politics of Ohio no less adroit, to prevent his younger and bolder rivals from ousting him. In this sort of manœuvring Mr. Sherman is no doubt a master, but of himself as a manager he does not give us a fair view, for he generally represents himself as avoiding as far as possible all dealings with the offices. An anecdote of the impression which his arts made upon Lincoln is curious. It seems that Mr. Sherman wished to dissuade Lincoln from making too many Whig appointments in Ohio, and requested an interview. He found the President in excellent humor, but when he began to complain about appointments, the expression of Lincoln's face "changed to one of extreme sadness." He did not say a word, but placed his feet on the table and began to look the "picture of despair." Mr. Sherman "took" at once. He began to reproach himself for bringing up so unimportant a subject as local offices when the country was in the throes of revolution, and finally he apologized for it, and declared that "he would not bother him again with them." Mr. Lincoln's face brightened, "his whole manner changed, until finally he almost embraced me" (p. 269). It appears that in 1888 Mr. Sherman lost the nomination for the Presidency through a "corrupt New York bargain," and he gives a picture of "bossism" in Hamilton County, Ohio, which shows that offices play the same part there that they do here in New York; but he declares that no Secretary of the Treasury was ever "so utterly indifferent to the distribution of patronage" (p. 769); and perhaps as an illustration of this he mentions that he "severed all connection between his duties in the Treasury" and the business of getting himself nominated for President, by setting up his Presidential "headquarters" in another building (p. 767).

Mr. Sherman is fond of a phrase with which one is more familiar in the mouths of domestic than of public servants. The highest commendation that he can accord any measure is that it "gives satisfaction." What he plumes himself upon in his political career is that he has himself given satisfaction. There is every proof that he has done so. He has seen and deeply pondered the terrible fate of those in public life who do not give satisfaction, and he has steered clear of the pitfalls which beset those who try to be independent of party, or to determine their action by considerations of public interest solely. Not that he avows anything of the kind; the whole book is written on the theory that all the legislation of the past generation is the result of the deliberations of true representatives of the people (excepting, of course, the Democrats in Congress, for when Mr. Sherman speaks of the People, what he has in mind is always his own party)—a most convenient theory, for it enables the author to overlook the fact that in all important crises public opinion has been in advance of legislative opinion, and that what most of the members of Congress and the Senate have been trying to do has been to keep their places or to get better ones. Mr. Sherman's notion of giving satisfaction, as already explained, is, roughly, in all cases of division of opinion within the party, to arrange some compromise on which the Democrats can be voted down; this, if it involves a sacrifice of conviction, makes it all the more creditable. The great advantage of this view of political duty is that under it the successful retention of place becomes proof of devotion to the good cause; it is only selfish or obstinate or dull people who think themselves called upon to set up their "conscience" against their party.

When Augustus was about to die, he asked those about him whether he had "played his part well"; and on their replying that he had, asked them to give him their applause. It is becoming the fashion for modern statesmen to anticipate a deathbed or posthumous verdict by the aid of a contemporary publisher. When the statesman feels that the fiat has gone forth; that the great Prize for which he has so long struggled is not to be his; that the time is rapidly drawing nigh when all place must be given up, he displays no emotion, but prepares himself calmly to meet the inevitable end. Wrapping his toga about him, with a firm voice and unruffled front he dictates his Recollections to his typewriter. The plan has much to recommend it, though from what we have said, it will be seen that we hardly think that in the long run the Recollections of Mr. Sherman will—if we may venture upon a financial metaphor—pass current at their face value. All the more reason, he would reply, that he should do what he could to keep them at par now by declaring that they are to be received and circulated by everybody with full faith and credit. This helps to float them, and though there is no Gresham's law under which they will drive more accurate and honest recollection out of the minds of the author's contemporaries or successors, he will probably always feel, as in the case of the legal-tenders, that there was really no other way to accomplish what he had in view, while the public at large will have the satisfaction of knowing that these last Sherman Notes will in the end be taken everywhere for exactly what they are worth.

THREE BOOKS ABOUT IRELAND.

Pagan Ireland. By W. G. Wood-Martin. Longmans. 1895.

A Letter by Capt. Cuellar of the Spanish Armada to Philip the Second. Translated by H. D. Sedgwick, Jr. G. H. Richmond & Co. 1895.

The Life of Patrick Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan. By John Todhunter. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams.

THE first of the above trio is by a well-known antiquarian and author of other similar works. It is an exhaustive account of the prehistoric antiquities of Ireland, copiously illustrated, and its compilation must have been the work of many years. There is no failing to which antiquarian observers are more liable than seeing too much; but the ordinary observer sees too little, and needs to have his attention drawn to mounds, heaps of stones, and rock-scribings, all of which have neither interest nor meaning for him unless they are interpreted by a skilled antiquarian. We can only conjecture what manner of men the dwellers in Irish caves, mounds, and "crannogs" were; they left no remains except bones of animals which served for food, rude crockery, primitive stone implements, and canoes, usually hollowed from a single tree. In the primitive stage of his existence man was scarcely distinguishable from the brute creation, and in Ireland very little advance was made until after the Christian era. Mr. Wood-Martin finds it impossible not to accuse the aboriginal inhabitants of habitual cannibalism, and thinks that a careful analysis of obscure customs still extant in Ireland throws some light on this subject. Regarding the fabled early civilization of the island he remarks:

"We possess many assertions as to the past glories of the land, but these assertions are not supported by material remains. It is clear that when the East was at the height of its civilization our ancestors were mere savages, and were but little better in later times, when Rome was at the zenith of her glory. . . . The description of the ancient glories of Erin, as given by enthusiastic historians, may be compared to the mirage of the desert, the mere reflection of distant scenes and the phantasmagoria of Roman and Eastern civilization, which the writers, imagining it ought to have existed, finally depicted as if actually existing."

Our author does not agree with the few antiquarians who hold that the Ogham inscriptions indicated "alphabetical knowledge." For this, as for other moot topics, one may consult the bibliography at the end of the volume. The number of authorities quoted and referred to in the text is enormous. Although Irish archæology has been at a standstill for years, there is a vast amount of material to be found in the journals of learned societies, pamphlets, and uncollected notes and letters, and this handbook, certainly one of the best in Irish antiquities, can hardly fail to give a fresh impetus to research.

The first of the Spanish Armada tracts contains a graphic account of Capt. Cuellar's misadventures after the dispersion of the Spanish fleet. Wrecked on the coast of Ireland, he spent seven months "in mountains and woods amongst savages, for in that part of Ireland where we were wrecked they are all such." He wrote to justify himself with the King, for he had been condemned to death when off Calais for some dereliction of duty. He hopes that his Majesty may occupy himself "a little by way of amusement after dinner by reading this letter." There was not much amusement for the Spaniards, for the greater number (about one thousand) who were wrecked with Cuellar were killed as they came ashore, or wherever they were found by the English troops and their adherents. The native Catholics plundered but sheltered them. At that time Ireland was but partly subdued; and, after many hairbreadth escapes, Cuellar reached some mountains "behind which lay a friendly country that belonged to a great lord who was a good friend to the King of Spain." On his way he was sheltered by a young man who "knew Latin," and with whom he conversed. Stripped of his clothes and wrapped in straw, he at last reached the house of the friendly lord, by name "de Ruerge," evidently "O'Rorke." "Although he is a savage," wrote Cuellar, "he is a very good Christian." Here he made himself acceptable to his hosts by telling their fortunes, becoming, he says, a "gipsy among the savages." Here is his account of the natives, who were always at war with the English:

"They live in huts made of straw. The men have big bodies, their features and limbs are well made, and they are as agile as deer. They eat but one meal a day, and their ordinary food is oaten bread and butter. They drink sour milk, as they have no other beverage, but no water, although it is the best in the world. They dress in tight breeches and goatskin jack-

ets cut short but very big, and wear their hair down to their eyes."

Every Catholic appears to have been an enemy in the eyes of the English, and such civilization as the Catholic Church had introduced among the savages had been obliterated, for "almost all their churches, monasteries, and hermitages have been destroyed by the soldiers from the English garrisons." Cuellar escaped at last to Scotland and thence to Holland. This interesting and admirably printed little book is most creditable to both translator and publisher.

Mr. Todhunter's 'Life of Sarsfield' is a good addition to the New Irish Library. It is, however, rather an account of the Jacobite wars in Ireland than a biography of Sarsfield, for but little is known of the details of his life. He was a loyal, gallant soldier, and a devoted lover of his country. Born in Ireland and educated in France, he first saw war in the service of Louis XIV. Rumor says that he was one of the "Gentlemen of the Guard" of Charles II. The accession of James II. brought him into active service, and he took part in the battle of Sedgemoor in 1685. He remained faithful to James when all the leading English soldiers joined William of Orange, and landed at Kinsale in 1689 with James's Court. He sat in the "Patriot Parliament" as member for Dublin; and while William's forces occupied the northeast of Ireland, he preserved Connaught for the King. At the battles of the Boyne and Aughrim Sarsfield was present, but took no prominent part; his name is chiefly connected with the two sieges of Limerick, where, though not in command, he was the life and soul of the Irish party. At both the defence was heroic, and though the terms of capitulation were not observed by the English, it was due to the stubborn defence that they were secured. Sarsfield, created Earl of Lucan by James and a marshal of France by Louis, died at Landen fighting against William of Orange. Whether true or not, what are said to have been his last words as the blood flowed from a mortal wound, are characteristic of the man: "Would to God this were shed for Ireland."

The greater part of this book is occupied by a general account of the campaigns between James and William, and conveys a very clear conception of the various battles and sieges with the exception of that of Derry, which does not come into the plan of the work.

FOLK-LORE, TALES AND FABLES.

An Introduction to Folk Lore. By Marian Roalfe Cox. London: David Nutt; New York: Scribners. 1895. 8vo, pp. xv, 320.

Snow Bird and the Water Tiger, and other American Indian Tales. By Margaret Compton. With drawings by Walter Conant Greenough. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 201.

Natural History Lore and Legend. By F. Edward Hulme. London: B. Quaritch. 1895. 8vo, pp. 350.

Fables and Fabulists, Ancient and Modern. By Thomas Newbigging. Frederic A. Stokes Co. 8vo, pp. 152.

In spite of the large number of works in every department of folk-lore published within the last few years, no general treatise on the whole subject for the general reader has appeared until Miss Cox's book. As the author herself states, "This little book pretends without arrogance to answer a question not infrequently heard, namely: What is folk-lore?" The standpoint is exclusively the anthropological one elaborated by Tylor, Lang, Frazer, and Hartland, and the explanations of other schools are only glanced at. No fault can be found with this, for, whatever may be the shortcomings of the anthropological theory, it is the best working hypothesis yet advanced, and without it the great work in this department of research could hardly have been produced. It needed the human interest of anthropology to impart a fresh charm to the old myths, and to afford the connecting link between myth, ritual, and religion. Miss Cox begins, in an introductory chapter, with the primitive savagery of man, and gives instances of the survival of savage belief in habitual expressions and irrational practices of the civilized. The most important features of folk-lore are then grouped and discussed in six chapters, treating of the Separable Soul, Animal Ancestors, Animism—Ghosts and Gods, the Other-World, Magic and Myths, Folk-Tales, etc.

The author is herself a distinguished folk-lorist, having published through the English Folk-Lore Society an admirable monograph on the story of Cinderella, and is well equipped for her present work. She has not, however, wholly avoided a difficulty almost inseparable from the theory she advocates. One of the main arguments of the theory being universality of observance, a large number of illustrations gleaned from all parts of the world become necessary. These, however, are apt to obscure the point in question, and the repetition of the same details becomes tiresome. In works like those of Frazer and Hartland this is unavoidable; but in works intended for the general reader a judicious relegation of a certain number of examples to the footnotes would be wise. In spite of this, Miss Cox has made an eminently readable and valuable work. The selected list of books at the end is inadequate, and should be replaced in a subsequent edition by a classified list, which might profitably be made part of an appendix on methods of study in the field of folk-lore.

After the scientific collection of folk-tales comes their rewriting for the general public. In the original the characters are often unnamed and the incidents are narrated in the baldest form. It was a happy idea, therefore, for Miss Compton to present a certain number of American Indian tales for the amusement of the young, and she has executed her task so as to produce a pleasant and entertaining volume. Unfortunately she does not mention her sources otherwise than to state that "she has had access to Government reports of Indian life, upon which and the folk-lore contained in the standard works of Schoolcraft, Copway, and Catlin these stories are founded." This delightfully vague acknowledgment will arouse the ire of the conscientious reviewer, who feels that where materials are borrowed an exact statement at least of the whereabouts of the original matter should be made. The present reviewer has had time to look up but a few of the unnamed sources, and mentions them for the benefit of others who may like to know whether the book is trustworthy or not. The story of "The Bended Rocks," p. 57, is from 'Myths of the Iroquois,' by Erminnie A. Smith (Smithsonian Institution, Bureau of Ethnology, vol. ii., 1883, pp. 48–116), p. 54. "The Great Head," p. 115, is from the same collection, p. 59, as is (p. 100) "The Island of Skeletons," p. 143. "The Great Wizard," p. 169, is partly from the same collection, p. 69. A comparison of the above stories with the originals shows that Miss Compton has made skilful use of her materials, and has introduced no important or incongruous changes, but has preserved very successfully the spirit of the original, and produced a version much better suited to those whose interests are literary and not scientific.

It is difficult to explain the use of such a work as Mr. Hulme's, or to determine the class of readers for whom it is intended. It seems like the stray notes of a scientist who has amused his leisure hours in turning over the pages of old works on natural history, and is surprised that they contain anything approaching the truth. The author's object is stated in the following words: "We propose to consider at some little length the state of zoological knowledge in the Middle Ages," and the title page expressly says "examples—gathered in from divers authorities, ancient and mediæval." It is remarkable, then, to find that the first work cited was published in 1565, and that the majority of the books quoted are of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and even eighteenth centuries. There is very little that is mediæval in the volume beyond occasional references to the Beast books, and these are altogether inadequately treated. An orderly account of mediæval zoölogy would be valuable and interesting, and we believe does not exist in English, although the Germans have an excellent work of that nature by Carus. The book before us deals with animals real and mythical; and pygmies, mermaids, wehrwolves, lions, elephants, bears, the phœnix, roc, barnacle goose, basilisk, salamander, and leviathan crowd each other in these desultory pages. It would be wrong to give the impression that the book is entirely valueless or uninteresting. Many quaint conceits may be found scattered through it, and the reader will have another proof of the universality of Shakspere, whose references to the zoölogical beliefs of his day are cited on every page of the present work.

Mr. Newbigging has attempted to do for the fable what Archbishop Trench did for the proverb in his charming lectures on 'Proverbs, and their Lessons.' The result is a very readable little book, marred, unfortunately, by superficiality and inaccuracy. The first part, in which the author defines and characterizes the fable and discusses its moral and lessons, is the best. The historical résumé which follows is slight and inadequate. This is especially the case with the lists on pages 128–129. The mediæval French fabulist is usually known as Marie (and not Maria) de France, Fénelon is not generally termed the Abbé Fénelon. The ancient "fabulists," on p. 128, are all mediæval, and one, Poggio, is of the fifteenth century. There are many misprints in the list: Boursalt for Boursault, Guinguene for Guinguené, Armoult for Arnault. Le Grand, on the same page, is probably intended for the Legrand d'Aussy, editor of the French fabliaux, etc. The name of La Motte is omitted from the list of French fabulists, and there are other omissions. La Fontaine died April 13, 1695, and not March 15, as the author states in the text, or February 13, as in the note, on the authority of "Gerusez" (Gérusez.) There is also a brief account at the end of the volume of the modern illustrators of fables.

Antonio Allegri da Correggio; His Life, his Friends, and his Time. By Corrado Ricci. From the Italian by Florence Simmonds. London: Wm. Heinemann; New York: Scribners. 4to, pp. xxii, 408. 1895.

The form in which Dr. Ricci's 'Correggio' is presented makes its publisher's intention ob-

vious. The elegance of the binding, the attractive pages, the pretty illustrations, were evidently designed for the public which, once a season, loves to buy a book wherewith to adorn the parlor table. To this public we cannot too highly recommend it. They will delight in the reproductions in green, blue, yellow, brown, pink, violet, and other colors, primary and derived, which have been employed with a justice most laudable, although, in truth, we are reminded of the proverb that Justice is blind. But the more esoteric art-lover will be disappointed with this publication when it falls into his hands. His eyes will be annoyed by the rainbow splendor of the illustrations, and his memory shocked by their faithlessness. We venture to say that, excepting the frontispiece, not one of the illustrations does the original even mediocre credit; while many are positively libellous, as, for instance, the reproduction of Lord Ashburnham's altar-piece, of the Uffizi pictures, the Hampton Court "Madonna," and the "Ecce Homo" of the National Gallery. Few of the reproductions in the text are clear enough to be of use to students, and the photogravures, when not already spoiled by being printed in color, are valueless from loss of modelling. For the student, we may here say parenthetically, two kinds of books, and two only, have a purpose: cheap books, with unpretentious illustrations intended as mere mnemonics; or works *de grand luxe*, with faultless reproductions. For him, the present 'Correggio' has scarcely any utility; it will not save him from buying the photographs; and for the price of the present volume he could buy most of the photographs themselves, so much better than any possible reproductions after them. We regret, in this connection, to have to rectify a slight misstatement. The publisher announces on the back of the title-page that the Hampton Court "Madonna" and Lord Ashburnham's altar-piece are here reproduced for the first time. They have already appeared in much better form in the 'Illustrated Catalogue of Works of the School of Ferrara-Bologna,' Burlington Fine Arts Club, 1894. And now, having expressed our disappointment with the publisher's part of the undertaking, let us turn to the somewhat pleasanter task of examining the author's share.

Dr. Ricci had before him a problem of exceeding simplicity. Correggio has not been a neglected artist, and few problems of a technical nature regarding his career have remained unsolved. To speak only of more important writers, Pungileoni, Meyer, and Morelli have done all the preliminary work. Morelli did even more: he made clear, to the satisfaction of all competent critics, from just what branch of the secular tree of Italian art Correggio had sprung, thus putting into the hands of the future writer the most essential of all data for the study of the artist's development. There was, in short, no lack of material, and no need for controversy, since, excepting the few writers who in every field of research are bound to lag behind, a happy concord reigned on the subject of Correggio. Dr. Ricci had therefore a splendid opportunity. Availing himself of all the material ready for use, he might have written a monograph on Correggio that would have reconstructed his artistic personality, and painted his imaginary portrait for the eternal delectation of those who love art and are led to its enjoyment by sympathetic interpretation and *le mot juste*. Perhaps Dr. Ricci felt himself unfit for this task—indeed, his chapter on "Correggio's Genius," although betraying that the writer was at times aware of Correggio's master quality, is prolix, meandering, and never penetratingly illuminating. At all events, Dr. Ricci has declined the undertaking.

He would have us believe that he, too, has new material to contribute to the subject, and to some slight degree this is the case. Dr. Ricci is among the first to draw attention to the fact that the town of Correggio, where Antonio Allegri was born and brought up, was by no means the least in the region of Emilia, but that, on the contrary, it was a seat of culture. Dr. Ricci had already said all that needed saying on this subject in a short essay in his charming volume 'Santi ed Artisti.' But, led astray by the superstition that a writer on art must needs add new facts, he makes much of this small contribution in the volume before us. Dr. Ricci revels in "environment" as if he had discovered it but yesterday. A chapter romantically entitled "The Two Princesses" is wholly devoted to a lyrical account of Veronica Gambara and Beatrice d'Este, two great ladies with whom Correggio was probably on terms of distant acquaintance. Our author still labors under the delusion that it is necessary to give florid descriptions—"moral, political, social, and religious"—of every spot for which Correggio painted a picture, and of every person who employed him. All this, however, is interesting, and even pertinent, compared with the refutation of foolish pedants long dead, and with the scores of pages devoted by the author to a chronicle of the romantic vicissitudes undergone by Correggio's still existing works, and to thrilling accounts of how the others miserably perished. To be brief, Dr. Ricci had the chance of giving us an imaginary portrait of Correggio such as the late Mr. Pater left of Plato. Fancy, however, instead of that volume of subtle, illuminating, and cultivating interpretation, a book most of which was filled up with accounts of the various manuscripts and how they came down to us, with rhapsodies on Athens, Megara, and Syracuse, on Dion and Diotima and Dionysus, and you will have a fair notion of what Dr. Ricci has achieved in his volume on Correggio.

Happily, for the comparatively few pages wherein he is writing of Correggio the artist, we have little but praise. His estimates are rarely wrong; in controversy, almost without exception on the right side. In spite of all our reservations, Dr. Ricci's 'Correggio' is the ablest monograph on any single painter that has yet been written by an Italian. And we could wish to end on this note, but unfortunately the translation does not permit it. A translator from Italian into English should bear in mind, as this translator has not done, that the sonorous and vowelled nature of the one language allows of phraseology which, translated literally into the other, sounds like so much balderdash. Once in a while, the sense even is not quite clear. "Other writers of artistic syntheses" is a queer phrase. Mantegna is almost invariably spoken of as "the great Vincenzan." We protest that if we must write Gibbonese, the word should at least be *Vicenzan*. The translator seems unacquainted with the simple English word "works," and insists on speaking, to our great discomfort, of "Correggio's *œuvres*." A fault of constant recurrence, to which we must draw particular attention, is the use of plurals like "Gonzaghi," "Malatesti," "Sforzi"—plurals which, of course, are not English, and certainly not Italian. When possible, proper names should be Englished: Gonzagas, Malatestas, Sforzas—why not?

Chronicles of Uganda. By the Rev. R. P. Ashe. With portrait and 26 illustrations. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 480, 8vo.

THE future historian of Uganda will not suffer from lack of original material for his account of the events immediately preceding the establishment of the British protectorate in that country. The official part is fully shown in the report of Sir Gerald Portal and the recently published work of Capt. Lugard. The French missionaries have given their version to the world through the Catholic Union of Great Britain. The native point of view is to be found in the 'Wars of the Ba-ganda,' a work written in the language of Uganda by the present Prime Minister, a prominent actor in the events which he describes. Of the accounts written from the standpoint of the English missionaries the 'Chronicles' of Mr. Ashe is the latest and most authoritative. A resident in the country for the greater part of the ten years preceding 1893, he has been a close observer of events and an eye-witness of many of the most important. But the main object of his book is apparently not so much to narrate the history of the religious wars as to criticise the accounts of other writers, and refute their statements when they seem to conflict with the truth. It should be said, however, that though he severely condemns much of the policy and action both of the English officers and of the French missionaries, no personal hostility towards them is to be detected. He takes frequent occasion to commend the energy and courage of Capt. Lugard and his associates, and bears pleasant testimony to the unbroken friendly intercourse between the representatives of the two great churches of Rome and England.

It is too soon to write a perfectly impartial and trustworthy history of the events of Mwanga's troubled reign, but one or two things are plain from Mr. Ashe's narrative. The most important is the utter impotency of a trading company to deal with the situation which existed in Uganda when the Imperial British East Africa Company appeared on the scene. Had Capt. Lugard possessed the ability of a Warren Hastings, he could not have succeeded in maintaining peace between the hostile factions into which the people were divided, considering the small force at his disposal, the anomalous position which he occupied, and the uncertainty which characterized the action of the British Government in regard to the evacuation or retention of Uganda. It is no less evident that the French priests, who came two years after the English missionaries, were in fact, though possibly unconsciously, political agents, who used every means in their power to bring the kingdom under the influence of France. This fact renders the much-lauded policy of neutrality towards the Catholic and Protestant natives assumed by the company's officers absurd and impossible to be maintained, since these gentlemen were in the country simply to confirm the supremacy of England. We cannot speak so confidently of the other actions of these officials condemned by Mr. Ashe, the bringing into Uganda the remnants of Emin Pasha's Sudanese garrisons, the war against King Unyoro, and other minor hostile expeditions in which the Maxim gun played a conspicuous and deadly part. They seem, however, to have been the unfortunate results of an unwillingness to profit by the knowledge and experience of the missionaries in dealing with the natives and a curious contempt for their judgment.

In the course of his interesting narrative

Mr. Ashe gives many striking pictures of scenes and incidents which throw much light on the life and customs of the Ba-ganda. Among these is a short reference to Lubareism, the national religion of the country. This consists partly of hero-worship, and the mummies of two of their ancient heroes are still carefully preserved and guarded by virgin priestesses honored as their wives.

"Budo is the corpse of a gigantic man wrapped in bark cloth, all except the head, which is bare. He has long hair, and his eyes are closed, and he is in a sitting posture. . . . On certain days drums are beaten, when he is brought from behind the curtains to hold a reception in his temple, at which the neighboring chiefs and important people attend."

In the opening and closing chapters the author describes his last journey to and from the coast. Among its noteworthy incidents was one which at that time was probably unique in the annals of African travel. Mr. Ashe was riding a bicycle on a native footpath far ahead of his porters when his

"attention was suddenly attracted by hearing some large animals galloping by my side. I was marking my path carefully at the time, but, on looking to my right hand, where the animals were, I discovered that the creatures which were accompanying me were three magnificent lions. Though I had heard the roar of lions close at hand in the darkness I had never before seen one face to face. My novel companions kept up with me, going parallel with me for about a hundred yards. They were distant some twenty or thirty yards. Presently they stood still, looked at me for a moment, and then slowly bounded off at a right angle, from time to time stopping and looking back, till they finally disappeared in the long grass, while I held on my way."

There are a number of illustrations, among the most interesting being views of the great church at Mengo, finished in 1892, whose thatched roof, forty feet high along the ridge pole, is supported by some three hundred tree-trunks.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Chamberlain, B. H., and Mason, W. B. A Handbook for Travellers in Japan. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
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Guiney, Louise I. Lovers' Saint Ruth's, and Other Tales. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 30, 1896.

The Week.

THE outcome of the Government loan for $100,000,000 seems to be something like this: The "popular" branch of it will fall considerably short of making up the total. These bids are coming in from day to day, but the public cannot know what they amount to until the 5th of February. Although the Morgan syndicate has been dissolved, some of the members have put in bids for a part of the loan, and others stand ready to take what is left. Whether any part of the loan goes abroad will depend upon the price at which this remainder can be bought. Some of the bidders in the "popular" branch are vociferously demanding that the Government itself fix a price on the bonds, although they have been offered to highest bidder not less than par. Unfortunately, this cannot be done. The Secretary may reject any or all bids, but that does not enable him to issue a general order to A, B, and C to come up and take the bonds at any price he chooses to fix upon them. Moreover, some people, moved by what they call patriotism, or a desire for notoriety, will put in bids for small amounts at rates equal to a 3 per cent. loan, while the money market in general declines to lend at that rate. Then there will be a certain amount of "squealing," as often happens in Wall Street when the speculators find themselves loaded with stocks that they cannot get rid of without loss.

We assume that the whole $100,000,000 will be taken at rates varying somewhat, but not below that which the syndicate was prepared to bid. The next question is whether that sum will suffice. In the absence of any new disturbance, such as another war scare or a tidal wave of silver lunacy, which is not to be looked for, it is probable that this loan will carry us beyond the Presidential election. It is not to be assumed, however, that it will put the gold reserve permanently beyond danger. We must remember that three bond sales have taken place previously for this same purpose, amounting in the aggregate to $162,000,000. The plan proposed by the syndicate, to take $100,000,000 firm and give the Government the option of $100,000,000 more, was much the best, because that would have quieted all apprehensions and have given time for business interests to make plans for the future. This was and is the immediate problem of finance, the remoter one being some method of relieving the Government of the necessity of providing and maintaining the gold reserve of commerce. The "popular" loan which intervened, although politically unavoidable, was financially a mistake.

The Treasury officials say they are much puzzled over the falling off in internal-revenue receipts, particularly in the returns from the tax on whiskey. This tax the new law increased from 90 cents a gallon to $1.10. It was a simple sum in arithmetic for our wise legislators to figure out that an increase of 20 per cent. in the tax would necessarily mean an increase of 20 per cent. in the revenue. Nothing could be clearer than that. No, nothing could be clearer, except that it has been proved over and over again in fiscal experience that such expectations are never realized. Taxes cut in two sometimes double the revenue, but taxes doubled usually come nearer to halving the revenue. Ever since William Pitt's day this has been almost axiomatic with English Chancellors of the Exchequer. It should have been axiomatic in this country at least ever since Mr. Wells's practical demonstrations in this very matter of the whiskey tax. But no, our cheerful legislators are never so cheerful as when disregarding all human experience in finance and taxation. They violate well-known laws, and, when they get hurt, look around with a half-pained, half-angry air, and say, "Hang it all! Who would have thought the thing would work in this way?" The classical authority in American taxation is not Turgot, or Adam Smith, or Pitt, or Gladstone, or Wells, or McCulloch, but the Congressman with his famous dictum, "Do not tell me that a government which has put down a great rebellion cannot collect a tax of two dollars a gallon on whiskey!" But it couldn't, and the tax of $1.10, laid with similar patriotic snorts, appears to be falling into line with universal experience in the most disgusting way.

The chaplain of the House continues his blasphemous prayers. As a way of calling the Almighty's attention to the wickedness of Jones of Nevada in "holding up" the tariff bill in the Senate finance committee, he "prayed" last week for "additional protection to American manufacturers," so that they might "put an end to the privations of American workingmen." Washington correspondents are making merry over the chaplain's performances, and they surely can plead that there is a difference between laughing at religion and laughing at those who make religion ridiculous. But the thing has already passed beyond the stage of ridicule, and become a question of how to put an end to sacrilege. What is the use of talking of a great cathedral in Washington, if this spectacle of hideous impiety is to be allowed in the national legislature? It is high time that "the church vote" made itself felt, in connection with this public scandal, not to let the Jingo vote, the high-tariff vote, the Cuban vote, the generally quarrelsome and repulsive and underbred and Heaven-defying vote, have everything their own way in congressional devotions.

Quorum-counting by the Speaker has now been quietly abandoned by the Speaker who introduced it without authority, and who gloried in it throughout the Fifty-first Congress as his chief title to fame and all the good things that go with fame. Mr. Reed's offence in 1890 was, as Mr. Crisp pointed out on Thursday, not in counting a quorum after the rules of the House authorized him to do so, but in seizing the power to do so before the rules were adopted. In short, he usurped authority in order to get a rule giving him authority. But even that rule he now throws over, thereby practically confessing that it could not be made to work without gross unfairness and mistakes, and goes back to a form of the rule first proposed years ago by a Democratic Congressman, Mr. Tucker. Under the rule as now adopted, the sergeant-at-arms is to bring in absent members, and their presence is to be noted by the clerk on the roll-call. Thereafter they are to be considered as present and helping to make a quorum even if they refuse to vote. This is a very different thing from letting the Speaker's fallible eye wander about, guessing who is in the cloak-rooms and corridors, and counting as present members who were (as happened more than once in 1890) in the opposite end of Washington or actually in Baltimore. The new method is certain to be more orderly and accurate, and its adoption with so little clamor, with the quiet handing over to oblivion of the great constitutional right of the Speaker to do the counting himself, probably marks a general acquiescence in it as the best solution of the difficulty.

It would be well if the tomfoolery which goes on at Washington never took a more harmful guise than that which the *Congressional Record* of January 20 presents, ten pages of which are occupied with facts sent in by the President in answer to the House resolutions calling for information touching certain speeches made by Thomas F. Bayard in England. First we have a letter from Mr. Olney, enclosing one from Mr. Bayard, enclosing his speech of November 7, 1895, before the Edinburgh Philosophical Society. The speech, he says, was made to a society of a non-political character, which society had been addressed by his predecessors in office, Mr. Lowell and Mr. Phelps, in response to invitations. The opinions

expressed, Mr. Bayard says, are his opinions, "formed by me after careful deliberation." He adds ominously that "when Congress shall have concluded its action on the subject, it is possible that I may desire to submit a further statement." The speech itself is then printed at length, filling eight columns of the *Record*. That comes under date London, December 12, but is only the beginning. Under date of January 3 a cable despatch was sent by Olney to Bayard saying that the House wanted information about an earlier speech, which referred to the President as one who "stood in the midst of a strong, self-confident, and oftentimes violent people—men who sought to have their own way." The speech referred to, Mr. Bayard says, was delivered at the opening of the Boston Grammar School in August last. He tells what the Boston Grammar School is, and how he was invited to attend the opening exercises, and how he joined the others in a dinner after the exercises, where toasts were given and responded to extemporaneously, he being one of the responders. Then he encloses a newspaper containing a report of the whole proceedings, including a list of the scholars who took prizes, reports of the examinations in the classics and mathematics, all the speeches, including his own, to the extent of fourteen columns of the *Record*. We hope that the House will derive profit from this report. By giving their entire time to it for the remainder of the session they would relieve the country very much.

The two Senators from the new State of Utah were sworn in on Monday, and the seats in the upper branch are now all filled, except one from Delaware, which will doubtless soon be awarded to the Republican claimant. The full Senate now consists of ninety members—almost twice as many as sixty years ago, and one-third more than at the outbreak of the civil war, while almost one-sixth have come in during the last half-dozen years. The Senate was never so large a body as now, and it never stood lower in the public esteem. The most striking feature in the development of Congress during the past quarter of a century, and particularly during the last ten years, has been the steady and of late rapid decline in the Senate, as compared both with its own past and with the House of Representatives at the present time. Until a comparatively recent period, the upper branch of Congress maintained to a great extent its ancient hold upon the public mind as a far more dignified, conservative, and able body than the House—a body which could be trusted to resist a popular craze, as in 1868 it defeated the wild scheme for deposing Andrew Johnson through an abuse of the impeachment power. This position has now been entirely forfeited. The Senate to-day is a less conservative body than the House, and it is more easily carried for any wild scheme. Not only has it lost its old hold upon the public, but it is regarded with a growing contempt.

Mr. Sewell of New Jersey is one of the last members of the Senate from whom the country is wont to expect either the presentation of a notable proposition or an argument that deserves attention. But the anti-Jingo resolution which he introduced a fortnight ago was striking in itself, and it was supported last week in a speech that was full of good sense and sound reasoning. The New Jersey Senator began by tracing the origin of the Monroe Doctrine and setting forth the limitations that were then put upon it, in contrast with the attempts now made to extend it over half the globe. He pointed out that the position taken by the President and the Secretary of State in the Venezuelan matter "practically means that this Government must assume a protectorate over Mexico, Central America, and all the South American states, and that, no matter whether these states be right or wrong, in any case of a conflict with a European Power we pledge ourselves as an ally to furnish men and munitions of war, and force enough to protect the weaker American Power against the stronger European Power." What such a policy would mean in the case of Venezuela he shrewdly showed by quoting the remark of Mr. Olney in his correspondence, that "in 1848 Venezuela entered upon a period of civil commotions, which lasted for more than a quarter of a century, and the negotiations thus interrupted in 1844 were not resumed until 1876."

The closing passages of Mr. Sewell's speech were rendered particularly noteworthy by the fact that he showed some perception of the condition of the country, and of the folly of unnecessarily precipitating an international controversy now—and such an attitude of mind has unhappily become a rarity in the Senate. He expressed his conviction that a matter which has been slumbering so many years in a state of diplomatic repose might have been delayed at least a few months longer, and reminded his colleagues that "if we address ourselves to the proper ordering of our domestic economies, we have quite enough now to engage our full time, and upon which to exert our best mental energies." While believing that the executive ought to uphold the honor of the nation, he holds that "we have a right to expect that discretion and good judgment will be exercised in bringing to a culmination an issue so grave and serious as that now presented," and he pronounced the President's action "in this respect alike unseasonable and premature," in view of the facts that the country is yet "in a state of convalescence from the financial malady of 1893," and that "the still unsettled and troublous condition of its financial affairs is too strongly in evidence to warrant the putting of any further unnecessary strain upon it." In short, Mr. Sewell's speech was full of words of truth and soberness. The wonder is that the Shermans and Morrills and other veterans of the Senate should have left the utterance of such words to a member whose standing does not lend them the added weight that they would receive coming from a leader of national reputation and influence.

Senator Frye of Maine is a nice man to make an uproar about the Armenian massacres. He is the calm, sensible legislator who expressed his regret that Spain apologized for the *Alliança* incident. War for war's sake has no warmer friend, and war produces everywhere the state of things which we are deploring in Armenia. It makes widows and orphans by the thousand; it destroys towns, cities, and villages, and spreads famine and pestilence and destroys crops, and in fact reduces the seat of operations to the condition in which Armenia is to-day. Part of the reluctance of the Powers to tackle the Turk is due to the dread of reducing large regions of Europe to a similar condition. This is not an unworthy fear. Of course it is a reproach to our civilization that there should be any occasion for it—that the Powers should not be able to agree to abate the terrible nuisance known as Turkey without falling out among themselves; but we who are afraid that an agreement between Great Britain and Venezuela about a boundary line may endanger our institutions, are hardly in a position to find fault with them. Every country contains its Jingoes, and there is nothing like the Jingo imagination for detecting danger from foreign machinations. If the Powers had one-quarter the suspicion of each other that an American Jingo has of Great Britain, they would be fighting like demons all the time. The way our Senate is going on just now, without either army or navy, gives one, we fear, but a faint idea of the way it would go on in meddling, threatening, and "claiming" if it had the great navy which so many of us are longing for. Fancy such an instrument of destruction in the hands of men like Senators Frye and Morgan and Davis. The true responsibility for what is happening in Armenia rests with Russia and Germany—with Russia for not offering to restore order in Armenia under a "mandate," as the French did in Greece in 1828, and in Syria in 1860, and Austria in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1877; and Germany for not sustaining England in the recent demonstrations. The notion that we can apply pressure to the Porte which England cannot or will not apply, is one of the whimsies of the day.

The Boston *Herald* says:

"Some of the greatest men of our country have had this habit of drinking heavily—it has gone into history as a weakness in their cha-

racters; but when there has been no public display, the mantle of charity has been cast over it by their contemporaries. It is better to answer the argument of Senator Morgan than to abuse him for his personal habits."

Well, the "mantle of charity" was grossly misused when it was cast over this "weakness." Anyhow, whatever excuse a public man may have had for "drinking heavily" fifty years ago, he has none to-day. If he cannot stop it, he ought to get out of public life. It is preposterous to make abstinence a condition of employment in an engineer of a locomotive, or in a captain of a liner, and allow a statesman whose blunders may any day bring on a bloody war, to get drunk as often as he pleases and then whine for the "mantle of charity." We believe we are the only civilized people to-day who allow men high in office to roll in the gutter with impunity. In the early part of the century it was not so. Everybody got drunk occasionally. But there has been an immense change in manners since then, and the nation ought to get the benefit of it, as well as railroads, steamboats, and factories. It is monstrous that drunkards should be incapacitated for every service but the public service. As to Senator Morgan's "arguments," we shall answer them when we see them. We know of none at present. With his blatherskite we are very familiar, but blatherskite is not refutable.

Commodore Sicard made some remarks last Thursday about the condition of our navy which are likely to call down upon him the rebukes of the Jingoes who are eager for immediate war with England:

"The ships we have so far are good ones, but we really are only upon the threshold of the development of such a navy as we should have. We have a number of good cruisers, but it is the battle-ships that are really necessary in war. We need about fifteen or twenty more ships—good battle-ships. It takes four or five years to build a battle-ship, and that is time enough to be beaten many times over."

Lodge and Chandler ought to introduce a resolution at once expressing in stern terms their disapproval of a naval officer who will admit that we have only the beginning of a navy, that cruisers are really of small account in a war, and that before we could get an efficient navy constructed we might be "beaten many times over." What Commodore Sicard says is, it is true, what every competent and frank naval officer has been saying in private for weeks past; but what do the Jingo warriors care about that? Naval officers are aware that cruisers would be of small use to us in a war with England, because the two nations which sell coal are England and America, and our cruisers would not be able to replenish their supply if they were to get away from American ports. They know also that what is needed to protect American seaboard cities is battle-ships, of which we have only a few at present, and these would offer small resistance to England's powerful ships. But what do the Jingoes care for little things like these? They do not propose to fight, but to stay at home and read about the war in the "extras." They believe that war is necessary "to develop the manhood of the nation"; but it is not their manhood which needs development, but that of some other fellow. Theirs is all right. It flinches at no danger which somebody else will have to encounter.

The coming season ought to be an unusually profitable one for the ocean steamship companies, as there is to be an immense and enforced emigration of Americans. Already the numbers are portentously large of those upon whom notice has been served by the Jingo press that they cannot stay in this country, but must go at once to England, where they belong; and the list is extending every day. The college professors as a body will have to go, under the terms of this new alien and sedition act, together with the great majority of the clergy, the Chamber of Commerce, most merchants and bankers, and a few (we are thankful to say only a few) editors. It appears to-day that the "pro-English party" is now in the majority in the United States Senate, prepared to side-track the Davis resolutions. So at least fifty Senators will have to emigrate. The House foreign affairs committee is pro-English too, and of course must go also, along with the Speaker and a majority of the House. All these classes come, by their actions, under the head of "pernicious foreigners" whom newspapers have the constitutional right to expel the country on thirty days' notice. In a crisis like the present they only weaken us. We must offer a united front to the enemy. We must not allow foreigners to suspect for a moment that there is a single man in this country who ever thinks, or asks the reason why he must do and die, or does anything but bellow and foam at the mouth.

Nobody will be surprised to learn that the McKinley boom is encountering obstacles in Ohio. All his enemies among the Republican managers in his State, and they are neither few nor weak, have declared over and over again that they are for Ohio's Favorite Son, heart and soul, and yet McKinley is not happy nor are his friends at ease. The radical trouble seems to be that no Republican politician in Ohio trusts any other Republican politician, and all of them expect "treachery" as a matter of course. Foraker, for example, has taken occasion publicly to declare that Ohio must support McKinley with enthusiasm, and yet McKinley organs announce that "ill-advised persons" in various sections of Ohio who "pretend to be friends of Foraker" are seeking to "inject him into the Presidential race." Wicked Democratic organs go much further, and insist that Foraker is bent on "knifing" McKinley, and that the Ohio delegation to the St. Louis convention will be made up of men who will shout for McKinley in public, but will drop him the first moment they can find any excuse. At best the situation is not promising for "the logical candidate"; at worst, his chances of getting the nomination will be no better than Sherman's have so often proved to be.

The inaugural address of the new Governor of New Jersey would be a striking document in itself, even if had not the advantage of being in such sharp contrast with the floods of inanity or folly with which other governors have been inundating their Legislatures. Mr. Griggs's description of the plague of over-legislation from which New Jersey (and, he might have said, every State and the whole nation) is suffering, strikes home. The mass of hasty, ill-considered, ill-expressed, and conflicting laws on all subjects that stuffs the general statutes is appalling. No lawyer can find his way through the jungle; the courts can but contradict each other and themselves in interpreting the hotch-potch. When the general statutes of New Jersey, under a Constitution supposed to prevent all special or class legislation, fill three large volumes of 1,000 pages each—or twice as much space as the revised statutes of the United States—the greatness of the evil is apparent. Nothing but endless litigation, uncertainty, waste, destruction of property, and contempt for government and courts can result from this huge conflict of laws. Against the general and pernicious superstition that all the ills of humanity can be cured by law, Gov. Griggs squarely arrays himself, and flatly says that he will veto every law which has not some positive and convincing reasons to justify it. Laws enacted out of mutual complacence will find no toleration from him, he serves notice.

For years the sugar interests of the Argentine Republic have enjoyed the benefit of a high protective tariff on imported sugars. With cane cheaper than in any other country, with no duty to pay on imported machinery, and with labor under perfect control at low wages, the price of sugar in that country has been more than double the cost of the imported article minus the duty. This condition of things naturally caused overproduction until the demand was exceeded by many thousand tons. To avert the logical result—a lowering of prices—the sugar-makers are forced to export and dispose of their surplus in the open market. To recoup them for the loss involved, a pliant minister of finance has considerately submitted to the Chambers a project to levy an internal tax of 4 cents a kilogramme on all sugars sold in the republic, and to devote the fund so acquired to a bounty of 12 cents a kilogramme to the producers for every kilogramme exported. Here we have the doctrine of protection "developed" with the severe logic of an Olney mind getting out of a doctrine "all there is in it."

THE "DOCTRINE."

Now that we are nearing the close of the Jingo craze, it is impossible for the calm observer to avoid the conclusion that it owed much of its gravity and extent to the fashion of calling the policy recommended by President Monroe by the name of "doctrine." When it was first called a "doctrine," we are not yet able to say with positiveness, but it was apparently long after 1823. The expression was not used during the discussion in Congress of a proposition to send delegates to the Panama Congress in 1826, which involved frequent references to Mr. Monroe's statement. A passage in a speech of Daniel Webster's made on April 14, in the course of that debate, shows that the term "doctrine" had not then become fixed, and that there was in Mr. Webster's mind, and probably in that of the public, a clear appreciation of the fact that President Monroe was not teaching a doctrine, but was making a declaration of policy with regard to our own interests exclusively, when he issued his celebrated message. Here it is, and we have italicized the expressions which confirm our view:

"It is, doubtless, true, as I took occasion to observe the other day, that this *declaration* must be considered as founded on our rights, and to spring mainly from a regard to their preservation. It did not commit us, at all events, to take up arms on any indication of hostile feeling by the Powers of Europe towards South America. If, for example, all the States of Europe had refused to trade with South America until her states should return to their former allegiance, that would have furnished no cause of interference to us. Or, if an armament had been furnished by the Allies to act against provinces the most remote from us, as Chili or Buenos Ayres, the distance of the scene of action, *diminishing our apprehension of danger*, and diminishing, also, *our means of effectual interposition*, might still have left us to content ourselves with remonstrance. But a very different case would have arisen if an army, equipped and maintained by these Powers, had been landed on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, and commenced the war in our own immediate neighborhood. Such an event might justly be regarded as *dangerous to ourselves*, and, on that ground, to have called for decided and immediate interference by us. The sentiments and *the policy* announced by the *declaration* thus understood were, therefore, in strict conformity to our duties and *our interests*."

In 1848 President Polk sent to Congress a message, regarding affairs in Yucatan, which provoked a debate that involved frequent references to Mr. Monroe's position, and in this debate we find the expression "doctrine" used more than once. "The President," said Mr. Holmes of South Carolina, "had taken the opportunity of reiterating a doctrine which was said to be the doctrine of Mr. Monroe; and there never was a more inappropriate time for the assertion of that doctrine, even if it did apply." Mr. Bagby of Alabama "did not think that the doctrine contained in the declaration of Mr. Monroe either sanctioned or discountenanced this measure." But even at that time doctrine was not universally accepted as the proper term, and Mr. Root of New York referred to an assertion that "Mr. Monroe had committed us by his declaration in 1823." Whether called a declaration or a doctrine, it had not yet acquired the sacroscant character now ascribed to it. Mr. Root declared that Mr. Monroe had no authority to commit succeeding generations by his declaration, and even went so far as flippantly to remark: "It was sometimes very convenient, when gentlemen had a point to carry, to resort to some of Mr. Monroe's old musty letters."

At all events, "doctrine" is an unfortunate term—in the first place, because it is not strictly descriptive. But the second objection to it is more serious. It is that the term fell among a people bred in theological discussion, and accustomed to use doctrine as a term of mystery and divine authority. Webster gives various definitions of it, such as "teaching," "instruction," like "Christ's doctrine," or "a body of principles of faith," like the "doctrine of atoms," or "the doctrine of gravitation," or "the doctrines of the Bible." He mentions the Monroe Doctrine, but he gives no definition of "doctrine" which will cover Monroe's recommendation. In fact, in popular use, both in Monroe's time and down to our own day, a doctrine was something with superhuman authority behind it, and which could not be approached from a purely mundane point of view. To the ordinary "plain American," a doctrine is something different from, and much more serious than, an opinion, or theory, or recommendation; something to be handled more reverently and to be accepted with less question. He finds it difficult to believe, therefore, that Monroe's advice to interfere in the affairs of the Spanish-American states if they are attacked by a European Power is a piece of political advice, to be examined (like every other) as a piece of policy with reference to time, place and circumstances, and probable result.

If any one doubts this, we advise him to make an experiment with any of his older neighbors by propounding to him, for acceptance, separately and apart from the others, any one of the "developments" of the Monroe Doctrine to be found in Secretary Olney's despatch of July 20, for example. Ask him whether, when a community of "yellow-bellied Dagoes" down there quarrels with a European Power, we ought to take it for granted that the European Power is in the wrong and the Dagoes in the right; or whether the Dagoes ought to be allowed to choose a European arbitrator in any of their quarrels; or whether a Dago ought to be allowed to accept the boundary claim of a European colony to his own detriment, or to enter into an alliance with a European Power against one of his sister republics; whether the Dago states, Chili or Peru, for example, by "natural sympathy, by similarity of governmental institution," were "our natural friends and allies, commercially and politically," more so than England; whether we were "practically sovereign on this continent and our fiat law" in any matter about which we choose to concern ourselves. Ask him these questions without letting him perceive your object, and he will undoubtedly laugh a merry laugh, and ask you for whom you take him, or request you "to give him an easier one." But if you then go on and tell him that all these things are part and parcel of the Monroe Doctrine, that they flow out of it, he will at once become grave and reverential, and say: "Ah, that is a different matter. If it is all in the Monroe Doctrine, I have nothing to say. I am for the Monroe Doctrine every time." And he will support the Monroe Doctrine, and "stand behind" any one who recommends its application, without discussion or examination, just as a Mussulman rallies to the sacred standard in a holy war. The Monroe Doctrine, like all doctrines firmly held, is fundamental, above criticism, something to fight for and die for, like all articles of religious faith.

The inconvenience, for a great commercial state, of having a doctrine of this sort, which intimately concerns not our eternal but our temporal welfare, is not discussable, and has to be enforced without regard to consequences, has been made very plain during the past few weeks. If Monroe's opinion were called, not a doctrine but a policy, we think there is hardly a doubt that the appointment of a commission like that now serving to report on the boundary between Great Britain and Venezuela would have taken place in a quiet and gentlemanly way, as the result of friendly communication with Great Britain. Policy is something intended for human happiness, and to be considered with reference to human comfort and convenience, while doctrine concerns the things of the spirit, the unknown or unknowable concerns of the individual soul. A nation which lives by doctrine is necessarily, like Turkey, somewhat, at least, of a theocracy. It has often to pursue courses in obedience to the doctrine which are full of misery for man as a member of human society. A nation which lives by policy or expediency, on the other hand, asks itself at every step, "Does this make for justice, for peace, for law? Is it reasonable? Will it increase the burdens or promote the comfort of the poor? Will it cherish the great interests of civilization, the spread of knowledge, the rule of science, the feeling of brotherhood among the sorely tried and much puzzled nations of the earth?" Of all the misfortunes which can overtake a society, the greatest is having to live under a dominion which cannot be discussed, and which cannot be judged by its probable results.

For these reasons, and many others for which we have no space here, we think the chances of future peace and order on this continent would be much improved if we got into the way of talking of the Monroe Doctrine as the Monroe Policy, and taught the coming generation that,

far from being a thing to die for, it was a thing to examine when the time came for its use, just like taxation, or the liquor question, or good roads, or judicial organization. This Government was founded first and foremost for the benefit of citizens of the United States, and not for that of Venezuelans, Guatemalans, Costa Ricans, or Chilians. Monroe meant his doctrine avowedly to subserve, before all else, the safety, honor, and welfare of his own country.

HOMŒOPATHY IN GOVERNMENT.

When the Jingo craze was at its height, the story reached us, through an excellent channel, that the excuse for Mr. Cleveland's message was that he had learned that the Republicans in Congress were preparing, and would surely pass, a warlike resolution directed against England, and that he felt compelled, as a politician, to forestall them, in his own interest and that of his party. On Thursday the *Evening Post* printed a despatch from its Washington correspondent, containing another version of the same story, on still better authority. This ran as follows:

"We all knew it [the Davis resolution] as long ago as last spring. The scheme was carefully hatched, undoubtedly for political purposes and nothing higher. The President simply headed it off. The public furor which this action of Congress would have brought about has simply been discounted, and, now that the Jingo resolution is before the people, it is found to have spent its force. The people found all they wanted in the President's message, and have no use for the Senate resolution. The Senate has already discovered this. As a result the Davis resolution won't pass the Senate, Mark my prophecy. It is losing friends every day. . . . Had Congress, however, acting by itself, passed such a measure as the Davis resolution on the eve of Great Britain's assertion of her claim in Venezuela, it would have been equivalent to a declaration of war. I contend, therefore, that the President performed a valuable public service in the interests of peace in forestalling Congress and robbing it of its hostile ammunition."

Here, as will be seen, the President acts simply in the interest of peace, and not in that of party. He hears that Congress is disposed to declare war, so he determines to declare it in advance of them, in the belief that his war would not be taken so seriously as the congressional war, and would be more readily got rid of.

There are two weaknesses in this story. One is that Congress, far from leaving him to fight the British alone, immediately "stood behind him," and endorsed his war measure without debate—an incident, we think, without parallel in the history of parliamentary government. The craziest war venture of any modern nation was that of France in 1870, but that project was before the Chambers and under discussion for nearly two weeks—that is, from July 6 to July 19. What frightened the country and the world in December was not what Congress said or did, but what the President said and did, for he held the confidence of the country for steadiness and self-control and courage and rationality, in a remarkable degree. Congress, speaking alone, would not have made much excitement, because its action would have been set down to "politics," and Mr. Cleveland would have been relied on to prevent any mischievous result. It was Mr. Cleveland, therefore, and Mr. Cleveland alone, who made the panic, and he virtually confessed in his second, hysterical message, that he had not duly considered the possible consequences of the step he was taking.

The second weakness of the story is more serious. It is a confession that our sanest statesman was ready on a pinch to administer the Government on homœopathic principles; that is, when he heard that a coördinate branch was going to engage in an enterprise injurious in the highest degree to the national interests, he was prepared to anticipate it by administering to the unfortunate people a smaller dose of the same stuff. Foreseeing that Congress would shortly get drunk, he determined, by way of cure, to anticipate their bout by one of his own, feeling that his own recovery would be speedier than theirs and less costly. But the result was that they joined him in his carouse, and they both went to work to smash the national furniture and crockery. We have not a word to say against the homœopathic system as a therapeutic agency for the human body, but in daily life no one calls in a homœopathic doctor without knowing what he is about, and the nature of the remedies to be prescribed to him. The President of the United States has no license to practise it on the people of the United States. It would be impossible to find in any debate or discussion of the Constitution the smallest authority for the doctrine that the President may head off anticipated folly on the part of Congress by minor folly of his own.

The framers of the Constitution had evidently never dreamed that any such theory of the President's powers or duties would ever see the light, much less be accepted. Hamilton says in the *Federalist:*

"The republican principle demands that the deliberate sense of the community should govern the conduct of those to whom they intrust the management of their affairs; but it does not require an unqualified complaisance to every sudden breeze of passion, or to every transient impulse which the people may receive from the arts of men who flatter their prejudices to betray their interests. It is a just observation that the people commonly *intend* the public good. This often applies to their very errors. But their good sense would despise the adulator who should pretend that they always *reason right* about the *means* of promoting it. They know from experience that they sometimes err; and the wonder is that they so seldom err as they do, beset, as they continually are, by the wiles of parasites and sycophants, by the snares of the ambitious, the avaricious, the desperate, by the artifices of men who possess their confidence more than they deserve it, and of those who seek to possess rather than to deserve it. When occasions present themselves in which the interests of the people are at variance with their inclinations, it is the duty of the persons whom they have appointed to be the guardians of those interests, *to withstand the temporary delusion in order to give them time and opportunity for more cool and sedate reflection.* Instances might be cited in which a conduct of this kind has saved the people from very fatal consequences of their own mistakes, and has procured lasting monuments of their gratitude to men who had courage and magnanimity enough to serve them at the peril of their displeasure."

With the position which Mr. Cleveland had before the country in November last he could well have waited calmly for any act of folly the majority in Congress could commit. He was waiting in that attitude for their financial or fiscal follies. He expected, and the public expected him, to meet them with a veto. Nay, his enemies in Congress used the certainty of a veto as a reason for not being so foolish as they would have liked. He was put in the Presidency to stand guard against such things as the Davis resolution, as much as against a free-silver bill or a McKinley tariff. There was no likelihood that Congress would exercise the war-declaring power. What was to be anticipated was a blatherskite concurrent resolution, like the one now before the Senate, and that he could have met with a veto which would have given him the opportunity of his life, and sent him out of office with a reputation following close on that of Washington and Lincoln. He might in such a veto have explained the exact condition of the Venezuelan negotiations, and have revealed our own ignorance of the merits of the controversy, have announced his plan for seeking light on the subject, have defined the nature and scope of the "Monroe Doctrine," the rights it proclaims and the duties it imposes, and have, at the same time, formulated the American view of war as a means of settling controversies among nations, in a way that would have made one of the great state papers of American history, and have substituted the Cleveland Doctrine for the Monroe Doctrine in the popular mind and memory. This is what those who most admired him and have longest supported him, expected of him.

Their bitter disappointment is due to that most pernicious legacy of the Middle Ages, that fatal "relic of barbarism," the idea that even for us—"foremost in the files of time" as we consider ourselves—war is a thing not to be pondered or discussed; that when contemplating the most awful action that man can take against the peace and dignity of his fellow-man, it is base to reflect, to reason, to take counsel, to seek the better way; that in such crises the nearer we get to the enraged tiger or bulldog, the more reason we have to be proud of ourselves. If there was one man in the country whom last November we considered superior to this sad delusion, we should have said it was Mr. Cleveland. We consider his subserviency to it, next to the wild "standing behind" him when he issued his challenge, the saddest sight this century has witnessed.

TARIFF LEGISLATION.

Colorado held the attention of the country on Wednesday of last week in rather an impressive way. In addition to Senator Wolcott's brilliant speech on the Da-

vis resolution, Senator Teller delivered one on the tariff bill and the financial situation generally, which made a decided stir and is likely to have important consequences. Mr. Teller's speech, like that of his colleague, was effective in telling the truth at a critical moment, and knocking over a lot of humbugs that had been leaning against each other ever since the session began, maintaining an uncertain equilibrium, and sure to fall if anybody should give them a front blow.

The centre of Mr. Teller's attack was the House tariff bill which is still in the Senate committee on finance. The history of this bill is pretty well known. It was concocted by the Ohio wool-growing triumvirate—the same who laid the foundation for the McKinley tariff in 1889-'90. This interesting clique came to Washington before the present session began, and took steps to commit the Republican party to the enactment of a tariff on wool, not now, but a year or two hence, provided the party should be successful in the coming Presidential election. It was a game that these people were very familiar with. They had played it often. Revenue for the Government had nothing to do with it; but the Republican leaders, when the measure was forced upon them, put the revenue pretence forward as a stalking-horse. They passed the bill through the House as one of the happy financial conceits of the hour, along with the Venezuela Commission bill and the bond bill. It reached the Senate simultaneously with the bond bill, and both were referred to the finance committee, which is a free-silver committee presided over by the most pronounced gold-bug in the Senate.

This committee promptly substituted a free-coinage bill for the bond bill, and then sat upon the tariff bill, waiting to see what would be the effect on the temper of the House. The effect being *nil*, mutterings began to be heard in the free-silver camp to the effect that the tariff bill was a measure for the protection of wool-growers, that it was for revenue not to the Government but to private individuals, and that silver-miners were just as much entitled to a tax for their benefit as wool-growers or anybody else. Yet the McKinley organs were hopeful that, as Senator Jones, who held the balance of power in the committee, had been a good Republican before he went over to the Populists, he would allow free play to his natural instincts and let this little bill pass without a free-silver amendment. Such an amendment, if securely fastened to the wool bill, would kill the whole measure in the House. Hence the importance of getting it past the danger point of the finance committee.

It has not yet passed that point when Mr. Teller pounces upon it and shakes it as a terrier would shake a rat. His opinion of it was expressed in the following vigorous terms:

"I know very well that the free-silver bill will not become a law. But I am tired of being lectured by Senators who know equally well that the revenue bill will not become a law. There has never been the slightest expectation of its becoming a law. Even if it should be brought before the Senate and finally passed by the aid of two or three Populist votes, it would be sure to meet with an executive veto. Had you the slightest expectation of its ever becoming a law it would have been framed on very different lines. It was just put in to Congress as a political move, and for no other purpose. As this is to be a political play, we will play politics on our side."

This is something more than a hint that the Republican silver Senators are not to be coaxed or coerced into passing the tariff bill merely to give the wool-growers a good position at some future time. What the latter want is the chance to say, whenever the Republican party comes into full power: "You passed our bill when you could not get the approval of the executive; you committed yourselves to us then, and you cannot go back now; therefore please to pass it again." The free-silver Republicans have no particular objection to the wool bill *per se*. They simply want to force their own measure along with it. This they cannot do, and they know that they cannot, but neither will they allow any other measure for the private interest of a class to go through while theirs is kept behind, especially when its object is not of a practical nature at present, but is merely to commit the party to pass some similar bill at some future time.

It is in the interest of good government that Mr. Teller and those who stand with him should stand firm. The wool bill, besides being a bad measure, is a game of false pretences. The leading Republicans, in fact, do not want it to pass. The woollen industry of the country has scarcely yet adjusted itself to free wool, and now it is asked to turn a second summersault and adjust itself to a high tariff on its raw material. Of course this will not be the last of it. A new tax on wool will lead to renewed efforts to throw it off, and these efforts will be successful eventually. Meanwhile the business will be "all torn up." There can be no settled trade, no steady employment. It is bad enough to have all our industries based on the rolling stone of an uncertain standard of value. The woollen industries, if we set out on a new tariff adventure, will have to bear the silver trouble, which is common to all, and another one special to themselves. It will be something of a paradox if they find relief from the latter at the hands of those who are producing the former.

THE SILVER PARTY'S PLATFORM.

THE silverites, in their preliminary convention at Washington on Thursday, adopted a preliminary platform with several preambles, one of which recites that the demonetization of silver in 1873 caused a fall in the prices of all kinds of property "except in peculiarly favored localities." It proceeds to say that "such fall of prices has destroyed the profits of legitimate industry, injuring the producer for the benefit of the non-producer, increasing the burden of the debtor, and swelling the gains of the creditor, paralyzing the productive energies of the American people, relegating to idleness vast numbers of willing workers, sending the shadows of despair into the home of the honest toiler, filling the land with tramps and paupers, and building up colossal fortunes at the money centres." In connection with this misstatement of the causes of the present stringency we call attention also to another, which Senator Sherman had the hardihood to make in his debate with Senator Teller on Wednesday. The subject under debate was the pending sale of bonds, and Mr. Teller remarked, with perfect simplicity and perfect truth: "You are not selling bonds to meet deficiencies [of revenue]. You are selling bonds to accumulate gold." To which Mr. Sherman replied:

"If there was no deficiency, there would be no demand for gold. For fourteen years that $100,000,000 of gold stood there in the Treasury, a standard of credit, and no one approached it or diminished it. But the moment the deficiencies occur, then they say they sell the bonds to keep the gold reserve good; but it is to meet the deficiencies, because to meet the deficiencies they take the gold."

It is very convenient for Mr. Sherman to overlook the operation of the act of July 14, 1890, otherwise called the Sherman act, which added nearly $200,000,000 to the fiat money of the country, and alarmed the public on both sides of the water to such an extent that they began to withdraw capital from this country, and continued to do so until the panic of 1893 occurred and it became necessary to repeal that fatal measure. The operation of the Sherman act was coincident with a deficiency of revenue, but it was itself a cause contributing to the deficiency, because it required the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver bullion each month, or more than twice as much as had been required before. The purchases were made in a deceitful, or at all events misleading, way. The Government paid for the silver with Treasury notes; but as the notes were redeemable on demand in gold, it might as well have paid gold directly for the silver bullion so bought. As a matter of fact, the exports of gold from the country during the time the Sherman act was in operation were just about equal to the emission of Treasury notes. The author of the act in question has reasons enough for ignoring that feature of the panic of 1893 and the subsequent misery; but the business men who were ruined by it, and the multitudes who were thrown out of employment in consequence of it, have too many reasons to remember it.

Senator Aldrich, too, was harping on the gold reserve and the fact that it never fell below $100,000,000 until the present Administration came into power. Mr. Teller was quite well aware of this. Mr. Aldrich explained, further, that there were fluctuations up and down, but never,

until this fatal Administration came in, did it fall below the sum mentioned. Then this colloquy ensued:

"Mr. Teller—That is a fact which everybody understands We did not break into the reserve of $100,000,000 until after the present Administration came into power. To be fair, I am bound to say that I have not the slightest doubt but that we should have broken into it if Mr. Harrison had been reëlected. It was not the Democratic party that came into power that made it; it was the condition of the country.

"Mr. Sherman—It was a Democratic law.

"Mr. Teller—It was not a Democratic law. There was not any law and had not been any law. That was long after."

The law that Mr. Sherman referred to was the Wilson tariff, which was not passed until July, 1894, whereas the gold reserve fell below $100,000,000 in April, 1893, or fifteen months earlier. Every day we have fresh evidence that Mr. Sherman is losing his wits. Senator Aldrich, however, is not in his dotage. He knows perfectly well that President Harrison's Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Charles Foster, in his last annual report (December, 1892), predicted an early decline of the gold reserve below the $100,000,000 line, saying:

"One of the embarrassments to the Treasury, in the opinion of the Secretary, is the inability, with the limited amount of cash on hand above the $100,000,000 reserve, to keep up a sufficient gold supply. When the demand comes for the exportation of gold, the Treasury is called upon to furnish it. If this demand should prove to be as large the coming year *as it has been for the past two years*, gold in the Treasury would be diminished to or below the reserve line."

But to return to the silverites, the condition of trade and industry which they bewail in their platform is mainly their own work. They caused the Sherman act to be passed. Its consequences were an alarm in the public mind and a withdrawal of capital from the country. When a scarcity of capital began to be noticed, they said that it was caused by the demonetization of silver which had taken place twenty years earlier. They overlooked the years of prosperity that had intervened. They ignored the fact that an era of great business activity began in 1879, when specie payments were resumed, and continued with slight interruptions until the Sherman act was passed, and until its operation had had a marked effect in the expulsion of gold from the country. Then they said the evil dated back to 1873, and many of them believe so now.

It is perhaps hopeless to reason with people who go back to ancient history to find the cause of troubles that their own immediate misconduct has brought upon them; yet he must be a very ignorant man who cannot see that a withdrawal of capital from the country is an adequate cause of all the evils complained of. Every one of these evils is explainable by the single phrase "lack of capital." This will define and describe not only the general badness of trade, but the badness of every individual's trade, his want of profit, or his loss of employment. It is immaterial whether the capital withdrawn is native or foreign. It is immaterial whether the owners of it are Americans or Europeans. Nor is it of any importance whether the motive impelling them to withdraw their money is fear of a change of the money standard or a war scare. The effect is the same. Bad trade, scarcity of money, higher rates of interest, curtailment of loans must follow, and when they come, some leatherhead who has done all in his power to drive capital away by threatening us with the silver standard or with a foreign war, declares that the "money power" is producing all the misery by "cornering gold." First tell every man who has a dollar that you are going to fix things so that it will be worth only fifty cents, and when he takes it to a place where you cannot work this transformation, accuse him of maliciously causing a scarcity of money. O Liberty, how many sins are committed in thy name!

THE ARMENIAN RESOLUTIONS.

THERE has been more debating in the House and Senate over the Armenian resolutions than there was over the Venezuelan correspondence, but no more real taking of counsel. The discussion in the House on Monday had the aerial character which usually marks the fiery utterances of young men's debating clubs. Where else but in the proceedings of such a body would one find it solemnly resolved that "it was an imperative duty, in the interests of humanity, to express an earnest hope" that somebody else would behave properly? What other body would order the Secretary to send this resolution to six first-class Powers as an encouragement to execute one of their own treaties to which we are no more a party than the Y. M. C. A.? We may imagine the hilarity with which it will be received in the various European chancelleries, and the mock solemnity with which its receipt will be acknowledged. We doubt whether it is worth while to notice that the resolutions abandon that part of the Monroe Doctrine which denies our right "to take part in the wars of European Powers in matters relating to themselves"; also Secretary Olney's recent interpretation of the Doctrine, which shuts us out from "wars or preparations of wars with whose causes or results we have no direct concern," and which closes with the remark:

"If all Europe were to suddenly fly to arms over the fate of Turkey, would it not be preposterous that any American state should find itself inextricably involved in the miseries and burdens of the contest? If it were, it would prove to be a partnership in the cost and losses of the struggle, but not in any ensuing benefits."

In fact it would not be easy to make up, by inference, a more complete repudiation of our doctrine of non-interference in European matters, as the complement of the non-interference of Europe in ours.

The new revised Doctrine now is, that we may interfere in European affairs when we see the European Powers plainly neglecting their duty to each other, or when in any part of Europe "the hand of fanaticism and lawless violence" seems to us too strong, or when "men and Christians" in any part of Europe seem to us to be deprived of due legal protection. But surely we ought not to refuse this sympathy to "men and Jews," and yet we have never threatened Russia for expelling her Jewish population under circumstances of great cruelty. Lastly, how are we to assert this right to look after the manner in which European Powers discharge their domestic duties, without granting them the right to pass resolutions and address exhortations to us about our negligences and failures—about our mob law, for instance, as expressed in the unpunished murder of the Italians in the jail in New Orleans a few years ago; in the massacre of the Chinamen in Wyoming; in the numerous, continued, and horrible lynchings all over the country? Are we prepared to accept meekly resolutions of reprobation on these topics from the British Parliament, and the Reichstag, and the Russian Chancellery, and the retort courteous from the Sultan? We doubt it greatly, and yet the probability that we shall have to put up with it, on principles of reciprocity, was never mentioned in the debate.

This vain talk was followed, as usual, by a stern resolve to "stand behind" the President in "the most vigorous action he may take for the protection and security of American citizens" in Turkey. What would or could "our most vigorous action" be? The whole of our fleet put together would not be more than sufficient to force its way up to Constantinople, if all the Powers agreed to stand aside and let it be done. Some of our ships would be sunk in the process. The others would arrive in a dilapidated condition. Both banks of the Bosphorus would be in possession of the enemy, and that enemy a hostile and fanatical population, which fights Christians with great fierceness. Without a land force, where would our coal and supplies come from, and how would the ships get back again after the Turks had time to prepare for their return? Suppose the Sultan, under threat of bombardment, were to agree to restore order in Armenia, how would this benefit the Armenians? They are hundreds of miles away from Constantinople, and they are being massacred by local Mussulmans who pay no attention to the Sultan's orders. *The Sultan has already made to the Powers all the promises which we could possibly extract from him by any action, however vigorous*, without helping the Armenians in the smallest degree. Moreover, there is no proof that we have received any injury from the Sultan, except the destruction of property, and for this, according to all accounts, he is willing to pay.

If we were talking to practical men of business, or serious diplomatists, and not mere Jingoes, we should point out that there are only two ways in which we can do anything for the Armenians. One is to threaten Russia with war if she, the only Power which can act promptly and effectively in the matter, does not occupy Armenia and restore order. The other is to offer to support Great Britain in any measures she may take to carry out the Treaty of Berlin. She has undoubtedly been checked in her recent attempt to coerce the Sultan by the fear that she might find herself acting alone or in the face of a powerful opposition, for she is not a general favorite, and France wants Egypt, and Russia Constantinople. But such support, to be really effective, would involve the despatch to the Mediterranean of a powerful naval squadron and say 50,000 men of a land force. We have little doubt, speaking under naval and military correction, that this, with the troops which England could assemble from England and India, would carry everything before it in Asia Minor, and that the spectacle of the two great Anglo-Saxon Powers acting together, not for aggrandizement but for order and civilization, would be one of the finest the modern world has seen. But, Jingo brethren, it would involve the abandonment of the sacred Doctrine of "the immortal Monroe," and it would commit you to the cares and responsibilities and dangers of European politics, and—harder than all—it would compel you to be civil to the odious "Britishers." If you are not ready for something of this sort, the less you vapor and threaten, the more the civilized world will respect you.

POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, December 28, 1895.

THE course of affairs in Japan since the treaty of peace with China has been on the whole different from what might have been expected six months ago. The immediate effect of the peace upon the foreign relations of Japan has been comparatively slight. Not even the Corean troubles have proved to be so fruitful of immediate consequences as seemed likely at first. With Russia and other countries her relations, at least for the present, have assumed all the smoothness and cordiality of the period before the war. Nor is it likely that in the near future this status will be disturbed. So many terrific contingencies lie concealed in the present situation that no government, however eager for success or expansion, will dare to rouse them.

The reflex action, however, of the war and its train of circumstances has given a most distinct impulse to the internal political development of Japan. It will be remembered that party politics in this country has always been in a state of confusion. At least three parties have existed between whom it is not easy to distinguish any essential political principle. All have been against the Government, all have been opposed to the Satcho combination, all have advocated a strong foreign policy, all have stood for the revision of treaties, for the reform of local government, for the expansion of commerce, and for a large number of equally desirable objects. But while these parties have had so many objects in common, their attitude toward each other, except when a common enemy was to be attacked, has been anything but friendly. Each party has occupied its time either in attacking the Government or in denouncing the opposing parties.

A new step has lately been taken, however, which promises to put both the Government and the parties in a somewhat different position. It may be fairly said that no party in Japan can have much chance for success that is not opposed to the Satcho and strongly in favor of responsible party cabinets. The answer that the various statesmen in power, and especially Marquis (formerly Count) Ito have made to all demands for popular governments, is that the ministers are responsible not to the Parliament but to the Crown. The weakness of the argument, however, has been apparent probably even to the present premier. He must be aware that, under present circumstances, it is not the Emperor who summons a new cabinet when the old resigns, but a few statesmen who form an oligarchical faction in the state. Nevertheless, the means of fighting this system of government, powerful in its resources, ability, and past record, have not been within reach of the popular parties, and up to the present time all parliamentary warfare has attacked it in vain.

Early in November a rumor spread of a reconciliation between the Radical or Liberal party (Jiyuto) and Marquis Ito. It was stated that the party leaders of the Jiyuto had approached the premier with a view to harmonizing the differences which had so long separated the representatives in Parliament and the Government. Among all the statesmen of national reputation who have in recent years held the reins of Government, the Liberals could not have approached a more tractable man than the present premier. Of a compromising disposition, by nature disinclined to continual bickerings between the Parliament and Government, he has doubtless come to the conclusion, especially since the close of the war, that the old measure of dissolving Parliament was no longer practicable. Japan is certain to have a serious time of it in the next few years, even under the most favorable circumstances; and with an irreconcilable political system the danger of successfully working the Government and guiding the country through its difficulties would be immensely increased. Whatever the motives actuating him may have been, it is known that Ito did not long hesitate to accept the proposals of the Jiyuto. The latter agreed to support the Government in the next parliamentary session, and thus, for the first time since the adoption of the Constitution, the Government is to have an avowed supporter among the representatives of the people in the lower house.

The Kaishinto and other enemies of the Jiyuto interpret this political alliance in a most unfavorable sense. Their principal charge is that the Jiyuto, long deprived of the rewards of office, have at last fallen a victim to the wiles and bribes of the Government. In this and other ways the Opposition are trying to discredit the Liberals in the country. But it is doubtful whether these charges will have much effect. Most of the local political associations have cordially supported the action of the representatives of the party, and two or three members who have tried to play a double game by carrying on negotiations with the Opposition in case the alliance of their party with the Government proved unpopular, have been promptly expelled from the ranks of the Liberal party. Whatever faults may be attributed to the Jiyuto, it can scarcely be said that they are double-faced, or ambitious for Government posts beyond the usual human measure. Their leader, Count Itagaki, has been called a political dreamer, a theorist; but no one has ever charged him with being other than a singularly honest and upright man. It is hard to say how far he controls the action of his party—in some cases his advice is certainly not accepted; but in the present instance it is almost certain that he wholly approves of the step taken by his party. His assurance on this point is almost a guarantee that the coalition between the Government and the Jiyuto is free from any political bargaining or personal gain to the leaders of the party.

Two motives are mentioned by the Liberals themselves for the coalition. The first of these is the obvious one that the Government work can be immensely expedited by the loyal support of a strong popular party in the lower house. Hitherto the Jiyuto, though at times it has given the Government a grudging adherence, has for the most part joined in the cry against the Government. But for this refusal of the party several years ago to vote any bills introduced by the ministers, the position of the Government would have been immensely stronger than it was in the late war. More than once measures to increase the army and navy, especially the latter, failed to pass because of the implacable temper of the popular representatives towards any measure bearing the Government stamp. It is generally agreed, both by the Japanese themselves and by foreigners who are in a position to know, that had the Government succeeded in putting the navy in the state of efficiency it proposed four years ago—had the Japanese navy, for instance, had two first-class battle-ships—the Japanese would have been at Pekin six months before the war actually ended. That the Government was so bitterly opposed by the various parties was one of the reasons why the Chinese were so eager for war, and why they were so confident of victory in the beginning of the struggle. Hereafter the Government is less likely to be placed in this predicament. As one of the spokesmen of the Jiyuto declared in a speech some days ago, "It does not require any uncommon intelligence to see that nothing could be more disastrous to the interests and dignity of the Empire than that the people should be engrossed in petty party disputes and contentions among themselves."

Another reason which the Jiyuto assign for their action is the influence their coalition with the Government will have in promoting true party government. Naturally their opponents, who are themselves aiming to introduce government by party, ridicule this assertion of the Liberals. It is declared to be absurd on its face that any party can give its support on this ground to what is not a national but a clan government. Yet, in spite of an apparent self-contradiction, there is no doubt that the Jiyuto have a strong case in this contention. Hitherto the Government has stood aloof from all parties. It has claimed to be the impartial arbiter between the conflicting demands of the popular representatives. To whatever extent *in fact* the Government may not have acted up to this assumption, yet it logically could present a strong front so long as it did not deviate grossly from this self-imposed rôle. But hereafter the cabinet ministers cannot fairly claim to be independent of party demands, for the simple reason that they

have openly admitted a definite party to support them. If they fail to get sufficient votes from their friends, it is difficult to see how they can continue in power. Marquis Ito must have understood this contingency from the moment he agreed to receive the Jiyuto as a Government party. Probably he even acted deliberately in this matter, believing that the time had come when the country would no longer brook the present Satcho administration. To quote another of the spokesmen of the Liberals in a recent speech:

"It is our conviction that, by taking this step (*i. e.*, coalition with the Government), we shall effectually promote the introduction of a system of responsible cabinets—a consummation which has ever been the cherished hope of the Liberal party. For the attainment of that hope we have suffered much, but the sole result of our endeavor has hitherto been to strengthen the Government's resistance to the realization of our object. To continue the fruitless struggle at the present juncture would be not only to thwart the carrying out of various measures of paramount importance, but also to retard the attainment of our long-cherished object. We are confident of victory in the coming session of the Diet. But, should we be defeated, we should be ready to hand over the government of the country to our opponents, if they faithfully represent the sentiments of the people."

A last and most important point for consideration is how far the Jiyuto can give effectual support to the Government in the coming session. If the party had a clear majority over all other parties in the lower house, there would be little difficulty, either for the Government or for the Liberals. But the latter cannot claim more than 109 or 110 party representatives out of a total number of 300. The Progressionists, who are the most active opponents of the Government, claim fifty-three, and the National Unionists thirty-two; while the Independents, together with other minor political organizations, make up the remainder. It is conceded that the Jiyuto can count upon at least twenty or twenty-five of the independent vote, while the Kaishinto claim as many as seventy or seventy-five. From these figures it follows that the National Unionists, with a following of only thirty-two, hold the balance of power between the two larger parties. The Progressionists have made strenuous efforts to get this party to join them in opposing the Government, but so far without success. The National Unionists have little sympathy with the statesmen now in power; on the contrary, they are hostile to both the compromising temper and the personnel of the present cabinet. But they are backed by the military classes of the empire, and cannot join with a party eager to antagonize the Government even in its military and naval policy. Hence the National Unionists are on the horns of a dilemma from which they cannot at present find any escape. Common rumor has it that they will vote with the Opposition on condition that the latter agree to the necessary military and naval bills.

Under the circumstances the present Government is not in a position of security. It will probably be authorized to carry out large designs for the country's welfare, but by the same authority it will be declared unfit for the purpose of carrying on the administration. Should the Jiyuto and their friends have the requisite number of votes to save the Government from the attacks of the Opposition, the present cabinet will be more certain of its position than it has been for a number of years. But the opposing parties are already gathering their strength for an address to the throne, in which the whole policy of the Government will be censured. If this succeeds in passing the House, the cabinet must necessarily dissolve the present Parliament and make an appeal to the country. If a hostile majority is returned, no other escape seems possible but for the present ministers to hand in their resignations. Even if a friendly majority should be returned, the Government will stand committed, and thus in either case party government would be an accomplished fact in Japan. G. D.

TASMANIA.

HOBART, November 26, 1895.

TASMANIA, somewhat smaller than Ireland, is the least in size, though not the least interesting, of the Australasian colonies. Most of its surface is mountainous and rocky and is not likely ever to be brought under cultivation. There are twenty-one mountain peaks 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, eighteen 4,000 to 5,000, and two slightly over 5,000. Unless where cleared, and with exception of the mountains over 3,000 feet in altitude, it is covered with forests constituted principally of different species of eucalyptus. There are coal mines; and gold, silver, and tin are being discovered in considerable quantities in the northern districts. Fruit farming is becoming a considerable industry. After ninety-one years' settlement, the population is but 155,000; less than one-third of the surface has been alienated, and but four per cent. thereof has been brought under cultivation.

It is practically an independent State, having an ambassador, under the name of an agent-general, in London, and, under the ægis of the British Empire, is relieved from the necessity of maintaining an army and navy. Its upper house consists of eighteen, its lower of thirty-seven members—the one elected by a somewhat restricted and partly educational, the other by a general, franchise. The public debt has, within the last few years, largely under labor and sectional influences, been run up from £3,200,000 to £7,600,000. It now stands at £50 per head of the population, nearly twice the national debt of the United Kingdom. But then it has large effects to show, mainly in railways—not merely prestige, honor, and glory, as with us at home. These state owned and state-worked single-track railways cover 476 miles, and, beyond working expenses, return little over one per cent. on capital. The main roads are excellently maintained, also by the state. The fiscal policy of the country is, under the plea of revenue requirements, mildly protective. To a certain extent, but in a lesser degree than her sister colonies, Tasmania is passing through a wave of commercial depression, consequent upon inflated dealings and engagement in unproductive works upon borrowed capital. "She has," to use a nautical term, "been brought up with a round turn," and artisans recruited from country districts and drawn from other countries have had to look for work elsewhere. The severe lesson is being learned that if there are born more sons and daughters than the country can, by a natural process of expansion, support, it is wiser that they should follow naturally expanding industries abroad than that they should, at the cost of others, find occupations at home by building up unnatural trade barriers. Cheap ocean transit has worked radical changes. Wheat land has gone out of cultivation, and ruins are to be met both of water and of wind-mills.

It was a delightful change from the heat and bustle and wide extent of Melbourne and from the low-lying shores of Port Phillip, to find ourselves, after a sea voyage of twelve hours, steaming up the beautiful, winding, thickly wooded shores of the Tamar. Launceston, with a population of 17,000, is pleasantly situated thirty miles up this river. A railway connects with the capital Hobart, of 25,000, on the Derwent, at the south of the island. Both these are regularly laid-out, quiet cities, with more of an Old World air about them than others we have seen in the southern hemisphere. The line connecting Launceston and Hobart may be said to roughly divide the country into two-thirds and one-third. The two-thirds portion, lying to the west, is for the most part mountain, lake, and waste; that to the east comprises most of the settled districts. The mountainous character of the country is expressed in the Tasmanian railway time-tables, which give, in addition to the ordinary information, columns showing the height of the stopping-places above the sea. The main line between Launceston and Hobart attains an elevation of 1,400 feet. We never travelled on such a tortuous line apparently without sufficient cause. The explanation afforded is that it was constructed for a lump sum by a British firm which acted in the double capacity of engineers and contractors, and to which cheapness of construction, without regard to the future cost of working, was the main consideration.

On the more than one hundred miles of smooth waters of D'Entrecasteaux Channel, Derwent estuary and river, and Norfolk Bay, there is some really fine and much charming scenery. The eucalyptus forests at a distance appear somewhat sombre and uninviting; but, once in their leafy depths, a world of delight is opened up to the traveller. We spent many days lingering by the lakes and exploring the recesses of their ferny valleys. Now, in spring, the undergrowth of shrub and heath is bright with blossom; the air, redolent with scents, is fresh and pure; the coloring of the young trees is varied in different tints of green. To one subjected for long years to the storm and stress of public affairs there is a feeling of almost intoxicating delight in these leafy primeval shades. Fine strands are to be found on the shores of the Tasman peninsula and on the east coast—strands where the pellucid waters of the Pacific break on long reaches of sand, upon curiously formed terraces of basalt, against noble forest-crowned cliffs and promontories. Upon Maria Island, which we reached by a four-hours' crossing in an open boat, from Spring Bay, we found magnificent scenery. Ten miles long by an average width of five miles, clothed in forest and thick scrub, it is the abode of countless numbers of a small species of kangaroo. There are only two families residing upon it, amid the ruins of a former penal settlement and of extensive works connected with abandoned speculations in the direction of vine-culture and cement manufacture.

We have been most favorably impressed by the Tasmanians. There is, outside the towns, where there continue to be amusing gradations, much of that equality of class feeling and simplicity of dress and natural dignity of bearing to be met with in Switzerland, combined with perhaps gentler manners bred of a milder climate. We found travelling cheap and dealings open and fair. Drink-shops are neither many in number nor intrusive in appearance, and we have seen no drunkenness. Through several weeks of railway, coach, boat, steamer, and pedestrian travel, often glad to put up at simple inns where accommodation

was not always of the best, we have heard neither coarse nor even harsh language.

In the history of this interesting country there has been much of the tragic. Upon a small scale, but seldom elsewhere in a greater degree, have the horrors of the impact of civilized with uncivilized man been here illustrated. Seven or eight thousand aborigines inhabited the islands when it was settled in the early years of the century. Sunk in a low condition of barbarism, they went unclothed. But all competent authorities agree in testifying that they were endowed with many good qualities, and were capable, if fairly treated, of living harmless upon the borders of civilization. The desires of successive early governments that this should be, were frustrated by the intolerable outrages inflicted upon the aborigines by escaped convicts and semi-barbarous whites. The aborigines, unable to discriminate, made reprisals alike upon the peaceful settler and the murderous bushranger. The Government felt itself driven into a war of capture or extermination. The few who survived, taken by force or decoyed by false promises, were deported to the islands in Bass's Straits. Changes in modes of life, drink, disease, and neglect soon did their work. A miserable remnant were brought back to a settlement near Hobart. The last full-blooded native, a woman, passed away twenty years ago. Her skull, along with the bones of other extinct Tasmanian mammals, is preserved in the Hobart museum. A few half-castes live on the islands, where they make a living by curing fish and mutton-birds.

Tasmania was settled by the United Kingdom mainly as a penal colony. Here were deported alike hardened offenders as well as persons, of both sexes and often of tender years, who had committed offences for which now a few days', or at most a few weeks', imprisonment might be considered sufficient punishment. The wretched Irish peasantry, driven to outrage and violence under the iron heel of class and landlord rule, contributed in no small number to this latter class. Here settled down, after the Napoleonic wars, many British officers, who received grants of land upon easy terms. Among other advantages held out to these and other free settlers was the assignment to them of convict labor. The missionary labors of James Backhouse and George W. Walker have left the marks of Quakerism upon the society of the island. The convict system was here extended as it became apparent that it could not be maintained in the other colonies. Upon the Tasmanian Peninsula, at Macquarie Harbor, at Maria Island, and at Norfolk Island, a far-away dependency, the system was carried out in its concrete and severest form, unmitigated by the safeguards of a numerous surrounding free population. Escape was all but impossible: there was nothing available for the support of life in the forests. There are authentic instances of cannibalism among parties who did make the attempt. Chain-gangs were subjected to the severest labor in swamp and forest, cutting and deporting timber and mining coal. The lash was freely used. To the gallows were constantly consigned victims. Suicide, even among convict children, was not uncommon. A case caught our eyes in an old Hobart paper of a clergyman magistrate sitting alone on the bench, sentencing an unfortunate to thirty lashes and three years in a chain-gang for altering an order for sixpence into one for two shillings and sixpence. This system has long been swept away—all save the remembrance, and ruined walls and vacant barracks, and open cells once impervious to light and sound, where men graduated for the madhouse or were done to death. The forest grows in upon them, and the lizards creep over them. "Such of us as were not bad were made bad," remarked to us an aged survivor of the system. At Port Arthur, a locality almost rivalling Killarney in beauty, we, the other day, rowed across to a lovely island where, in unmarked graves, lie 1,600 convicts. This system has found its 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' in Marcus Clarke's 'For the Term of his Natural Life,' a book the name of which is here in every one's mouth. Those who have lived through the scenes therein described, assure us that while they never could all have occurred in the experience of one connected set of characters, they are based on truth and have occurred "one hundred times over." By the upper classes here, many of whom have sprung from "old hands," everything is done to erase the memory of those times. Records have been destroyed, the names of places altered, conversation upon the subject is discouraged. Among the people the system is with loathing freely spoken of, and the escapes and adventures of Martin Cash and other outlaws give interest to many a locality and form the subject of many a story. To Irishmen, Port Arthur, Maria Island, Lake Sorell, Bothwell, and other localities will ever be associated with the names of W. Smith O'Brien, Mitchel, Martin, Meagher, and their compatriots, the exiles of 1848. There are sad and bitter memories connected with the history of Tasmania, but fortunately their continuity has been completely broken. In a certain sense Tasmania is the Ireland of the Australasian colonies, for the most enterprising and vigorous of her sons are likely, for a long time to come, to find wider scope for the exercise of their abilities abroad than at home. But this arises from natural and economic conditions. She is mistress of her own resources and of her own destiny, and has doubtless a happy future before her.

D. B.

Correspondence.

SECRETARY SEWARD AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You early called attention to the fact that

"in the negotiations for the only application of the Monroe Doctrine to Spanish-American affairs which we have ever made—the expulsion of the French from Mexico—there was no mention of the Monroe Doctrine at all. . . . Mr. Seward said he did not undertake to dictate to the Mexican people what kind of government they should have. They might have Maximilian if they pleased, but they must be free to choose; and therefore the French troops should be withdrawn."

Mr. Seward not only felt himself not bound by the Monroe Doctrine, but on several occasions expressly repudiated it, being justified by a resolution of the House of Representatives, passed in 1825 (when the matter was fresh), which was surely intended to be a correct interpretation of the Doctrine. It reads as follows:

"That the United States ought not to become a party with the Spanish-American republics, or either of them, to any joint declaration for the purpose of preventing interference by any of the European Powers with their independence or form of government, or to any compact *for the purpose of preventing colonization upon the continents of America;* but that the people of the United States should be left free to act in any crisis in such manner as their feelings of friendship towards those republics and as their own honor and policy at the time dictate."

In other words, the United States should not be fettered by any doctrine or programme (no true statesman ever acted on a doctrine or dogma), but were to be left free to act as occasion might require. Mr. Calhoun, one of the advisers of Mr. Monroe, who had taken most interest in the declaration, speaking of the Monroe Doctrine in the debate about the acquisition of Yucatan, asserted most emphatically that the United States was under no pledge to intervene against intervention, but was to act in each case as policy and justice required (see note 36, p. 97, Wheaton's 'International Law,' Dana's edition).

A resolution introduced by Mr. Clay, January, 1824, in the House of Representatives, "deprecating European combinations to resubjugate the independent American States of Spanish origin, and thus giving support and emphasis to the declaration in the message of December 2, 1823," seems never to have been acted upon, and was not referred to any committee.

Now what were the views of Mr. Seward when France had invaded Mexico in 1862? In a dispatch (October 9, 1863) to Mr. Motley, the American Minister at Vienna, who had expressed great alarm at the expedition of Maximilian, and sought instructions as to asking the Emperor of Austria for explanations in allowing recruiting for Maximilian's army to go on in his states, and had referred Mr. Seward to the Monroe Doctrine, Mr. Seward instructed him not to interfere, using these remarkable words:

"France has invaded Mexico, and war exists between the two countries. The United States hold in regard to those two states and their conflict the same principles as they hold in relation to all other nations and their mutual wars. They have neither a right nor any disposition to interfere by force in the internal affairs of Mexico, whether to establish or maintain a republican or even a domestic Government there, or to overthrow an imperial or foreign one, if Mexico shall choose to establish or accept it."

Mr. Seward sent copies of this dispatch to our ministers at Paris, Madrid, and Brussels, undoubtedly for the purpose of advising the Governments to which they were accredited of his views. But, even before that dispatch to Mr. Motley, the writer of these lines was made acquainted with Mr. Seward's views regarding the Monroe Doctrine, by a dispatch received by him in April, 1863. The French expedition was very unpopular in Spain, and just at that time the Madrid press was full of articles denouncing bitterly the policy of Louis Napoleon. In an entirely unofficial and friendly conversation with Marshal Serrano, Minister of Foreign Affairs, we spoke about the Mexican trouble, and in the course of our talk I mentioned that the present events were quite parallel with those happening in 1823, and that I thought that the Monroe Doctrine would be quite applicable. Serrano did not seem to know much about this doctrine, which I explained to him. In reporting my official conversation with the Foreign Minister to Mr. Seward, I also spoke of our unofficial one, mentioning that I had brought the Monroe Doctrine to the recollection of Marshal Serrano. It was not long before I received a dispatch from Mr. Seward, that the President had approved of what I had discussed with Marshal Serrano officially, but he regretted to have to say that the President had by no means approved of what I had to say in relation to the Monroe Doctrine, and that he desired me to at once call upon Marshal

Serrano and assure him that what I had said regarding the Doctrine was only my private view, and did not express that of my Government. Before, however, I received this dispatch, the ministry of which Serrano had been a member was dismissed. I at once had concluded, on reading the dispatch, that it was not written for me, but for the French Government, and so I dropped the matter; and, sure enough, I found in the diplomatic correspondence of 1863, published by the State Department, in a dispatch from Mr. Washburn, our Minister to Paris, the following passage: "I read your dispatch, No. 51, to Mr. Koerner, our Minister at Madrid, to Mr. Drouyn de Lhuys (Minister of Foreign Affairs), and he expressed his extreme satisfaction with it."

Let me add that Mr. Calhoun has been reported to have said that when the draft of Mr. Monroe's message was laid before the Cabinet for consideration, it did not contain the colonization clause; that that passage was inserted by Mr. Adams, and had never been considered and approved by the Cabinet. The fact that this clause occurs early in the message, and is followed by much other matter before the non-intervention passage is reached, lends great probability to Mr. Calhoun's remarks, as certainly those two subjects in the message logically would belong together.

In conclusion, I desire to make another point. Great stress has been laid of late on the fact that the English Government received the message of Mr. Monroe with very great satisfaction—that the Liberal press rejoiced at it; and we are favored with extracts to that effect from English journals of that time. This is all very true, for it conformed to the views of the English Government; but it is equally true that Mr. Canning remarked to Mr. Rush, our Minister at the Court of St. James's, that he was very much displeased with the colonization clauses as being built on false premises; that the southern part of the continent was not settled by Christian nations, so as to exclude all further European colonization, but was the abode of roaming savages. Such countries had always been considered as a field for civilized colonization. In some of his speeches he expressed his dissatisfaction with that part of the message, while he enthusiastically approved of the non-intervention clause. That the other great Powers of Europe which had just planned intervention do not accept the Monroe Doctrine as binding upon them needs no proof. GUSTAV KOERNER.

BELLEVILLE, ILL., January 20, 1896.

JINGO HISTORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Mr. Cabot Lodge's late speech on the Venezuelan question are some statements that should not go unchallenged:

(1.) Speaking of the bill for the military occupation of Yucatan, to prevent its becoming a British colony, he says: "The war in Yucatan came to an end, and the bill never reached a vote."

Mr. Polk (1848) sent a message to Congress stating that Yucatan had declared its independence of Mexico, and had offered the sovereignty of the country either to the United States or to England; he further stated that the Indians there were conducting a destructive war against the whites, and he declared that the occupation of Yucatan by England would be an infringement of the Monroe Doctrine and that we should resist it. Our army was then in Mexico, and there was no more necessity for an act of Congress to authorize it to protect the inhabitants from Indians than to storm Chapultepec. As the debate in the Senate shows, the real object of the message was to prevent England from occupying the country. When Mr. Hannegan saw the bill would be beaten, he let himself down easy by moving its postponement; alleging the very inadequate reason that the *Indians had stopped killing the white people.* Mr. Calhoun, John Davis (Senator from Massachusetts), and others denied that the Monroe Doctrine had any application to the case. Mr. Niles said there was no evidence that the designs of England had been abandoned, if they ever existed; the argument of humanity had been given up - the argument of policy remained. The appeal to humanity was a mere makeshift, and was not made an issue in the debate.

(2.) Mr. Lodge says of the Monroe Doctrine that "Mr. Calhoun is the only American statesman of any standing who has tried to limit its scope."

If he will read Mr. Adams's messages explaining the object of the Panama mission, and the debates in Congress upon it, he will see that all of the statesmen of that day repudiate the construction now put upon Mr. Monroe's declaration by Mr. Lodge. In his 'Life of Webster,' speaking of his speech on the Panama mission, Mr. Lodge says: "He made a full and final exposition of the intent of the Monroe Doctrine." True, he did make a full exposition of it, and he gave it the same limited scope and interpretation that Mr. Calhoun did in his Yucatan speech. It was not final, however, for Mr. Lodge has given an entirely different exposition of it. Both say that there is no general rule as to the circumstances that will justify armed intervention in the conflicts of other nations. Both Calhoun and Webster say that nothing but manifest, imminent danger can justify such interference. Mr. Webster thought that if a European armament were sent against Chili and took possession of the country, it would not be a *casus belli* with us because Chili is so distant, but that it would be different, by reason of its proximity, if it landed in Cuba. Mr. Calhoun said the same thing. Mr. Lodge says if England takes a strip of land in Venezuela to which the United States thinks she is not entitled, it would justify war. It is all the same to him whether she is near or far away.

(3.) Mr. Lodge quotes the two declarations of Mr. Monroe's message and joins them together, as if they related to the same subject-matter. He thereby perverts and distorts Mr. Monroe's meaning and creates a false impression. If read in connection with their context, it will be seen that they relate to entirely different subjects—one to the designs of the Holy Alliance in Spanish America, the other to the negotiation then pending with Russia about the Northwest (Oregon) Territory. It is supposed by many that Mr. Monroe said that the United States *would not permit* any European Power to colonize on either of these continents. He said nothing of the kind. He did say that there was no longer any territory *subject* to colonization by a European Power. Now, as Mr. Adams's correspondence with the American Minister to Russia, and his special messages to Congress explanatory of the objects of the Panama mission, and Mr. Clay's dispatch to Mr. Poinsett, show, the declaration simply meant that the whole eminent domain of the two continents had become vested in independent civilized nations, and was no longer subject to colonization by right of prior discovery and occupation. But this would not exclude the right of acquisition by treaty or conquest.

(4.) Mr. Lodge says that slavery was the cause of the failure of the Panama Congress. It may have inspired some of the opposition to the mission; it had nothing to do with its failure. Bolivar had put the same interpretation on the Monroe message that Mr. Lodge does, viz., that it implied a promise of a defensive alliance and protectorate over Spanish America. Hence the United States were invited to participate in the Congress. The disavowal of any such purpose by the friends of the mission in the United States destroyed the illusion. The South American deputies never attended it; the American ministers went and found nothing but yellow fever and mosquitoes. One of them died. The mission was an abortion.

JNO. S. MOSBY.

SAN FRANCISCO, January 16, 1896.

AMERICAN HATRED OF ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your editorial on American hatred of England omits two or three factors. One of these is the influence of the school histories in use a generation and more ago. Every one of these books that I read in my youth was pervaded with a distinct anti-British animus. The conduct of Great Britain in the Revolutionary war and the war of 1812 was placed in an odious light. It cannot be said that they were incorrect; but when the facts were presented without reference to the civilization of the times, the inevitable conviction produced in our minds was that every British soldier was a fiend of a peculiarly malignant type, and that every British officer was his abettor. When the antipathy thus engendered had somewhat subsided, the attitude of the English ruling class towards the North, and their outspoken sympathy with the South in the late rebellion, did much to kindle it afresh.

Again, Irish influence in this country is a perennial instigation to our hatred of the English. Nobody need be told what a powerful factor the Irish-Americans are in our politics, and five-sixths of them are animated by the most intense animosity against the English Government and the English people. How far this animosity is justifiable it does not here concern us to inquire—the fact is patent to the most superficial observer. There is, I imagine, hardly a community in any of the Northern States in which the Irish are not making an active propaganda of hatred against the English both by lectures and by newspapers. As our sympathies are always with the injured party, the effect of this crusade of words is easy to predict. As the defence is but feebly represented, or not at all, the resulting mental state of our public would be easy to imagine even if we did not see it. CHAS. W. SUPER.

JANUARY 20, 1896.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Might I suggest, as an additional reason for the hatred of England in the United States, the Englishman's habit of giving his critical faculties full sway wherever he goes? He comes to this country for the first time under the impression that he is visiting his nearest relations, and may therefore speak as freely as if he were dealing with things at home. Only time teaches him that Englishmen are foreigners in America, while Americans in England are always Americans—the term "foreigner"

being generally reserved for non English-speaking peoples.—I am, sincerely yours,

HERBERT SKINNER.

COLORADO SPRINGS, COL., January 20, 1896.

ADAM SMITH ON PROHIBITORY DUTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In spite of Mr. Rae's care, he has overlooked some interesting letters of Adam Smith. Among them, I think the following is of the highest interest. Much as he had written on bounties and prohibitions, I know of no confession of ignorance so pertinent as his discovery that not a rag of his clothing was on his back legally, but in defiance of the law. I believe this letter has been in print, and on my copy is marked "*Athenæum*, 7 April, 1860"; but it is sufficiently interesting to be again printed. WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

WASHINGTON, January 20, 1896.

ADAM SMITH TO WM. EDEN.

EDINBURGH, 3rd of January, 1780.

DEAR SIR:

It gives me very great pleasure to hear of the success of your letters to Lord Carlisle. I acknowledge I was not a little anxious about the success of a pamphlet which abused no party and no person, and which represented the state of public affairs as less desperate than it is commonly believed to be. The nation, I hope, is coming both into better humour and better spirits than I believed it to be. Besides the editions you mention, your letters have gone through an edition even in this narrow country.

I do not know how to thank you for the very honourable mention you have made of me. It does not occur to me that much can be added to what you have already said. The difficulty of inventing new taxes, or increasing the old, is, I apprehend, the principal cause of our embarrassment. Besides a strict attention to economy, there appears to me to be three very obvious methods by which the public revenue can be increased without laying any new burthen upon the people. The first is a repeal of all bounties upon exportation. These in Scotland and England amount to about 300,000*l.* a year, exclusive of the bounty upon corn, which, in some years, has amounted to a sum equal to all the other bounties. It will probably amount to a very considerable sum this year. When we cannot find taxes to carry on a defensive war, our merchants ought not to complain if we refuse to tax ourselves any longer in order to support a few feeble and languishing branches of their commerce.

The second is a repeal of all prohibitions of importation, whether absolute or circumstantial, and the substitution of moderate and reasonable duties in the room of them. A prohibition can answer no purpose but that of monopoly. No revenue can arise from it but in consequence of its violation and of the forfeiture of the prohibited goods. Instead of encouraging, it commonly prevents the improvement and extension of the branch of industry it is meant to promote. Dutch cured herrings cannot be imported, upon forfeiture of ship and cargo. They are, however, vastly superior to British cured; you can scarce imagine the difference. The price of a barrel of British cured herrings is about a guinea, and that of the Dutch, I imagine, is nearly the same. Instead of the prohibition, lay a tax of half-a guinea a barrel upon Dutch herrings Dutch herrings, will, in this case, sell in Great Britain at 33*s.* or 34*s.*; a circumstance which will confine them altogether to the tables of the better sort of people. The British curers will immediately endeavour to get this high price, and, by superior care and cleanliness, to raise their goods to an equality with the Dutch, and this emulation will, probably, in five or six years' time, raise the manufacture to a degree of improvement which at present I despair of its attaining to in fifty or sixty years. Our fisheries may then rival the Dutch in foreign markets, where at present they cannot come into competition with them, and the manufacture may not only be much improved, but greatly extended. Prohibitions do not prevent the importation of the prohibited goods. They are bought everywhere, in a fair way of trade, by people who are not in the least aware that they are buying them. About a week after I was made a Commissioner of the Customs, upon looking over the list of prohibited goods (which is hung up in every Custom House, and which is well worth your considering), and upon my examining my own wearing apparel, I found, to my great astonishment, that I had scarce a stock, a cravat, a pair of ruffles, or a pocket-handkerchief, which was not prohibited to be worn or used in Great Britain. I wished to set an example, and burnt them all. I will not advise you to examine either your own or Mrs. Eden's apparel or household furniture, lest you be brought into a scrape of the same kind. The sole effect of a prohibition is, to hinder the revenue from profiting by the importation. All those high duties, which make it scarce possible to trade fairly in the goods upon which they are imposed, are equally hurtful to the revenue, and equally favorable to smuggling, as absolute prohibitions. It is difficult to say what such a repeal of all prohibitions, and of such exorbitant duties as are scarce ever fairly paid, might produce. I imagine it would produce a still greater sum than the repeal of all bounties, provided a reasonable tax was always substituted in the room both of the exorbitant tax and of the prohibition.

The third is, a repeal of the prohibition of exporting wool, and a substitution of a pretty high duty in the room of it. The price of wool is now lower than in the time of Edward the Third, because now it is confined to the market of Great Britain, whereas then the market of the world was open to it. The low price of wool tends to debase the quality of the commodity, and may thus hurt the woollen manufacture in one way as much as it may benefit it in another. By this prohibition, besides, the interest of the grower is evidently sacrificed to the interest of the manufacturer. A real tax is laid upon the one for the benefit of the other. In old times a duty upon the exportation of wool was the most important branch of the customs.

I heartily congratulate you upon the unexpected good temper of Ireland. I trust in God that Administration will be wise and steady enough not to disappoint that people in any one thing they have given them reason to expect. Give them as much more as you will, but never throw out a single hint that you wish to give them anything less. Remember me to all friends, and believe me to be, with great esteem and regard, dear sir, most entirely yours,

ADAM SMITH.

CARELESS MAGAZINE WRITING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In *Harper's Magazine* for November, which arrived here yesterday morning, I have just read Julian Ralph's second story of Anglo-Chinese life, entitled "Plumblossom Beebe's Adventures," illustrated by C. D. Weldon. The tale touches the seamy side of life in a Treaty Port, and to the great uninitiated public of America it will probably seem a picturesque and accurate delineation of facts. Julian Ralph is a clever journalist, well practised in taking superficial notes of what he sees, and in holding his pitcher-ear wide open for the yarns he may hear, all with a view to working up literary material of his own. I give him full credit for what he has accomplished, but it is the merest hack-work at best. We have all been laughing at his "pidgin English" out here—we call it Ralphese, for it is nowhere spoken in China as his characters speak it.

Pidgin English is not in the least like "English baby prattle," as Julian Ralph states on page 946 of the magazine. Of course, to a globe-trotter it may sound so for a few days, but as soon as he tries to obtain a serious knowledge of it, he should not fail to see that it is a very valuable compromise between Chinese grammar and phonetics and those of European nations. It is not a haphazard, meaningless babble, invented to soothe small children; it has regular rules of construction, and is not left to the individual whim of a globe-trotter.

On the first page of his story Ralph exhausts his smattering of the lingo, and says in excuse, "The pidgin English is too confusing to follow farther." Why did he begin? Let me give the Ralphese and the real pidgin-English of page 942 of the magazine, in parallel columns:

RALPHESE.	PIDGIN-ENGLISH.
"He comes some other side, in countly," said the go-between. "He belong kidnap girl—some man have tief her.* Been tlained singsong girl, but no can do: no gottee good voice. He velly good girl—can plomise† he alle time have been velly good."	"He have come other side countlee. He belong stealum girlee—some tief man catchee he. Have teachee he do sing song girlee pidgin, he no good, no can sing ploper. That girlee heart velly good—can secure he allo time have velly good."
"But she is not alive," said Sam. "No belong girl — belong wooden t'ing. What for she no move no laugh no belong alive girl? Have makee die? My wantschee one-piece gal can makee play-pidgin, makee laugh makee chin-chin."	"He no belong 'live." "No belong girlee—belong one piecee wood. What for he no makee move, no makee laugh, no belong 'live girlee? He have makee die? My wantchee one piecee girlee can makee play, makee laugh, can talkee-talkee."

*Nominative and objective cases are identical in Chinese, therefore in pidgin English. There is only one third-personal pronoun, which in Chinese is "*ta*," translated *he* in English, but in reality masculine or feminine according to context.

†"Plomise" is not pidgin-English but Ralphese. The word is *secure*, pronounced "secuah."

It is high time that the up-to-date journalist abroad were taught not to dabble in what he knows nothing of. On page 946 there is nearly a column of utterly uncalled for vituperation of foreign residents in China as a class. They, however, entertained him hospitably when he was here, filled him with food and drink and his literary knapsack with provender, which he has shamefully wasted. It is not true that we "repeat the silliest and most cruel lies that can be found in books upon China," such, for instance, as "that all Chinese eat dogs and rats, slaughter or sell their girl babies, beat their wives and often kill them, have no hearts, never show affection, never bathe or wash, and so on *ad infinitum*." These statements, it is true, appear in most books about China, because most books about China are written by folk who have spent three or four months in the country.

James Payn's 'By Proxy' is absurd, so far as accuracy is concerned, and so is Hannan's 'A Swallow's Wing'; but both those stories of China, written many years ago, are excellent literature compared with Ralph's realistic romances. Jules Verne's 'Tribulations of a Chinaman' is also superior. D. T.

SHANGHAI, December 19, 1895.

THE EXPLORATION OF CORINTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Since completing the excavations at the Argive Heraion and at Eretria, the American School at Athens remains without a field for explorations. The Germans are occupied with their work on the supposed site of the ancient agora of Athens; the French are still busy at Delphi; and the English are likely to begin

excavations the coming spring on the island of Melos. As yet the explorations of the Americans have not identified themselves with any of the chief centres of ancient Greek life. The work at Assos, Thorikos, Anthedon, Sikyon, Ikaria, Eretria was all of it admirably successful, and yielded results which are of permanent value. The excavations at the Argive Heraion were the most extensive and the most complete of any, and very rich in results, but they involved the exploration of a single cult-site, isolated from the city which names it by a distance of several miles. Though this comes nearest to being a site of first importance of all which the Americans have undertaken to explore, it cannot, of course, rank with the Olympia of the Germans nor the Delphi of the French.

In looking about for a place for further work, Dr. Richardson has been attracted to Corinth. Though the second city in general importance in ancient Greece, practically nothing has as yet been done toward its exploration. The Germans some years ago dug about the foundations of the ancient Doric temple, of which several columns are still standing, sufficiently to determine its ground plan. Nothing whatsoever has been done, however, to fix the topography of the ancient city, nor to locate with certainty even one of the many temples and monuments which Pausanias saw in the agora and its neighborhood. There is not so much as a well-established theory as to even the approximate location of the agora. The theatre, usually the easiest thing to identify among the ruins of an ancient city, has not yet been found, though Pausanias speaks of it twice, and locates it definitely between two temples standing outside and in general to the west or southwest of the agora. The ancient Doric temple mentioned above is frequently called a temple of Athena, but utterly without authority or competent reason. The entire site of this great city, whose walls, according to Strabo, involved a circuit of forty stadia, remains a totally unexplored field. And yet there are abundant evidences that excavations would be rewarded by immediate results. The ancient fountains of which Pausanias makes emphatic mention, and which he treats as landmarks, are still to be seen, together with the colossal aqueducts hewn out of the solid rock which conveyed their water supply. At one place on the vast terrace which probably formed the site for the central part of the city, there can be seen the outlines of the foundations of some great edifice making still a hillock in the midst of a wheat-field; close beside, there protrudes from the earth, as if tempting investigation, a colossal column-drum.

Most of the territory which would invite the first exploration is free from dwellings. The ancient agora lies perhaps partly under a group of shabby huts grouped about an ancient fountain that may well represent the fountain which Pausanias speaks of as being in the agora. The only difficulty which could attend an attempt at excavation would be found in the fact that the land is private property; but, undoubtedly, permission to dig at different points in the fields can be readily obtained sufficiently to make a beginning of the work and to secure the first orientations in the topography. The Greek Government and the local authorities have shown themselves friendly to the undertaking, and seem ready to help in every way.

The only question seems to be the one of ways and means. The school has but $500 available for excavations this year. If it undertakes Corinth, it ought to have $2,000 a year for five years. The German and French Schools depend for such funds upon their respective Governments. We have a better and, I believe, a safer reliance in the generosity and public spirit of our citizens. It is a great opportunity and worthy to be ranked as a national cause.

The address of the treasurer of the School is Mr. Gardiner M. Lane, No 44 State Street, Boston, Mass. BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL,
ATHENS, GREECE, January 8, 1896.

Notes.

AN anonymous reply to Max Nordau, 'Regeneration,' is on the eve of publication by G. P. Putnam's Sons. Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler furnishes an introduction.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'Comedies of Courtship,' short stories by Anthony Hope, and 'A Lady of Quality,' in Queen Anne's time, by Mrs. Frances Hodgson Burnett.

Macmillan & Co. will publish Alfred Austin's new poem, 'England's Darling'; 'Social Interpretations of the Principles of Mental Development,' by Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; 'An Outline of Psychology,' by Prof. E. B. Titchener of Cornell; and 'An Ethical Movement,' by W. L. Sheldon.

In view of the approaching revival of the Olympic games at Athens, a quarto album, 'Die Olympischen Spiele 776 v. Ch.—1896,' beautifully and copiously illustrated in the text, and edited by Profs. Lambros and Politis and Dr. Christomanos, has been undertaken by the University bookseller in Athens, C. Beck (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The two parts into which the work is divided deal with ancient and modern athletics respectively.

A second, revised and greatly enlarged edition of Potthast's 'Wegweiser durch die Geschichtswerke des Europäischen Mittelalters bis 1500' will be issued in August by W. Weber, Berlin (New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer). The Roman letter will be used, and the page will be remarkably clear for ready reference. The Bollandist 'Acta Sanctorum,' Bouquet's 'Rerum Gallicarum et Francicarum Scriptores,' the Abbé Migne's 'Patrologie,' the 'Monumenta Germaniæ Historica,' Muratori's collections, etc., are some of the labyrinths threaded by this "pathfinder."

Mrs. Darmesteter's 'Froissart' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is a graceful sketch of a literary life five hundred years ago. By careful study, Froissart's poems along with the chronicles are made to yield the slender thread of narrative, and contemporary illustrations are reproduced. Through the scholarly courtesy of M. Longnon, the author is able to give an account of Froissart's long-lost poetic romance of chivalry, 'Méliador.' This work disappeared in 1440, and nothing was known of it until M. Longnon, by a combination of sagacity and good fortune, unearthed it in the National Library in November, 1893. Mrs. Darmesteter believes that M. Longnon and herself enjoy the singular but hardly enviable distinction of being the only persons in 400 years who have followed its "linked sweetness long drawn out" to the bitter end of its 30,600 lines.

Prof. J. Shield Nicholson has made some additions to his 'Treatise on Money and Essays on Monetary Problems,' in the third edition which now appears (Macmillan). The additions are directed to the further explanation of the "quantity theory" in the light of the great increase of the production of gold and its accumulation in the vaults of the Bank of England. This ought to bring about a higher level of prices, which in Prof. Nicholson's opinion has not been attained because of the continued depreciation of silver. In order to give room for this additional matter, two essays which had little relation to monetary science have been omitted.

In 'Missions and Mission Philanthropy,' by John Goldie (Macmillan), we have an ill-written but suggestive book. The author gives it as his conclusion, after twenty years of charitable work and meditation upon charitable theory, that what he calls "natural philanthropy" (which is philanthropy based on natural law and dispensed by individuals, not organizations) offers the only hope there is for the elevation of the needy poor. All organized charities, he maintains, create more impostors than the worthy they relieve. The philanthropic impulse he finds in general to be too sentimental and subjective, and philanthropists more in need of instruction than the poor. The air of paradox which these contentions wear, together with Mr. Goldie's very untrimmed style and decided weakness in exposition of what he thinks the true theory and practice of philanthropy, will doubtless repel the readers who would most profit by his critical chapters.

Many efforts at elaborate illustration of a volume by a number of associated artists have been made, but few of them have been very successful. The latest of these, 'A London Garland' (Macmillan), is, on the whole, no exception to the rule. We noticed, some weeks ago, the list of distinguished names among the draughtsmen who have contributed to this venture of the London Society of Illustrators, and, as might be expected from them, the volume contains much excellent work; as might also, perhaps, have been expected, it is quite lacking in unity and decorative harmony. The illustrations are not only in many styles and many mediums, but of very various sizes and of different relations (or no relation) to the page. We have here a large etching by Seymour Haden, ruthlessly shorn of margin, and near it a little one by W. L. Wyllie, which is an island in a sea of white paper; a long upright by E. H. New, and an oblong landscape by A. R. Quinton, each more awkwardly placed than the other on the square page; and the extremes of hard precision and vague softness in the drawings of Sandys and of Whistler and Arthur Tomson. The result is interesting, but it is not good book-making. What we like best in the volume is the truly decorative headings designed by Mr. R. Anning Bell.

The December *Portfolio* (Macmillan) is devoted to a monograph on the early Dutch painter and miniaturist, Gerard David, by W. H. James Weale, that artist's discoverer. This monograph is as dry reading as a catalogue, being crammed with little but exact and detailed description of David's works and some discussion of their authenticity. As art criticism it has no existence, but it should prove a useful collection of facts. The illustrations show us in David an interesting artist of about the rank of Van der Weyden.

The third and concluding volume of Dr. Heinrich von Poschinger's 'Fürst Bismarck und die Parlamentarier' (Breslau: Trewendt) consists chiefly of Bismarck's remarks during some twenty sessions of the Imperial Diet and the Prussian Assembly from 1879 to 1890. The last sixty-three pages contain addenda to the second volume, the results of recent researches touching the career of the German statesman from 1847 to 1879. There is a full index of

proper names and another of topics to all three volumes.

The last volume of Brockhaus's 'Konversations-Lexikon' has just appeared, completing the fourteenth edition, which is published in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of the Lexikon. The encyclopædia of one hundred years ago, with its six small volumes without illustration, has grown to sixteen volumes, each of which is twice as large as those of the first edition, making the whole thirty-two times as large as the original. The present edition is in every sense up to the times, and the efforts of the publishers and the four hundred contributors have made it a monument to German scholarship and art. It contains more than 126,000 articles, about 10 000 illustrations in the text and on 980 inserts, and 300 maps and charts. Throughout the work special attention has been given to Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Switzerland. Among the most interesting articles of the last volume may be mentioned "Vereinigte-Staaten," with five maps, "Uebersicht des Weltverkehrs," "Vierwaldstättersee," and "Wien," with several maps and inserts.

Meyer's 'Nürnberger Faustgeschichten' is the publication of several stories which were recently found by Mr. Meyer in a manuscript of the library at Karlsruhe. This manuscript was prepared by the Nuremberg schoolmaster Rosshirt, who died in 1586, and it contains some Faust stories which Rosshirt wrote, according to the Nuremberg tradition, and which give us an insight into the manner in which the Faust saga developed from the death of Faust (1540) to the publication of the first *Faustbuch* (1587). Especially attractive is the story of how Faust, while lecturing at the university in Ingolstadt, took several of his companions on a journey through the air to the wedding of the King of England. There is also a new version of the events just before Faust's descent into hell. In these stories Faust has the given name Georg, as in the case of some of the earlier traditions. By way of introduction, Mr. Meyer reviews the history of the historical Dr. Faust and of the older Faust traditions, in which he brings out many points entirely new or heretofore not sufficiently emphasized.

The first parts of an illustrated history of Swedish literature by H. Schück and K. Warburg have recently appeared in Stockholm. The general treatment is similar to that of Koenig's German and P. Hansen's Danish work. A special feature is the division of the labor between the two authors; Prof. Schück, who contributed the article on early Swedish literature to Paul's 'Grundriss,' treating of the periods before 1718, and Prof. Warburg, who is the author of an excellent short history of Swedish literature besides a number of critical biographies, having charge of the periods since 1718. The names of the authors are a sufficient guarantee that this work will be not mere compilation, but a real contribution to Swedish thought.

Mme. Edgar Quinet, in 'La France Idéale' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), has set a worthy example of conjugal devotion and of love of country. Her high regard for the opinions of her husband (who died twenty years ago, at the age of seventy-two) is shown on nearly every page, if now and then to the disparagement of other men of letters (as Fustel de Coulanges and Renan). The tone of the essays is moralizing throughout, serious but in the main hopeful, liberal as to political and religious matters; and reminds one in various ways of the "Immortel Absent" from whom the writer draws so much of her inspiration. In spite of several strange incongruities and inconsistencies, the author's evident desire to contribute to the moral elevation of the growing generation in France is likely to be fulfilled by this book.

Readers and students at the Bibliothèque Nationale in Paris have rather a gloomy outlook before them in respect of the new catalogue. They have just been told that they will be very lucky if the year 1900 finds them in possession of it. For more than twenty-five years the whole force at the library has been engaged in this enormous work. The subject-catalogues have already been finished; the present question is, in what way these should be fused into a whole. Unhappily there has been much disagreement among the librarians on this point. It was determined at last, more than a year ago, to appoint a commission of eminent men of letters and of science, to whom should be submitted all the different plans, and the documents were placed in its hands. No report has yet been made by this commission, for the simple but somewhat astonishing reason that it has not as yet held a single meeting.

Among the new periodicals of the new year we remark *American Resorts*, published at No. 59 Dearborn Street, Chicago, on the 15th of each month, with abundant illustrations; and, in quite another vein, *Terrestrial Magnetism*, an international quarterly journal emanating from the Ryerson Physical Laboratory of the University of Chicago. All languages capable of being printed in the Roman letter will be admitted. No journal of the kind is now in existence.

In the current number of the *Virginia Magazine of History and Biography* Mr. Edward W. James has another slave-holding census to exhibit, for Abingdon Parish, Gloucester Co., Va., April, 1786. The largest number of slaves held by a single owner was 160, and 143 and 116 are also recorded. For 98 owners there were 1,151 slaves. We notice also an account of a judicial burning of a female slave for poisoning her master, in Orange Co., Va., in 1745; and a list of Virginia portraits by St.-Mémin in the Corcoran Art Gallery at Washington.

Africa is the absorbing topic in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January. Mr. H. S. Cowper gives an account of a recent journey in Tripoli made for the purpose of examining the remains of its ancient megalithic temples. In a comparatively small district he discovered nearly sixty sites, and learned of the existence of numerous others. The oldest structures are trilithonic in shape, the only monuments now standing which parallel them being the great trilithons of Stonehenge. The suggestion is made that they are "the work of Libyan races largely influenced by contact with the arts and crafts of Phœnician civilization." There is also a description of Ashantee and the Gold Coast, and an interesting notice of Hausaland by the Rev. C. H. Robinson, who states that the Hausa language is spoken by fifteen millions of people, and is one of the four great languages of the continent. Although this race is superior, both intellectually and physically, to all other natives of Equatorial Africa, there is no place in the world "where slavery and slave-raiding are being carried on on so large a scale." This assertion is borne out by the writer's observations during a journey through the country in 1894. "In the course of our march from Kano to Bida, we passed so many towns and villages that we ceased to keep count of them, all of which had been recently destroyed, their inhabitants having been sold as slaves, and this not by any foreign invader, but by the chief in whose territory the places themselves were situated." To Kano, the Manchester of Central Africa, come two million people annually, chiefly for the cotton clothing woven there, and which is to be bought even in the Mediterranean ports.

The *Mouvement Géographique* publishes an interesting letter by M. Wauters giving an account of the new house which was disinterred at Pompeii last December. M. Wauters considers this house to be the most important of all that have been exhumed. The atrium and the peristyle, the mural paintings, the statuettes on their pedestals, and the marble furnishings are perfectly preserved. The peristyle is the chief and most interesting part. The interior court is remarkably large; its portico is decorated by eighteen fine Corinthian columns, supporting an ornamented cornice, which is almost intact. The walls are painted in black and red. Between the columns are set nine magnificent basins of white marble, four tables on chimeras' feet, and nine statuettes representing Bacchuses, Fauns, and Loves, holding geese. The mural painting of the principal room shows a charming frieze of little Loves engaged, some in striking medals, others in glass or coral work, and others still in pouring libations or driving chariots drawn by antelopes. The Directory of the ruins has determined to leave all these objects in place, and not to send them, as is usually done, to the museum at Naples.

The opening article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December consists of notes by Dr. Philippson on his map of the Peloponnesus, showing the cultivated land, vineyards, orchards, gardens, forests, underbrush, meadows, and deserts. He draws rather a melancholy picture of the increasing sterility of the land through the cutting down of the forests and the destruction of the small growth. The map, though drawn from observations made only from six to eight years ago, does not represent present conditions. The cause, for which he can suggest no practical remedy, arises chiefly from the exclusive use of charcoal as fuel, and from the great number of goats kept by the peasantry. Prof. Ruge describes the monumental work published by the Italian Government commemorative of Columbus. It is in six parts in fourteen volumes, the last being a bibliography of all Italian works on Columbus and America. There is also the usual interesting survey of geographical literature for the past year. The number of works important enough to be noticed was 870, a little over a hundred more than last year; the chief gain being in works about Europe. America and Africa also show considerable gains, while there is a surprising falling off in works on Asia. A supplemental number is devoted to an account of a journey by Dr. Radde in the summer of 1894 in Daghestan on the northern slopes of the Caucasus. From it we learn that the recently built railroad connecting the Russian system with the Caspian at Petrovsk had not at that time developed the business which had been confidently expected from it. The new oil wells of Grosny were also proving something of a disappointment, though the daily shipment by rail was said to be over half a million pounds of crude petroleum.

The latest university to open its doors to women is the University of Athens. Five women were enrolled for the winter term, yet not without violent objection from some of the students. It was with difficulty, we learn from the *Academische Revue* of December, that the authorities could restore order. The question divided the students into hostile parties, and two of them went from words to

blows, until finally one shot the other with a revolver at the entrance to the chemical lecture-room. Strange conjunction of the barbarism of the East and of the West at a temple of science in Athens!

The last monthly summary of the 'Finance, Commerce, and Immigration of the United States' (Nov., 1895, corrected to Jan. 10, 1896) contains, in addition to the usual statistical matter, a large diagram of our foreign commerce for the years 1791–1895. The items given for each year are: the domestic exports and the total imports (with a per-capita summary for 1795–1895 by decades), the imports free of duty, and the imports and exports of gold and of silver. The choice of a larger scale for presenting imports and exports of the precious metals than that used for presenting general exports and imports on the same chart is unfortunate. It does all that an appeal to the eye can do to emphasize the mischievous notion that exports of gold were somehow a matter of relatively greater importance, even before 1890, than were exports of pork or of cotton. For the rest, the diagram is admirably clear.

—A movement is now on foot at the University of Cambridge in favor of admitting duly qualified women to degrees. It is felt that so long as women are without status in the University, they lose the moral support which the University is able to give; that, without the dignity of the degree, intellectual efforts directed towards it are discouraged; and that all the benefits which the University has in its power to bestow upon education and learning should be made freely accessible to all students. A series of joint meetings between the Girton Executive Committee, a committee of the Council of Newnham, and certain resident members of the Senate have been held recently, and, as a result, a memorial has been agreed upon "requesting the Council of the Senate to nominate a Syndicate to consider on what conditions and with what restrictions, if any, women should be admitted to Degrees in the University." This memorial is now in circulation among the members of the Senate and has received many signatures. The meetings were presided over by Dr. Henry Sidgwick, Knightsbridge Professor of Moral Philosophy in the University, and by Dr. Peile, the Master of Christ's College, who are guiding the movement. The success of the women students at both Oxford and Cambridge makes the question of admitting them to degrees daily more pressing, and, with a like agitation going on at this time at Oxford, the prospects of full University membership for women in England are brightening. Logically, there is but one solution of this problem—to admit women to degrees; but whether the fulness of time has arrived, it remains for this well organized and ably conducted effort to determine.

—In a book of a hundred pages, 'Social Changes in England in the Sixteenth Century, as reflected in Contemporary Literature: Part I., Rural Changes,' Prof. E. P. Cheyney has collected and arranged the material to be found in contemporary literature for the history of the agrarian revolution in Tudor England. This monograph, one of the publications of the University of Pennsylvania, issued by Ginn & Co., would, perhaps, have presented a more scholarly appearance if its author had made more clear to his readers the extent to which he builds on the works of previous writers, and if he had explained more explicitly the character of his own contribution. And even if he did not deem it wise to enter into a discussion of the very difficult legal questions raised by the eviction of the customary tenants, it would have been well to indicate what the problems are which still remain for solution. But the collection of passages he has here brought together and printed, mostly in full, will be very handy for the student of economic history. It certainly shows that but little more light on the subject is to be expected from the study of Tudor literature. Mr. Cheyney has reaped that field pretty thoroughly; later gleanings are not likely to add much to our knowledge, and we must now turn to "sources" of another kind. The student of literature also—to whom, perhaps, the monograph more particularly appeals—will be thankful to get so clear and untechnical an account of a movement which vitally affected the life and thought of the English people.

—A French scholar of eminence, a really erudite critic, M. H. d'Arbois de Jubainville, member of the Institute and of many learned societies, makes a somewhat remarkable confession in a recent number of the *Revue Critique*. He says that he had often heard tell of Freeman, and many times had read in the English reviews high praise of his qualities as an historian, but that not one single word of his had ever come before his eyes until, happening by chance one day to be at the office of the *Revue Critique*, he saw lying on the table the first volume of the 'History of Sicily,' by the great English writer. This was not the original text, but the German translation published last year at Leipzig by Teubner. M. d'Arbois opened the volume and ran through some pages of it, and was "ravi par le talent de l'auteur, qui, chose extraordinaire, était à la fois un érudit et un grand historien." And so he asked the editor to intrust the volume to him for review, and carried it away with him. Mingled with the pleasure that he found in his new acquaintance, he found in himself also a certain sense of shame that he had not sooner known so remarkable a work, and that he was reading for the first time—in a German translation published at Leipzig in 1895—a book which had appeared at Oxford in 1891, and which covered, in part, ground which he himself had traversed in various studies and writings. A visit to the library of the Institute and to that of the University brought him some slight, but rather sad, consolation. He found in each the 'History of Sicily' in English, but the two publics which frequent these libraries had been as remiss in the study of Freeman as he himself. At both, the volumes were intact: not a leaf had been cut. This is a story which one word of comment would mar; but one may permit himself to imagine what would be said of an English or American scholar who confessed entire ignorance of any French writer who could be considered anything like Freeman's equivalent. With all the gain in patient work, and the accuracy that comes from patient work, which French scholars and writers have shown during the past five-and-twenty years, it is still Candide's maxim that they follow most. They cultivate their garden, but without looking over its hedge very much; and they seem not so conscious as it would be wise to be of its true breadth and length.

—A recent discovery made by the distinguished physicist, Prof. Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen of the University of Würzburg, is now exciting considerable interest in Germany, where it is being subjected to a thorough examination by scientific men. By means of the rays proceeding from Crookes's radiometer under the influence of electrical induction, Prof. Röntgen succeeded in photographing on ordinary photographic plates. These rays which are wholly imperceptible to the eye, and the existence of which has been hitherto unsuspected, have the power of penetrating all kinds of wood and other organic substances and solid bodies, except metals and bones, which are alone capable of resisting them. Thus the photograph of a wooden box in which iron weights are enclosed, shows only the iron weights; the box leaves no impression whatever on the photographic plate, the electric rays passing through it just as the ordinary rays of light pass through the air or any perfectly transparent object. The same is true of flesh. A photograph of the hand or the leg shows only the bones; the photograph of a man, whether clothed or naked, is merely a human skeleton with a watch or a ring, if he happens to wear them. Neither his clothing nor his flesh offers the slightest resistance to the rays, which are also unaffected by sunlight, so that the photographic process can be carried on anywhere in the daytime. The importance of this discovery in its application to surgery as an aid to diagnosis in cases of disease or fracture of the bones is apparent. The photograph would reveal immediately and unmistakably the nature of the disorder without the long and often painful examination which the patient is now obliged to undergo. In a case of complicated fractures another photograph can be taken after the bones have been set, in order to ascertain whether the dislocation has been properly reduced or the broken parts have been rightly replaced. The exact position of a bullet or the splinter of shell can also be easily found without the use of a surgeon's probe. In all probability the process can be perfected and modified so as to photograph the heart, lungs, liver, and other internal organs, and thus determine their precise condition; at present, however, these organs offer no resistance to the rays, and therefore leave no impression on the plate. Some months ago Prof. Röntgen read a paper on this subject entitled, "Über eine neue Art von Strahlen," and printed in the proceedings (*Sitzungsberichte*) of the Würzburg Physikalische Medicinische Gesellschaft. This report has now been issued in pamphlet form by the university publisher, Stahel, in Würzburg.

—A striking periodical, entitled *Biographische Blaetter*, edited by Dr. Anton Bettelheim of Vienna and published by Ernst Hofmann & Co. in Berlin (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), has just completed the first year of its existence. It is a quarterly magazine of 130 octavo pages, dealing with the art, or, as we must henceforth call it, science, of biography, its methods of inquiry, its raw material, and its literary form. The list of associates who have pledged Dr. Bettelheim their permanent support contains many of the best-known names among the historians and literary men of Germany, and gives to the work an assurance of substantial value. The prospectus groups the subject-matter under four general heads: (1) treatises on the theory and historical development of biography and autobiography, with critical analyses of the methods pursued by the great masters of biographical writing; (2) biographical and autobiographical studies and essays; (3) confessions derived from unprinted or not easily accessible sources, in so far as they serve to illustrate the history of civilization and man-

ners (*Culturgeschichte*); (4) biographical miscellanies, necrologies, and a full bibliography of current publications relating to biography and autobiography, together with short reviews of the most important works. From the first three numbers, which are now before us, we may form some estimate of the value and scope of the undertaking, and it is much to be able to state that the rich promise of the ambitious prospectus is in large measure fulfilled. The enterprise seems to have had its origin in the conviction that the art of writing biographies, hitherto practised in all the irresponsible confidence of ignorance by any henchman of letters, should be scientifically formulated, and the laws of biographical technique be defined and established. With this purpose in view, Dr. Ludwig Stein of Berne has discussed in a tentative and modest way the "Methodenlehre der Biographik." Limitations of space forbid us to go into detail concerning other excellent articles. Of special interest to the English reader are the personal recollections of the Anglo-German artist, Rudolf Lehmann, who relates what he saw of men so widely separated in their walks of life as Liszt, Sir William Siemens, Pius IX., and Robert Browning. But to the student the most valuable, and henceforth indispensable, feature is the extensive biographical bibliography. This on the German and the Spanish side is particularly full, and it is to be hoped that the other literatures will be taken up in due course.

—The third section of Konrad Miller's 'Die Ältesten Weltkarten' (Stuttgart: Roth; New York: Lemcke & Büchner) covers the smaller maps of the Middle Ages, dating before the circumnavigation of Africa and the exploration of the Western Atlantic. The reproductions are some in sketches, others in photographic representations, and a few are in colored delineations on folded sheets. Most of them are already more or less familiar to such as have access to the atlases of Santarem, Lelewel, and Kretschmer; but they are nowhere else so systematically arranged together. Miller has a further advantage over most of the earlier editors in that he has availed himself of the exactness of the camera, though it must be confessed that the photographic reproductions of such old maps are a sore trial to all but the expert in the deciphering of names and legends. Dr. Miller does all that could be hoped for in aiding the student in this respect, and his collation of the inscriptions gives a distinctive character to his work for completeness and accuracy. Most of his originals are found in different copies, almost wholly as illustrative adjuncts of manuscript treatises, which are scattered over Europe in the larger libraries. While the author enumerates these various copies, as a rule, he commonly selects but one of each kind for his annotations. The series begins with a map from a Saint Jerome MS. of the fourth century in the British Museum. For the next century we have the type of discs used by Macrobius; for the sixth, those fashioned after the Cosmas figure. Beginning with the tenth century the specimens are more frequent. We find them annexed to psalters, like one of the thirteenth century in the British Museum; to encyclopædic treatises, like that of Canon Lambert of the twelfth century; to chronicles, like those of Matthew of Paris (thirteenth century) and Higden of Chester (fourteenth century); and, among various other sources, to codices of Sallust. The only one which Miller gives that has any direct interest for the student of the age of exploration westward from Europe is the map of Andrea Bianco, of 1436, which has long been perhaps the most familiar of the entire series.

—The impetus given to the study of the Italian dialects by Ascoli and the foundation of the *Archivio Glottologico* has resulted in a long series of works most creditable to Italian scholarship. A recent publication belonging to this class may be briefly mentioned here, especially as it possesses a more general literary interest than usual. The popular sacred drama has always flourished in Italy, and it is one of the few countries in Europe where it still survives. How extensive these survivals are may be seen in the second edition of D'Ancona's 'Origini del teatro italiano.' These popular sacred plays are, however, rapidly dying out everywhere, and must be collected at once if collected at all. One of the few relics of the Piedmontese popular sacred drama has been rescued from oblivion by Rodolfo Renier in a volume before us, entitled, 'Il "Gelindo," drama sacro piemontese della Natività di Cristo' (Turin: Carlo Clausen). This play on the subject of the Nativity probably originated in the seventeenth century, and has since undergone many changes to suit it to the taste and dialect of the various places in which it was performed. The body of the play (which is made up of the legend of Ara coeli, the adoration of the shepherds, the adoration of the Magi, and the slaughter of the Innocents) is in Italian, but the seven shepherds and shepherdesses use the dialect of Upper Montferrat. It is well known that in the mediæval sacred drama a large place was allotted to the comic element. In the present play there was no opportunity for it except with the shepherds, who are represented as typical Piedmontese peasants carried back eighteen centuries into the miraculous life of Palestine. It is with the dialect of these characters that the editor deals in sixty-seven pages of *illustrazione linguistica*, treating phonetics, morphology, syntax, and lexicography in the most approved scientific manner. This is counterbalanced by a literary disquisition on the popularity of the play (which takes its name from one of the shepherds who has become proverbial in Piedmont), its performance (it is still acted every winter), various versions, chronology, and sources. Incidentally the representation of the Nativity in Art is touched upon, and the book closes with an appendix on the relics of the popular sacred drama in Piedmont. The whole work is marked by the fine scholarship which distinguishes recent Italian work in the fields of philology and literary history.

ENGLISH'S CONQUEST OF THE NORTHWEST.

Conquest of the Country Northwest of the River Ohio, 1778-1783, and Life of General George Rogers Clark, etc. By William Hayden English, President Indiana Historical Society. Indianapolis, Ind., and Kansas City, Mo.: The Bowen-Merrill Company. 1896. 2 vols., royal 8vo, pp. 1,186, more than 125 illustrations.

THE "Northwest" is a fugitive term of widely varying connotation at different times. The American Northwest has receded to Alaska since Revolutionary times, when it first acquired political definition in the style of the "Territory of the U. S. N. W. of the River Ohio," as on the seal of July 13, 1787—that great region which in due course became Ohio, 1803; Indiana, 1816; Illinois, 1818; Michigan, 1837; Wisconsin, 1848; and a part of Minnesota, 1858. Across *la belle rivière* in those days was the Virginian county of Kentucky. On both sides of the same stream was George Rogers Clark, conqueror of the Northwest and founder of Louisville, hero of that great drama whose dénouement nearly doubled the area of the United States. The exploit was unprecedented, and has been but once repeated in that magnificent stroke by which Jefferson redoubled the United States from the Mississippi to the Pacific. The conquest of the Northwest of 1778-'83 is only another name for the life and times of Clark, who first finds his adequate biographer in the author of this great work. The materials were copious; their richness was almost embarrassing; and Mr. English has utilized them all to the utmost advantage. The result is a noble historical and biographical work of permanent value, which at once takes first rank. The story is told with precision and in great detail; it abounds in contemporaneous documentary material of the highest value, and is enriched with a great many facsimiles of letters and autographs, besides portraits, views, maps, and other illustrations.

George Rogers Clark was born November 19, 1752, on Rivanna River in Albemarle County, Va. We have much of his ancestry and early days, introducing us at once to the style of the author's narration—biography and history in minute detail, necessarily somewhat discursive and even diffuse in working up such a mass of materials, but always returning to the main thread after each digression. The famous Illinois campaign was authorized by Patrick Henry, Governor of Virginia, January 2, 1778. His private instructions are given in facsimile, together with the long and eagerly sought letter of the Privy Council of next day, signed by G. Wythe, G. Mason, and Th. Jefferson. The falls of the Ohio to which Clark repaired existed, of course; but Louisville did not. With the opening of the campaign there we are told not a little about the Bowmans, especially Major Joseph, who died August 14, 1779, of injuries received at the capture of Vincennes; of the Harrods, and many other local worthies. Clark wanted 500 men, but mustered only some 150. He reached the falls about May 27, 1778, and camped on Corn Island to organize his force; the small guard he left there became the germ of Louisville. Four of his captains were already Bowman, Helm, Harrod, and Montgomery; Ruddell, Lynn, and others were there added. There were some desertions when his destination was made known. Reckoning 35 or 40 additions, and 10 left as a guard, he prepared to move with about 175 men, and his very weakness spurred him to take desperate chances. He embarked June 24, at the moment of the nearly total eclipse of the sun of 1778, reached Fort Massac in four days, and went overland to Kaskaskia, July 4. The town and fort were captured without firing a gun, and Philip Rochblave made prisoner; Fort Gage became Fort Clark; Simon Kenton appears on the scene, and so does the patriotic priest Pierre Gibault.

Clark then sent a force under Bowman to "Parra de Rushi" (Prairie du Rocher, near the celebrated Fort Chartres); to St. "Philips" (Philippe); to "Cohos" or "Cauhow" (Cahokia), whose fort became Fort Bowman on its capture. The whole line of posts and settlements along the Mississippi thus fell into his hands. At the time of this invasion of the Illinois country, Col. Henry Hamilton was Lieutenant-Governor at Detroit—the "hair-buyer general," as Clark called him—who be-

came the most odious and detested of all the British officers concerned in these operations. The news of the rebel invasion reached him August 8; he left Detroit October 7, with men said to have been 179 in number, went down the river, across the lake, up the Maumee to "Ome" (Indian village "aux Miamis," site of Fort Wayne), over to the "Ouabache" (Wabash), and so on to Fort Sackville in seventy-two days. This was the important Post St. Vincents, in the present Vincennes, Ind., which Clark had meanwhile garrisoned with a detachment under Capt. Helm, then reduced to twenty-one men, while Hamilton's force had increased to several hundred British, French, and Indians. Helm surrendered with honors of war December 17, and Hamilton held the fort.

Rochblave, the last of his Majesty's commanders in the Illinois, had been sent captive to Virginia August 4. The Governor communicated the news of Clark's successes to the delegates in Congress November 16, and that body voted a resolution of thanks November 23, to which Clark replied March 10, 1779. Virginia promptly organized the "County of Illinois," under John Todd, December 12, 1778; Gov. Henry also wrote to Clark the same day, and again January 1, 1779, but Clark does not seem to have been advised of these communications February 3, when he reported the whole situation to the Governor, and outlined his proposed Vincennes campaign; for, as he said, "we must either quit the country or attack Mr. Hamilton."

At Kaskaskia, Clark had but a few more than one hundred men, and could not have moved but for assistance from Francis Vigo (1747–1836), who furnished the sinews of war in an amount, $8,616, which became with interest over $149,898 when finally settled in 1875. On February 4, 1779, the *Willing* dropped down from Kaskaskia with forty-six men, under Lieut. Rogers: the land force was of four or five companies, in all about 170 men. The latter left next day under Clark, by the trail sometimes styled the "Appian Way of Illinois," en route to Vincennes, via present Sparta, Coultersville, Oakdale, Nashville, Walnut Hill, Salem, Maysville, and Lawrenceville, a distance of some 160 to 170 miles, then called 240. The Wabash was crossed just below the mouth of Embarras River February 21, and Clark was on the heights back of Vincennes on the evening of the 23d, after a terrible march, in part over country flooded with icy waters.

It is disputed whether the fort which Clark took is of 1713, named for one Jean Sacqueville, or 1769, for a Lord Sackville; there may easily have been two of different dates, with similar names. The one captured stood on the east bank of the Wabash, between that and First Street, and between Vigo and Baronet Streets, at the foot of Church Street, close to the St. F. Xavier Church of that time, in present Vincennes, Ind. A night attack was made on the 23d; a peremptory demand for surrender next morning; a truce for three days was rejected, a conference held, and Post St. Vincent capitulated, the garrison marching out on the 25th. Clark changed the name to Fort Patrick Henry. The boat *Willing* arrived two days later. Insignificant as may seem to us now the forces in action, this completed the conquest of the Northwest in a short, spirited, and almost bloodless campaign, fraught with far-reaching consequences of great magnitude. It is sad to be obliged to add that the capture of Vincennes proved to be the culminating point of Clark's career.

Chapter xii. continues with various important events on the Wabash in 1779. The cherished project of a campaign against Detroit was in abeyance, but one important expedition up the Wabash captured seven British boats and about forty men, with supplies intended for Fort Sackville. Bowman was dead. Clark returned to the falls of the Ohio and divided his troops between Vincennes, Cahokia, Kaskaskia, and the falls, by general orders of August 5, 1779, thus establishing possession of the country which had been for ever wrested from the British. The appendix to Volume I. is rich with contemporaneous documents of extreme value, relating to the events just sketched, some of them here appearing for the first time in print, and all being additional to such as we have in the main text. They include, among other letters and reports, Bowman's journal of January-March, 1779; Clark's own diary of December 25, 1776–November 22, 1777; the roll of officers and men captured at Fort Sackville, etc.

Volume II. opens with chapter xiv., pp. 605–663, giving a long and circumstantial account of the captivity in Virginia of Hamilton and other prisoners, harshly treated in retaliation for cruelties to American prisoners in other quarters. By the end of the summer of 1779 the little garrison Clark had left on Corn Island had removed to the mainland on the Kentucky side and built a stockade in present Louisville, probably at the foot of Twelfth Street, thus laying the foundation of the city agreeably with Clark's plans. Meanwhile, Jefferson had succeeded to the governorship of Virginia, June 1, 1778. On September 30, 1779, Clark issued orders for a fort on the Mississippi near the mouth of the Ohio, and Fort Jefferson was built early in 1780, when Clark went with a few men to Iron Banks, in present Bullard County, Ky. The American position was still endangered by Indian hostilities, and insecure by reason of an invasion of the British from Michilimackinac. The latter was repelled by Clark, who made a counter raid from his rendezvous at the mouth of the Licking, on to the old Indian town of Chillicothe, with less than 1,000 men, and attacked Piqua, August 8, 1780. This same autumn De la Balme's expedition, with a few men from Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Vincennes, against British posts on the lakes, was defeated by the Miami chief Little Turtle, in the vicinity of the present Fort Wayne. Such operations brought up again Clark's long-cherished plan of an expedition against Detroit. Jefferson approved. Clark was made a brigadier, and arrangements were perfected by which he expected to leave Fort Pitt with 2,000 men in June, 1781. But he failed to secure Continental troops, and the failure of 700 others reduced his total force to about 400. He was to have been reinforced by Col. Lochry; but this officer reached Wheeling, August 8, one day after Clark left, and he was cut off by the Indians, who killed or captured his entire force. This was disaster in itself, and it also frustrated the Detroit campaign—probably the most bitter disappointment of Clark's life.

Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, Va., October 19, 1781. Indian troubles lessened when the natives were no longer instigated or led by the British; the provisional treaty of peace ensued, November 30, 1782; cessation of hostilities was agreed upon at Versailles, January 20, 1783, proclaimed by Congress April 11, concluded at Paris September 3, and ratified January 14, 1784. The cession by Virginia of all her lands northwest of the Ohio was effected March 1, 1784, and the Territory of the Northwest became organized under the ordinance of 1787. The seal bears date of July 13, 1787, with the motto, "Meliorem lapsa locavit." But before the great drama was ended, Clark was ordered off the stage of events. He was relieved of his command July 2, 1783—that is, he was simply dropped. He had never been an officer of the Continental army, and on the necessary reduction of Virginia troops he was thrown out "with thanks," but without the decencies or even the necessaries of life. He retired to Kentucky to neglect, to humiliation, to dire stress of poverty, with the most injurious effect upon his health and morals. At that time the State actually owed him money; fifty years afterward there was judged over $30,000 due the administrators of his estate; it was not till twenty years after his dismissal, and six before his death, when he had become a maimed paralytic, that he was allowed a pension of $400 a year. In 1783 we have the spectacle of the conqueror of the Northwest in Richmond to beg for bread. In 1792 he was still struggling with poverty; a letter written to his brother Jonathan, May 11, 1792, speaks of his account against the State as being "as just as the book we swear by"; and bitter must have been the reflections of one who could then say with truth, "I have given the United States half the territory they possess."

No kindly light ever led Clark on after 1783. In 1786 he was put in command of some operations against Indians which resulted fruitlessly and ignominiously, by open revolt of his men from his authority. He retired to Vincennes, overwhelmed by this fresh disaster; his habits grew worse, and he did things which must have pained his friends then, even as they still make the judicious historian grieve. "Clark is playing hell," was the word on December 12, 1786; and though Jefferson remained his staunch friend, and tried in 1791 to bring him up again, it was impossible to do so. In 1793 Clark made probably the greatest mistake of his life, enabling his enemies to affix a stigma of dishonor and even treason to a name already tarnished by private bad habits. He accepted a commission with the high sounding title of "Major General in the armies of France and Commander-in-chief of the revolutionary legion on the Mississippi River," against the Spanish, in violation of international law and under governmental condemnation. He may never have meditated action against his own country, but any such expedition as he had in view was stopped by act of Congress of June 5, 1794, and proclamation of March 24, 1795, declaring the proposed operations unlawful. Clark's military career closed for ever, under a cloud.

The remainder of this extremely copious and intensely interesting work is largely occupied with minute details of the "Clark Grant," by acts of the Virginia Legislature of January 2, 1781, and of 1783, locating about 149,000 acres of ground for allotment in severalty to the officers and soldiers of the Illinois regiment. The survey of this land by one William Clark brings up the question of the three persons who bore that name, and Mr. English has succeeded in identifying them all. Surveyor William Clark, son of Benjamin Clark, brother of Marston Green Clark, and cousin of George Rogers Clark, deceased November or December, 1791, was not the jurist, William Clark, who died at Vincennes November 11, 1802, nor yet the William Clark of "Lewis and Clark" fame. A facsimile of the patent issued by Edmund Randolph, Governor of Virginia, December 14, 1786, is given, and also another, of the original

official plot, certified by Surveyor William Clark, with a roll of the men, sketches of the commissioners, and other biographical data of the greatest possible value. It seems that Gen. G. R. Clark attended the meetings of the board from 1784 to March 14, 1810, the date of his last signature, after he had become paralytic. This grant was the origin of Clarksville, Ind., and various other towns along the Ohio opposite Louisville and thence upward. The old general there dragged out many lonely years, in oblivion and intemperance. He was stricken with paralysis after a drinking-bout, fell in the fire, and so burned one of his legs before recovering consciousness that erysipelas set in and amputation became necessary. This was early in 1809, before the days of anæsthetics, and the grisly old warrior lost his leg to the music of drum and fife, played to distract his attention from the misery of such an operation. One of the most persistent myths which have reached us is that when General Clark was presented with a sword, he cried, "Damn the sword!" etc., or said, "When Virginia needed a sword I gave her one. She sends me now a toy. I want bread." Mr. English's analysis of the traditions shows about as much truth in them as in the still more celebrated story of the "little hatchet" of Washington. General Clark was twice presented with a sword by the Virginia Legislature—June 12, 1779, and February 20, 1812—at which latter date he was placed on the pension list. He died at the house of his sister, Lucy Croghan, at Locust Grove, Ky., February 13, 1818.

Much more than we can possibly outline here is given in estimation of Clark's life and services; sketches of many men who served under him; and a full account of the handsome monument erected at Indianapolis February 25, 1895, mainly through the distinguished author's own efforts to that end. We have also much Clark genealogy, especially full regarding the brothers and sisters of G. R. Clark. The appendix to this volume contains a great variety of interesting matter, including in full Clark's account against the State of Virginia, and the strange history of the bill in chancery over his alleged will, filed May 6, 1835, and not dismissed till November 20, 1865. It also appears that the present work is but an instalment of that which the author has in hand, and we trust sincerely that he will elaborate his other materials in the same fruitful manner.

STEPNIAK'S LAST WORK.

King Stork and King Log: A Study of Modern Russia. By Stepniak. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

WHATEVER else can be said about the late Stepniak's writings, it can never be asserted that they are not interesting as to matter and trenchant as to style. The very title of the book before us furnishes a proof, though some readers may question the propriety of calling the late Alexander III. "King Stork," and feel startled at the temerity which can decree to Nicholas II., after a reign of less than a year, the epithet of "King Log." If it is regarded as a valid excuse, in the case of Lord Salisbury, that a new Government inevitably inherits the policy and political debts of its predecessor, and must be allowed time to initiate gradual changes, it certainly is not unreasonable to claim some small measure of the same excuse for the corresponding autocrat in Russia. In fact, our author says in one place: "Alexander III. was not the founder of that system, and cannot be held responsible for it." However, we will defer further consideration of that point until we have made a brief examination of what precedes it.

The fact seems to be, with regard to this book, that it is composed of articles published at various times during the last five years. The internal evidence proves this, but as no direct hint is given of this state of affairs, for the benefit of non-experts, the constant assumption that the whole has been written in the immediate present is frequently misleading to a serious degree; as, for example, when "the present Emperor" stands for Alexander III. instead of the actual occupant of the throne. Stepniak admits that matters change so rapidly in Russia that it is not possible for the revolutionists who live abroad to direct operations; they cannot even understand the conditions from the other side of the border. Consequently, a difference of five years, or even of much less time, plainly renders certain utterances less valuable, when it does not nullify them altogether.

Very few writers are as insidiously persuasive as Stepniak. He has the art of engaging our sympathies, and convincing us of whatever he pleases, unless we chance to be able to pin him down on one incontestable point, and so obtain the proper gauge of confidence which we must give to his arguments and illustrative anecdotes. It is very unfortunate that, in the hastily written first chapter, designed to introduce and bind together the scattered papers which form the book, he should have fallen into the grievous error of telling that anecdote about Count L. N. Tolstoy's drama, "The Dominion of Darkness." Stepniak's "trustworthy source" has furnished him with a very good story, which runs, briefly, to the following effect: Alexander III. read and liked "The Dominion of Darkness." His daughter, Xenia Alexandrovna, who is the wit and literary critic of the family, liked it still more, and she proposed that the play should be privately performed in one of the halls of the Anitchkoff Palace. After the actors had been engaged, and all the arrangements made, Count Dmitry Tolstoy, Minister of the Interior, agreed with the Head Censor that its performance must be prohibited on the ground of its "immorality," and the imperial performance was stopped. When Xenia Alexandrovna mentioned the matter at a family party, at which some of the ministers were present, expressing her surprise, the Czar turned to his ministers and merely exclaimed, with a meek astonishment one does not associate with the idea of an all-powerful despot: "Yes, imagine! the play has been prohibited!" The date of this extraordinary tale is not given, but, as Xenia Alexandrovna was only fourteen years old when Count Dmitry Tolstoy died, in April, 1889, its apocryphal character is plain enough; an American girl would not be allowed to read that play at that age, much less a Russian girl. Thereafter the reader involuntarily questions the accuracy of every emphatic utterance, and all the utterances are emphatic. The anecdote is enlightening in another direction also, namely, as to the author's habit of using all arguments, no matter how contradictory, to assail the object of his dislike. He has already said of Alexander III.: "He had not the masterfulness of his grandfather, Nicholas I., a typical despot, and, unlike his father, he had a great respect for the laws passed by himself. His reign was the most lawless we have had since, perhaps, the time of the adventurers of the eighteenth century"; and then he criticises him for submitting to the law like an orderly person and for an example. The interpretation given to the anecdote about the thanksgiving mass at the Kazan cathedral offers another instance of seeing things in diametrically opposite ways, according as one has a point to prove or is merely a disinterested spectator.

Nevertheless, with all our involuntary doubts, it is of the highest interest to have these clear statements as to important events and measures, as viewed by the revolutionary party. Some of them are, it is true, utterly irreconcilable with everything which has been authoritatively stated hitherto—such as the nature of the document which Alexander II. was on the point of promulgating when he was assassinated. In this connection, it is rather surprising that Stepniak, while mentioning the Princess Dolgoruky-Yurievsky's pamphlet, does not also refer to the answering pamphlet which was written by one of the Court dames, and which might have furnished him with some telling points against the Princess, who misrepresented, as he thinks, his friends and the circumstances. His elucidation of the Slavophile doctrines is very good, and his exposition of the workings of the new District Commanders is extremely useful, and the most complete that is accessible. But why did he not do justice to the Government by stating the reason for the change contained in the appointment of these District Commanders? While no landed proprietor, in anticipation or in practice, approves, unreservedly, of that reform, it is certain that not one proprietor could be found who would not frankly admit that some radical change was necessary, owing to the peasants' abuse of electoral rights. Abuses of the same sort occur even in advanced republics, and it is not always easy to decide upon the best remedy for them under the most favorable circumstances—which is not the proper description for the Russian circumstances, it must be confessed.

"The establishment of the District Commanders is one of the sorest grievances of rural Russia. The emancipation of the serfs was not a great success. Even the partisans of the Government admit that now. It did not improve the material condition of the masses. But the former serfs became citizens; they recovered their personal independence and immunity from interference in their private affairs."

Americans who are conversant with the negro problem at the South will find no difficulty in understanding this.

More difficult to reconcile are such statements as those on pages 119, 120, in regard to the recent great famine, and the Government's efforts to keep it secret. "The editors of the papers received stringent orders not to publish, under the fear of suppression and other administrative penalties, any news about the famine likely to 'disturb the public mind.'" Yet it is asserted that Count L. N. Tolstoy's letter calling upon the Government to state plainly whether or not there was sufficient corn in the country to keep the Russian people until the next harvest, and to provide it, in case there was not, was not only printed but "quoted and endorsed by the whole press," and "Vyshnegradsky found it necessary to give it a reply."

Among the topics with which Stepniak deals is that of the Jews. "The classes which are at the head of the Russian anti-Jewish movement have long ago outlived the period of religious fanaticism," he says.

"With them the hostility towards the Jews is purely racial. With the masses, also, the

racial antipathy is also a much stronger ingredient in the anti-Jewish feeling than religion. Thus we may fairly describe the anti Jewish movement as racial. . . . Everywhere the Jews almost monopolize the most lucrative calling in the community—that of middlemen. They come to constitute a class apart as well as a race apart, and racial hostility comes to embitter the struggle between the classes. . . . In the Pale of Settlement the Jews, although forming but one-seventh of the population, have concentrated in their hands one-half of the wholesale trade of the region, and have almost monopolized the retail trade."

This is the explanation of a friendly writer, it is to be noted. Very curious is the explanation of the anti-Jewish riots. A year before these occurred, the Emperor issued a manifesto denouncing the Nihilists, and calling upon all his faithful subjects to assist the police in exterminating them. The official name for Nihilists is *kramolniki*, which means, in Russian, rebels, state criminals. But in the south of Russia the peddlers and retail traders, who are all Jews, are popularly called *kramorniki*. The illiterate peasants, not unnaturally, got the two words mixed, and believed that the Jews were at the bottom of the trouble. Notwithstanding this, they behaved in a friendly manner, as Stepniak relates, to Jews who had been friendly to them.

Naturally, Stepniak has a good deal to say with regard to the political exiles in Siberia, and his narratives are of the most thrilling sort. But he is not quite just, in many instances; men whose sentences were pronounced in 1874-6 can hardly be regarded as, primarily, oppressed by Alexander III., whose reign dated only from 1881. At one point, also, he speaks of an exile having died at Berezoff, and, immediately afterwards, remarks: "But under Alexander III. it [leniency] was entirely thrown aside, and the practice of exiling people to places utterly unfit for human habitation was introduced on a large scale." Berezoff is included in that category, as recently introduced, whereas it was used as a place of exile in the middle of the last century—for Prince Mentchikoff and for Ostermann, among others. Stepniak's disregard of his country's history does not, of course, mitigate the horrors of Berezoff, but it increases the uninitiated reader's indignation against Alexander III. Another very confusing result of carelessness in writing and proof-reading arises from the different dates assigned to various events: for example, the Emperor Nicholas II.'s wedding manifesto is set down as having been issued on January 26, instead of on November 26, thereby ruining the argument of comparison between it and another manifesto. Again, on p. 170, it is said: "Politically, the speech of December 20 [1894] marks an epoch in the history of our opposition movement." On p. 200 this speech is referred to as having been made on January 20 (1895). We must also allude to the errors which arise from Stepniak's imperfect mastery of the English past tenses of the verbs. Astonishing as was his knowledge of our language, he unwittingly leads the ordinary reader astray by inaccurate use of those tenses.

Among the other topics of vital moment which are here treated are: the situation in Finland and Poland; the character of the Russian peasants, to whom Stepniak pays the high tribute which is their just due, but which they rarely receive from foreign writers; Nihilism, of which he gives the first and best summary, in its strikingly varied phases, from its inception to the present day; and the revolutionary view of Nicholas II., and his brief reign to date. As to the spirit of the latter, it can only be said that the judgment must, of necessity, be superficial and hasty; that it is not softened by even so much as the suggestion that a vast empire cannot be switched to another track in the course of a few months; and that, while the author hotly champions the cause of the peasants, he blames the Emperor for paying too much heed to them as well as for oppressing them. "Relentless, implacable hostility toward the whole of enlightened, educated Russia, and patriarchal benevolence toward the peasants, such is the policy of the new Czar," he says, just as he has violently attacked Alexander III. for being "the Peasant Czar" and upholding the peasants by entirely different methods. In short, it is unjust irrevocably to condemn Nicholas II. as "King Log" for inaction, and Alexander III. as "King Stork," the devourer of his people, when it is plain that no consistent canon of conduct exists even in the mind of the implacable judge who seeks thus to sentence them to eternal opprobrium.

We return, last of all, to our former assertions, that the two volumes are interesting and enthralling to the highest degree, but that we dare not accept them as finally authoritative, either as to concrete statements or as to the general impression produced, after the specimens of inaccuracy which we have selected for illustration.

Chess Sparks. By J. H. Ellis. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

Chess Novelties. By H. E. Bird. Frederic Warne & Co. 1895.

In a letter about chess written some years ago, John Ruskin remarked: "I may tell you one thing much in my mind—the possibility of assigning value to games, primarily by the fewness of moves, secondly by the fewness of captures. Exchange games, where, after a hundred and fifty moves, the victor wins by an odd pawn, may contain calculations enough for next year's almanac, but they are quite out of my horizon of chess." Impelled, no doubt, by similar views, Mr. Ellis has made a most fascinating collection of games in which a winning position was attained in twenty moves or less. Many of these games were played by celebrated masters, and are more or less well-known specimens of brilliancy, while others are perhaps more remarkable for brevity than scientific skill. Among the examples of eighteenth-century play is a delightful *giuoco piano* of sixteen moves, won by Jean Jacques Rousseau in 1760 from the Prince de Conti, another proof—if proof were needed—of the versatility of that remarkable intellect. Abundant diagrams make it easy for the reader to follow the more complicated games, and Mr. Ellis has further supplied him with an index of players, a table of solutions, and a chronicle giving the results of all the important chess matches and tournaments from 1824 to 1894. Typographical errors, of the kind so common in chess books, are pleasantly lacking.

This particular merit is not shared by Mr. Bird's book, which contains plenty of instances of K instead of Kt, and even K to Q3 instead of Kt to Q B3. Other merits, however, it certainly possesses. In the first place, the veteran author is an interesting personage in the chess world. As long ago as 1847 he was playing matches with that admirable performer Buckle, the historian. In 1851 he played on even terms with the great Anderssen, and in 1858 he made a very fair showing against the invincible Paul Morphy. From that time up to the Hastings tournament of this year he has constantly taken part in tournaments and matches, and, while never in the very first rank of players, he has met with enough success to entitle him to a hearing on behalf of his particular theories. At the outset he disavows any claim to absolute originality in his chess ideas, but he has always been known as a believer in certain irregular openings—particularly P to K B4—and his book is a somewhat rambling but decidedly entertaining plea for such openings, and in general for brilliant as opposed to "drawing-master's" chess. He points out that whereas, in the great match between Labourdonnais and McDonnell in 1833, no less than sixteen different openings were tried, the modern masters rarely venture beyond the Ruy Lopez or the queen's gambit. This lack of variety he attributes to the high stakes now played for, which give an undue importance to the mere fact of winning, with a resulting unwillingness on the part of the players to risk any but the safest and most deeply analyzed openings.

It is certainly curious that so little that is novel has been attempted in the openings during the last fifty years. In the 'Modern Chess Instructor,' published by Steinitz in 1889, the only two original suggestions, viz: P to Q 3 in the Ruy Lopez, and Kt to K R 3 in the Two Knights Defence, have not stood the test of practice, and have been abandoned by their author. On the other hand, it seems very doubtful whether Mr. Bird's elaborate arguments in favor of his special openings will carry conviction to the minds of other players. Writing before the recent meteoric appearance of young Pillsbury, Mr. Bird evidently regarded himself as almost the sole survivor of the school of Anderssen and Morphy, who aimed to mate or win, while the other players of the day had become imbued with the theories of Steinitz, who aims to avoid losing and to be certain of a draw. But, since this book was printed, a second Morphy has astonished the chess world, and the St. Petersburg tournament just over proved that some of Mr. Bird's theories will probably require revision. None of the four masters engaged in that tournament will be found to have offered a P to K B 4 opening.

Two Years on the Alabama. By Arthur Sinclair. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1895.

This book has a right to exist. Written by one of the line officers of the *Alabama* after a service coincident with the cruise of the vessel, it has certain advantages over Semmes's narrative in consequence of the subsidence of war passions and the settlement with England of the *Alabama* question. Semmes's narrative was in a turgid and inflated style, and bitter in partisanship and denunciation of the North. Sinclair, it is true, professes only to give a personal narrative of the cruise, but this practically includes all that is of general or professional interest, while in narration of facts he writes more pleasantly as well as more correctly than Semmes. He has taken considerable trouble to verify his statements, and he has also profited by data and criticisms that were probably unknown to Semmes.

After all that can be said as to the great vexation and pecuniary loss brought about during the civil war by the cruise of the *Alabama*, the fact remains, and stands out in clear light, that her career had no vital effect upon the course of the war. Semmes saw this, and laments it in his book, while Sinclair in turn remarks that, parallel with the success of the *Alabama* in her latter days, was the steady

failure of the war against the Union and the approaching downfall of the Southern Confederacy. Too much prominence cannot be given to the policy of Secretary Welles, steadily persisted in and so well justified by results, not to weaken the pressure of the blockade on the Southern States by a large diversion of force against the Confederate cruisers. The maintenance of this great naval operation was a vital element in the subjugation of the Confederacy, by destroying its commerce and depriving an agricultural country of manufactured articles which included military supplies of all kinds, and also gradually closing to it the market for its staple article, cotton, upon the sale of which it relied for outside aid and assistance—financial, political, military, and naval. The commerce destroying of the *Alabama* was insignificant in its results compared to this commerce suppression; and the command of the sea always with the North, despite the raids of the Confederate cruisers, not only kept the blockade intact, but brought the pressure from the sea responsive to that by land which encircled the States in rebellion and caused the success of the Union cause.

Lieut. Sinclair brings out more forcibly than most writers the English character of the crew of his vessel. The sympathy of English officials and of colonial authorities is an old story, but it is interesting to note what is said on page 146:

"The English," he says, "the foster-fathers of the *Alabama*, are naturally proud of their creation, and they appear to be also in sympathy with us and our cause. Our crew are about one half English man-of-war's men, and have found among the sailors of the English squadron here many old shipmates, and doubtless they have already planned a glorious time together on shore the first liberty day."

The author's criticism of the neglect of our Navy Department to station a vessel at such salient points as the vicinity of Cape St. Roque, the Cape of Good Hope, Singapore, and similar positions, is well founded, and the neglect reflects upon the good judgment and wisdom of the naval advisers of Secretary Welles. Credit is given to Capt. C. H. Baldwin, commanding the *Vanderbilt*, for the best display of judgment in the pursuit of the *Alabama*. Humanly speaking, had it not been for the detention of the *Vanderbilt* by Admiral Wilkes, and (at a later time) for the enormous consumption of coal by the *Vanderbilt*, the captor of the *Alabama* would have been Baldwin instead of Winslow, and its fate met off the Cape of Good Hope or in the Indian Ocean rather than in the English Channel off Cherbourg. The greater part of the cruising and most of the captures of the *Alabama* were made under sail. Excellent sailing vessel that she was, her powers of keeping the sea far exceeded those possessed by the cruiser of to-day—the so-called commerce-destroyer — whose sail power has disappeared, and whose coal consumption, reduced by modern improvements, is newly taxed by the daily domestic demands for distilling, heating, electric lighting, and auxiliary engines. We prophesy that the next great war will witness the commerce-destroyer principally occupied with the duty of scout and convoy, commerce itself being duly convoyed or carried by vessels having swift pairs of heels.

Agreeing with Bullock, the author pays a high tribute to the special qualifications of Semmes for the work upon which his fame rests. One of these special qualifications was his knowledge of international law, which stood him in good stead in the many controversies he was engaged in during his cruise. It is probable, as the writer states, that Semmes, having made an especial study of this branch of naval training, had no equal in either navy. As a requisite for a well-educated naval officer it has not lost its importance in these later times, either in time of war or in the more extended period of peace.

The account of the final engagement of the *Alabama* is excellent. It is the best that we know of and is without hyperbole or exaggeration. The intention of Semmes to board the *Kearsarge* is dwelt upon, and the advantage that the superior speed of the *Kearsarge* gave in the avoidance of this purpose is well brought out. The failure to board, and the damaged condition of the *Alabama's* powder, the author seems to think were the principal causes of the defeat. The statement of the master of the *Deerhound*, the yacht which picked up Semmes, was, however, that "it was a fair stand-up fight. The two vessels were constructed of the same materials, and the chances at first seemed to be even enough." As to the use of the anchor chain of the *Kearsarge* for protection amidship, the author frankly acknowledges that Semmes knew of this use of the chain cable of the *Kearsarge*, and also that he could have adopted the same scheme from his own resources had he so desired. But the protection thus afforded was insignificant, as a perusal of Winslow's reports and the appendices giving the hits made and their localities will show. In regard to the mistake made by Semmes in consenting to an engagement, which in a large sense may be called a strategic mistake, the writer professes ignorance of its purpose. It was probably the mistake of a brave man stung by taunts as to want of courage to meet an equal. It is quite certain, too, as the author mentions, that a long detention for repairs at Cherbourg would have brought about that port a fleet of Union cruisers which would have prevented her safe departure.

The story of the cruise is as a whole well written, clear, and consecutive, excepting a pardonable repetition on page 114. This volume, with Bullock's account of the *Alabama's* origin and Semmes's account of her career, will probably constitute the definitive presentation of the remarkable cruise of the *Alabama* from the side of those who cruised in her.

Personal Reminiscences of Notable People. By Charles K. Tuckerman. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

THESE two costly volumes purport to be only a *réchauffé* of what has already appeared in various magazines. They cover very different ground, the first dealing with the reminiscences of the author's earlier life, encountering various great men in America; the second founded on his diplomatic experience in the East, at Athens and Constantinople. It is hardly necessary to say that the latter series of anecdotes is much more novel and interesting than the former. The chapters which show the incurable procrastination and chicanery of the Turkish Government are well worth reading at the present day, when the great Powers of Europe and America, untaught by the experience of generations, are waiting for the Sultan to keep his engagements—in other words, for the Bosphorus to run dry. The rest of the book is gossipy, and of but little permanent value. A large number of stories, *e. g.*, that of the Duke of Wellington (i. 271), are distinctly stale; others, as that of Butler (i. 89), pretty flat. But the whole book produces an uneasy feeling from the frequent insertion of anecdotes leaving a mean impression of the individuals to whom they relate, with little or nothing to counteract it. Mr. Seward is almost the only person who, after passing under Mr. Tuckerman's eye, has not had some rip or tear in his moral garb exposed, or what is meant to appear such. Sometimes this effect is produced at the price of very inadequate knowledge. To say that Edward Everett "felt the leaden weight of disappointed ambition" (i. 33), that Abbott Lawrence (indicated as Mr. L——) acquired his manner by "studying his Talleyrand," is to convict Mr. Tuckerman of the most superficial knowledge of these eminent men.

These volumes, though generally written in good English, contain some disgraceful blunders—whether of author or printer is not always clear. "Blaine Washburne" appears (i. 84) as one person, between Thaddeus Stevens and Reverdy Johnson. Lord Ronald Gower becomes (i. 127) Lord Gower, by the eternal American blunder in similar titles. Two pages further on we have *statu quo* in the nominative for *status quo*. A well-known quotation has its point nearly spoilt by being given, "From grave to gay, from *serious* to severe" (i. 153). "Sonnambula" is twice printed "Somnambula" (i. 164, 190). "Maria Stuarda" becomes "Maria Stuarta" (i. 181). The famous answer, "Qu'il mourût," which our author puts into the mouth of Rachel, as *Camille*, belongs to the part of the old *Horatius* (i. 185). The French word *embonpoint* is wrongly used (i. 305), and Simon Pure (i. 319). Joaquin Miller is printed Joachim, as if it were a real name (ii. 13), "*Petits Lundis*" loses an *s* (ii. 105), "*Le Japon*" becomes "*La Japan*" (ii. 166), "*Jeunesse dorée*" loses its final *e* (ii. 245). The phrase *genus homo* is used as equivalent to the male sex (ii. 281). "*Grande Rue*" is altered to "*Grand Rue*" (ii. 341). When one has to pay five dollars for two small volumes, this is an extra allowance of mistakes.

Mars. By Percival Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

MR. LOWELL'S book is charming in more ways than one. His facile pen would make easy reading of the driest subject; and when it deals with a theme so fascinating as that of the conditions of life on another planet, hard-hearted indeed must be the critic who does not find himself ready to embrace conclusions which he would have contemptuously rejected if reached by a rougher path. The author's enthusiasm for his subject is shown even more strongly by the enterprise on which the book is based than by what the latter sets forth. It is no commonplace spectacle, that of a man of not very easy leisure, perhaps in a situation where the ordinary mortal would have been completely engrossed in business, abandoning his home for nearly a year, and fitting up at no little expense an establishment in the deserts of Arizona, for the sole purpose of seeing from the best point of view what is going on in Mars. We feel that such an enterprise deserves some good result, and some more cheering word than that of the astronomer who remarked that Mr. Lowell had been very successful in discovering what he had announced his intention of finding before he set out.

From our guide over the oceans and continents of Mars we learn that our neighboring planet really has an atmosphere, though serious conflict with Prof. Campbell's opposite view is avoided by that atmosphere's being rarer than ours is at the tops of the Himalayas. Clouds rarely obscure the sunny skies, yet there is enough of watery vapor to condense into a snow-cap around either pole during its winter.

As spring advances, the cap slowly begins to melt away and form an ocean of blue water around its contracting boundary. Water is very scarce on the planet, and is growing scarcer from age to age, owing to its absorption into the body of the planet. The inhabitants have utilized the diminishing supply by an elaborate system of irrigation. Canals are dug which annually convey the water melting at either pole to the equatorial regions. A broad belt, thus watered into fertility, skirts each canal, and these belts, distinguished, by their vegetation, from the arid plains which form all the rest of the planet's surface, are seen from the earth as a network of fine lines.

The author cannot be charged with ignoring any obvious objections to his views. The latter are sustained by a wealth of illustration and a completeness of argument which leave nothing to be desired except credibility of foundation and conclusion. We do not object; we only feel that we know so little of the possible conditions on the surface of Mars that the chances are scores to one against any theory we can now frame being a true one. While commending Mr. Lowell's production to the general reader, we cannot deny that astronomers would everywhere have felt more confidence in his observations if he had been satisfied to confine himself to describing and picturing what he saw, without attempting to frame any theory, even in the innermost recesses of his mind. Without this precaution the most careful observer is liable to become a dupe of the "expectant attention" of the psychologists, and to see things in accord with his preconceived notions rather than with the facts. Especially is this the case in tracing markings so faint and shadowy as those on the surface of our neighboring planet.

New Orleans: The Place and the People. By Grace King. New York: Macmillan.

THE historian who, with impartial acumen, sifts a mass of documents in order to form a clear judgment of events long past, must speak with soberness of detail of the actors in a nation's life; their personality is lost sight of in the importance of the part they play. Yet if he confine himself exclusively to the broad lines of his subject, he will make his history very dry reading; if, running into the other extreme, he attempts to delineate individual character on too extensive a scale, his work will be little better than a voluminous compilation of biographies. The history of a city—especially of a relatively young city—presents a more circumscribed field; but if the first danger is minimized, to avoid the last is still more difficult; the founders, the actors in the development of the city are so near to us that the story of their deeds, transmitted by word of mouth from one generation to another, has all the charm or force of actuality. Tradition has not had time to become legendary. Corroborative evidence is not lacking. Hence, the temptation to write of individuals rather than of events must be great.

Miss Grace King has avoided both dangers in her new work on New Orleans. The accuracy of the historical part of the book is unimpeachable, and the documentary proofs testify to the industrious researches of the author. But the facts are presented in Miss King's usual graceful style, and there is nothing dry about them. Nor does the history proper form, as it were, a separate chapter, a narrative, soon ended, to introduce biographical compilations—as is the case with some other books on New Orleans. Here, from beginning to end, from the first exploration of the Mississippi to the present day, we see a succession of panoramic views, of *tableaux vivants*, in which the dramatis personæ—be they La Salle, Iberville, John Law, the Regent, Louis XV., O'Reilly, Villeré, Napoleon, Jackson, Lafitte the pirate, or Ben Butler, be they far or near—appear in a life-like delineation. It is history acted, not told. And while the eventful growth, the rise and fall of the old French city and its new life, are thus faithfully portrayed, the place itself, with its fading landmarks, its gayeties and days of mourning, its local celebrities and quaint characters, its heroes and benefactors, is described with a lightness of touch, a pathos and humor, which keeps the interest awake. The reader is loath to lay aside this handsome volume, profusely illustrated, with rare fidelity, by Frances E. Jones.

The Creoles are noted for their enthusiastic attachment for their city, and Miss King, herself a native, may be charged with partiality by those who do not know New Orleans; but to those who do, her book bears the stamp of truthfulness as well as of a generous enthusiasm. It will please the general reader also by the piquant show of manners and customs with which it abounds. Admirers of General Butler and of the carpet-bag régime, however, had better skip chapter xiii.—the only one which treats of "our late unpleasantness."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andreae, Percy. Stanhope of Chester. Rand, McNally & Co. 25c.
Balzac, H. de. Ursule Mirouët. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Binner, Paul. Old Stories Retold. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 25c.
Bruce, Philip A. Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6.
Chamberlain, A. F. The Child and Childhood in Folk-Thought. Macmillan. $3.
Dasent, Sir George. Tales from the Fjeld. From the Norse of P. Ch. Asbjörnsen. New ed. London: Gibbings & Co; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Field, Eugene. The Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac. Scribners. $1.25.
Fortescue, J. W. Dundonald. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan. 60c.
Frankel, Aaron H. Thou Shalt Not Kill: The "Thorah" of Vegetarianism. New York: The Author.
Godard, Harlow. An Outline Study of United States History. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Grasby, W. C. Teaching in Three Continents: Personal Notes of the Educational Systems of the World. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. $1.50.
Hillis, W. J. A Metrical History of the Life and Times of Napoleon Bonaparte. Putnams. $5.
Holman, S. W. Computation Rules and Logarithms. Macmillan.
James, B. W. Echoes of Battle. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $2.
Labouchere, Norna. Ladies' Book-plates. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $3.
"La Gracieuse." Bibliothèque Enfantine. 10 vols. Brentanos. $2 25.
Michels and Ziegler. Thomas Morus: Utopia. [Lateinische Litteratur-denkmäler des XV. und XVI. Jahrhunderts.] Berlin: Weidmannsche Buchhandlung.
Nicoll, W. R. The Seven Words from the Cross. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 50c.
Pennell, Joseph. The Illustration of Books. London: Unwin; New York: Century Co. $1.
Prothero, R. E. Letters and Verses of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. Scribners. $5.
Purcell, E. S. Life of Cardinal Manning. 2 vols. Macmillan. $6
Quiller-Couch, A. T. Wandering Heath: Stories, Studies, and Sketches. Scribners. $1.25.
Raynor, Cecil. The Spinster's Scrip. Macmillan. $1.
Renan, Ernest. Life of Jesus. Translation newly revised. Boston: Roberts Bros. $2.50.
Russell, C. E. Blossoms of Thought. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Sala, G. A. Life and Adventures. 2 vols. Scribners. $3.
Sayce, Prof. A. H. The Egypt of the Hebrews and Herodotos. Macmillan. $2.
Schmoller, Gustav. The Mercantile System [Economic Classics]. Macmillan. 75c.
Stedman, E. C., and Woodberry, G. E. The Works of Edgar Allan Poe. Vols. VI.-X. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. Each $1.50.
Stuart, Eleanor. Stonepastures. Appleton. 75c.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Russian Portraits. Putnams. 50c.
Walden, Treadwell. The Great Meaning of Metanoia. Thomas Whittaker. $1.
Walford, L. B. Successors to the Title. Appletons. $1.
Watson, Rev. John ("Ian McLaren"). The Upper Room. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50c.
Weale, W. H. J. Gerard David. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Webb-Peploe, Rev. H. W. The Victorious Life. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
White, A. M. Outlines of Legal History. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Wichert, Ernst. An der Majorsecke. Henry Holt & Co. 20c.

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1895, to 31st December, 1895,		$2,622,872 42
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1895		1,027,151 41
Total Marine Premiums		$3,650,023 83
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1895, to 31st December, 1895		$2,540,748 83
Losses paid during the same period	$1,218,407 55	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$603,415 82	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and City of New York Stock; City Banks and other Stocks	$8,059,105 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,216,500 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,000 004 90
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	896,431 88
Cash in Bank	202,518 83
Amount	$11,374,560 11

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The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1890 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fourth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1895, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the fifth of May next.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 6, 1896.

The Week.

AFTER what the Senate has shown itself capable of in the way of resolutions respecting Venezuela, *fin-de-siècle* Monroeism, and Armenia, its deliverances about Cuba cannot fail to strike one as unexpectedly and gratefully rational. True, the Cuban resolutions are as wanting in grammar as the Venezuelan resolutions were in sanity, or the Armenian in a sense of humor. The decay of statesmanship has, in fact, reached the point of inability even to draft a law or resolution in proper terms. But in this Cuban business it must be confessed that the Senate committee's report and resolutions show that their heart is right, like the camp-meeting preacher's, and that they are bound for the kingdom, even if the auxiliary verbs are too much for them. In refraining from urging the recognition of the Cuban insurgents as belligerents, they display good sense. That the Cuban insurrectionists have not as yet succeeded in attaining the actual status of belligerents is generally admitted, and must be the opinion of the Senate committee. Senators must have considered, moreover, the embarrassments to our own commerce with Cuba which would be certain to result from the grant of belligerent rights to the insurrectionists, and doubtless have found therein fresh reason for moving with caution. They have, accordingly, limited themselves to deploring the unnecessary barbarities of the Cuban war, and to requesting Spain, if the war must go on, to grant the insurgent armies the rights to which humanity, if not the abstract law of war, entitles them. The accompanying report is couched in moderate and humane terms. Concerning the actual posture of affairs in the island the Senate committee wisely say little. They do not affirm that the Spanish troops have been guilty of wanton cruelties. The charge that they have been has been widely circulated in the press, and has been held to be self-evident by many political conventions and orators. But the Senate report says nothing on this head, nor does it maintain that the rebel commanders have respected the lives and property of non-combatants.

There still remains a chance that the nation may be spared the full measure of humiliation threatened by the absurd deliverance of the Senate and House of Representatives on the Armenian question. The resolutions as passed attempt to "lay down the law" for Great Britain, Germany, Austria, France, Italy, and Russia, reciting what the Senators and Representatives consider "an imperative duty" in the premises; but these Powers will never be informed of what our lawmakers think they ought to do unless the President complies with the provision that he be "requested to communicate these resolutions to the Governments" of the six European nations. The encouraging report comes from Washington that this request does not meet with the favor of the Administration, and that the President will exercise his discretion by doing nothing in the premises. It is to be hoped on every account that this report will prove true. The transmission of the resolutions would do no good to the Armenians, would make the Sultan less disposed to protect Americans in his dominions, and would simply secure us a number of snubs from the Powers whom we attempt to instruct in their duty. The worst thing about the "fooling" of the politicians with foreign questions like this is, that it publishes the shame of our Congress to the world. So long as Senators and Representatives "play politics" with our domestic questions, nobody abroad pays any attention to them; but when they try to regulate the rest of the universe, they disgrace the United States in the eyes of foreigners.

In 1890 that part of the country which lies north of the Potomac and the Ohio and east of the Missouri and the Red River of the North had a population of thirty-five and a half millions. There are in the Senate now thirty-five members from that section (one Delaware seat being vacant), each of whom, therefore, represents on an average something over a million people. Of these thirty-five Senators twenty-three are Republicans and twelve Democrats. On Saturday last thirty-two of them voted or were paired against the Jones free-silver substitute for the House bond bill. The three who voted for it were Senators Cameron, Turpie, and Voorhees. The fourteen States south of the Potomac and the Ohio are represented by twenty-eight Senators, two of whom are Republicans, one a Populist, and twenty-five Democrats. The population of these States in 1890 was 21,000,000. They therefore send to the Senate one member for every 750,000 of their people. One of the Republicans, Senator Elkins, and five of the Democrats, Faulkner, Martin, Caffery, Mills, and Lindsay, had themselves recorded against free coinage, while the remaining Republican, Senator Pritchard, and the one Populist, Senator Butler, and twenty Democrats were among its supporters. From the trans-Missouri States there come twenty-six Senators, five of whom are Populists, two Democrats, and nineteen Republicans. This whole region, including Oklahoma, New Mexico, and Arizona, had in 1890 a population of 6,000,000. It therefore has one vote in the Senate for every 234,000 of its inhabitants. Three of the Republican Senators, namely, Thurston, Baker, and McBride, opposed the free-silver substitute, but the remaining twenty-three of the trans-Missouri Senators were all among its supporters. In other words, eleven-twelfths of the Senators from the States which in 1890 had a majority of eight and a half millions of the entire population of the country are opposed to silver monometallism, while its apparent majority is due entirely to the fact that it has among its advocates more than three-fourths of the Senators from the South and more than seven-eighths of those from the far West. In short, the two free-silver sections taken together have upon an average one Senator for every 500,000 people, the anti-free-silver section one for every 1,000,000.

It is worth while to notice also the progress of public opinion on this subject in recent years. On the 17th of June, 1890, Senator Plumb of Kansas offered the following section as an amendment to a House bill on the same subject:

> "That hereafter any owner of silver or gold bullion may deposit the same at any mint of the United States to be formed into standard dollars or bars for his benefit and without charge; but it shall be lawful to refuse any deposit of less value than $100, or any bullion so base as to be unsuitable for the operations of the mint; and said coins shall be a legal tender for all debts, public and private."

This amendment was adopted, and the bill passed the same day in the Senate by a vote of 42 to 25, the majority for free coinage being 17. The number of votes for free coinage on Saturday last was exactly the same, 42, but the negative had grown to 35; that is, ten votes had been gained for sound money in five years, notwithstanding the admission of Utah, Wyoming and Idaho, with six votes gained to the other side in an undemocratic way. Even this does not represent the whole strength of the sound-money forces. In 1890, too, one vote from Pennsylvania was given for free silver, that of Cameron, who will give place to an anti-silver man next year. The State of Kentucky also is to be put in the anti-silver column soon. So it appears that the vote just taken is quite inconsequential, representing not only a minority of the people, but a rapidly decreasing minority. For these reasons the vote in the Senate cannot have any adverse influence on the bids for the new bonds. The effect has been already discounted, and the present prospect is that the bidding will be higher than the price offered by the Morgan syndicate. Of course nobody can speak with confidence on this point until the bids are opened, but the opinion prevails that the bulk of them will be between 108 and 110. The higher price is most gratifying, and is undoubtedly due to the passing away of the war scare.

A correspondent, writing to us from Santa Barbara, Cal., asks whether it is true that Senator Stewart of Nevada was an advocate of the single gold standard in 1874, as stated in the volume of John Sherman's 'Recollections.' He was. In the *Congressional Record* for that year (page 1392), the subject under debate being an amendment to the national banking act, Senator Stewart, replying to a question from Senator Logan, said:

"I want the standard gold, and no paper money not redeemable in gold; no paper money the value of which is not ascertained; no paper money that will organize a gold board to speculate in it."

The "gold board" referred to was the Gold Exchange in New York, which existed during the suspension of specie payments. Mr. Stewart very properly desired that steps should be taken to "knock out" this institution by resuming specie payments. This debate on the national-bank amendment was somewhat protracted. Mr. Stewart came back to it on the 20th of February (page 1678). Senator Logan had stated that we could not get the gold to resume specie payments with. To which Stewart replied:

"When gold is invited to a country like this, with such an industrious people as we have, with our industry and our resources, I say there will be no difficulty about getting sufficient gold. . . . If you are going to have gold in this country, you must make a demand for gold by using it. . . . You have legislated gold out of your country. Invite it back, and forty million people will get you all the gold you want."

And much more of the same tenor, showing that the only kind of specie payments Stewart thought of or desired was gold payments.

The degradation of the Senate already seemed complete, but Tillman's performance on Wednesday week showed that in the lowest deep a lower deep was still left to be touched. A worse outbreak of blackguardism and incendiarism has never been witnessed in the upper chamber, and it is a melancholy reflection that the country has six years of such diatribes to look for from the same source. All of the conservative traditions of the Senate are now gone, and the new-comer no longer hesitates to begin talking with the frequency and profuseness of a Morgan before he has been two months in his seat. Even before Tillman's outburst, a terrible bore had been revealed in one of the new Senators from North Carolina, and the growth in numbers of the body makes the development of every fresh speechifier of this sort a sad infliction. The correspondents report that the Republican veterans from New England, like Morrill of Vermont and Hoar of Massachusetts, appeared shocked and wounded by the evidence of the decadence of the Senate that was afforded by "the spokesman of the new and degenerate South." But the Republican Senators of New England are not free from blame in this matter. It was Mr. Hoar who welcomed a repudiator from Virginia fifteen years ago as an evangel of a new South, and Massachusetts Republicans have regarded favorably, when they have not actively helped, the movements that have brought into the Senate Butler and Pritchard of North Carolina and Tillman and Irby of South Carolina.

Senator Thurston assures the country that Nebraska is ready for the horrors of a naval war, and this will surely make England think twice before ordering her flying squadron to Omaha. He also announces, with Roman firmness, that he is ready to sacrifice his son on the altar of country, so long as he remains in Washington to vote the family a pension. Such sound and fury serve a good purpose in the country at large by making the whole Davis-resolution intrigue ridiculous. In the Senate itself, however, the accession of a new incendiary will encourage all the others. Canning said that he did not dread the entrance of a firebrand member into the House of Commons, because, he declared, "firebrands as soon as they touch this floor hiss and expire." But that was because the general sense and conservatism of the House fell upon the firebrand like a dash of cold water. In our Senate the case is now vastly different. The floor of the Senate chamber is already filled with firebrands, and every new one that falls on the heap makes the flames leap higher. Instead of water it is oil which the old members fling on each new brand. There is indeed an immense hissing, as Canning said, both of the reptilian and anserine kind, but, unluckily, it shows no sign of expiring.

It is evident that the popularity of the Monroe-Davis-Lodge resolutions is rapidly on the wane. An attempt was made to assert them patriotically in the New Jersey Senate on Monday evening, but the motion was quickly laid on the table. In last Sunday's Boston *Herald*, the Hon. George S. Boutwell, whose stiff Republicanism will not be questioned, had a searching review of the whole conduct of the Venezuela business, in which the President and Secretary Olney, together with Lodge and the other New England representatives whom Mr. Cleveland stampeded, come in for weighty rebuke. Mr. Boutwell's Republicanism and ideas of public policy date back to the time when filibustering principles and highwayman's methods, such as Frye and Lodge advocate, were denounced in Republican platforms, and he is within his rights in calling the rash innovators of the present day to order. To give the finishing touch of farce to the whole business, it is now announced that the Senate will have the rest of the debate on the Davis resolutions held behind closed doors. This seems incredible. Can patriotism be hidden under a bushel? What would "the immortal Monroe" think of Senators who were afraid to mention his name except with bated breath and in secret? If there is a sense of humor beyond the grave, we fear he would smile a pitying smile, especially when he remembered how short a time it was since these same subterranean Senators were riding the whirlwind and directing the storm of war with what Dr. Johnson would call "easy volubility."

Mr. Harrison's announcement that his name must not be presented or used in the St. Louis convention calls attention to the extraordinary condition of our politics within half a year of the time when the two great parties must present their platforms and candidates in a Presidential campaign. The situation was vividly portrayed in this answer by Senator Brice of Ohio to a recent question by the correspondent of the Chicago *Times-Herald*, as to what was going to be the outcome of pending attempts at legislation:

"Nothing, nothing. We are going to drift along, that's all. The Senate is drifting, the Administration is drifting, the House of Representatives is drifting, the Democratic party is drifting, the Republican party is drifting, the Populists are drifting. Everybody and everything is drifting."

Yes; "everybody and everything is drifting." So far as parties are concerned, no one need worry; the country can get along if either of them disappears. But how long can the government of a great nation drift without danger of shipwreck? Mr. Harrison, who now takes himself out of the contest, has sometimes been called "the logical candidate" of his party; but where is the logic in nominating for another term the man who, in his first term, favored a tariff law which his own party is not now ready to revive, a silver-purchase act which his party had to help repeal within three years, and a force bill which no member of his party would now hear of? McKinley, too, is sometimes called the logical candidate, but the logic of taking a man whose policy has once been rejected by the country is only clear when at least his own party is unitedly and enthusiastically for trying it again.

Mr. Reed continues to be a tongue-tied candidate for the Presidency. What he thinks about the currency, about the tariff, about foreign policy, the public does not have the faintest idea. We are compelled, therefore, to infer his views from what he does and from the character of the men who are fighting his battles. In Louisiana his "manager" is the notorious ex-Gov. Kellogg, and the convention which he controlled was in favor of sugar bounties, free silver, and the Populist creed in general. Eight of the Louisiana delegates are reported to be certain for Reed. The question is, can he go on dumbly receiving and working for such support without alarming his friends in the North and East? If this Southern

support were given him in the face of open declarations against Southern financial heresies, the case would be different. But Mr. Reed has not committed himself on a single point, except that he consumedly wants to be President.

The Republican rising against Platt closely resembles, in cause and course, the Democratic rising against Hill four years ago. There were exactly the same objections to pushing that movement which Mr. Root makes to the punishment of Platt at this season. To the honor of the independent Democrats be it said, these objections made no impression on them. They said that the time to punish fraud was always the time when it was found out; that stays of proceedings were unknown in the forum of morals; that they would not let Hill alone in order to share his plunder. They accordingly went ahead, and Providence, who generally smiles on courage working in the service of honesty, rewarded them with complete success. It will not do for Republican moralists to have lower standards and fainter hearts than the Democrats. If parties are never to be purified in the Presidential year, the fate of this Government is certain, for all real power is rapidly passing into the hands of the men who boss the nominating conventions, and the Presidential year is always the one in which the chief frauds are committed. Mr. Root's plea for delay is very like a proposal never to punish housebreaking during the long nights; to wait always before arresting thieves for the pleasant summer weather, when they are off "tramping" in the country. Better news for the political rogues than that the laws of morality were suspended before every Presidential campaign there could hardly be.

The report of the committee on the Dunraven charges is most thorough and convincing. One knows not which more to admire, the acute sifting of the flimsy evidence upon which Dunraven based his monstrous accusations, together with the overwhelming array of rebutting testimony, or the tone of courteous restraint and impartiality in which the whole is pitched. There is not a word of fretting or fury, no calling of names or bristling of ears or mane. In a very excess of politeness, the committee express their conviction that Dunraven himself, if he had stayed through the investigation and heard all the evidence, would, of his own motion, have withdrawn the charges which originated in a mistake. The only man who comes in for "arraigning" in the whole report is the owner of the *Herald*, who is rebuked for the dishonorable action of that paper in stealing a part of the evidence taken, and who, we believe, under the rules of the New York Yacht Club, is liable to expulsion therefor. The best of all is that this report will convince the world that we still have gentlemen left in this country, who know how to conduct an international controversy as gentlemen should. To hear both sides patiently and exhaustively, to seek every ray of light possible, and then to sum up the whole without a particle of passion, is the first instinct of a gentleman, and ought not to seem a wonderful thing at all. It does seem so only by contrast with the horrible manners and wretched ill-breeding, to go no further, which our professional diplomats have lately displayed. The thanks of the country are due to Messrs. Phelps, Morgan, Whitney, Mahan, and Rives, not merely for their excellent work in the matter immediately in hand, but for the great example they have set us of gentlemanly methods. They will have gone far, in the eyes of Europeans, towards rehabilitating the American character, and towards making the boorishness of Messrs. Cleveland and Olney appear, as it was, a break with our best traditions and wholly unrepresentative of the country.

It is hard to know whether to laugh or weep over the picture of the great Chicago editors, comparing notes after a year's experience, and finding that the net result of all their mad antics in the way of prizes and lotteries and guessing-contests and colored pictures and general endeavor to make the public buy what it did not want, was $500,000 thrown away, stationary circulations, and degraded papers. They now swear they are cured, and beg to be let out of the madhouse. The great trouble with them, and all their frenzied kind, is that they have been keeping their eyes on each other instead of on the newspaper-reading public. One lunatic editor excites another to more extravagant madness, and the poor forgotten public suffers and grows unutterably weary. No man who has any means of finding out what his rational fellows think, can doubt that "the average man in every American city" would gladly and gratefully welcome "a newspaper that should give him only the news, and the news prepared in such a way as to make the marvellous enterprise of its publisher in getting it a secondary matter." What a blessed relief, too, would it be to thousands to dispense with "the witty reporter," who thrusts his gibes and flouts in your face instead of telling you what actually occurred or was said; to find a paper that preferred to be accurate rather than to startle; that would present general and trustworthy news in place of "exclusive" misinformation and indecency; that should be written for its readers, not for its rivals—that should, in short, display simply ordinary intelligence, manners, and morality. The opportunity for such a morning paper in New York is just now immense. The field for the other kind is more than full, as we understand those papers are finding out to their cost which are trying to trumpet their way into it.

It has long been the opinion of those who knew Lord Salisbury well that he was not a man of action; that his administration would never produce a policy in any direction except towards Ireland; that serious dealing with any other problems of the day was not and never would be his forte. He is, and always has been, a skilful critic, especially of Mr. Gladstone and the "Rads" and the Home-Rulers, a powerful dialectician, and, as Mr. Disraeli once said of him, "a master of flouts and sneers"; but he has really, in spite of the Tory confidence in him and admiration of him, never shown the slightest disposition to take great responsibilities on himself. Consequently none were so much amused by the extravagant promises made in his behalf by the Conservative orators at the last election as those who were best acquainted with his character. He has undoubtedly led the English public during the last six months to believe that he was going to bring the Turks to reason, that he had the means of stopping the Armenian horrors, that the Berlin Treaty, which he and Lord Beaconsfield brought home in such triumph, did assure peace and protection to the Christians of Asiatic Turkey. He now cynically announces that it meant nothing at all for them except England's approval of any reforms the Sultan chose to undertake; that England, since she cannot attack the problem from the land side, is utterly powerless to help them, without the concurrence of the Powers, and that the Powers will not concur.

This is all solemn truth, as we have been pointing out in these columns for months. England is and always has been powerless of herself. No Power can of its own motion, and unaided by others, do anything for the Armenians except Russia. But such an open avowal of impotence and helplessness, on behalf of a great nation, we presume, was never before made by an English minister. The feebleness of Mr. Gladstone's foreign policy used to be a favorite theme of Conservative orators, but Mr. Gladstone was a flaming son of Mars compared to Lord Salisbury. The worst thing Mr. Gladstone ever did in this direction was to make peace with an interesting and brave little people, the Boers, whom the Jingoes were trying to rob of their independence. What would they have said if he had vapored for a year and then confessed to mankind that there was no fight in him? There is no doubt that this astonishing speech will lower English prestige. Lord Salisbury cannot help the Armenians—granted. But to tell the Sultan and the world that he never thought he could, and tell the Turks that Christendom in the nineteenth century is powerless against them, is the worst of those "blazing indiscretions" of which John Morley has said Lord Salisbury is guilty every time he opens his mouth. It is enough to make Pitt turn in his grave.

SOME RESULTS OF THE TARIFF.

TWENTY years ago the opponents of the protective policy were just as convinced as they are to-day that it would in some way, but they could not exactly say in what, work enormous damage to this government, if it did not sow in it the seeds of positive decay. We think the precise way is now pretty clearly traced out. It was plain enough, *a priori*, at the period we mention, that the complete absorption of the leading political party in tariff legislation, its sacrifice of every other public interest to the tariff, and the rigorous use of the tariff test as a condition of admission to public life and office, would end in driving out of politics nearly all the thinking force of the nation —the class of men who were occupied with larger questions than the protection of manufactures, or who were capable of dealing with them. How many such men are left in public life to-day? Who is there in Senate or House whom anybody listens to with confidence and respect on any subject at all, and notably the great issues of war and peace? Who is the international lawyer in public life? Who is the great authority on currency and finance? Who expounds the Constitution, and stands for jurisprudence, and science, and art, or any of the great humanizing agencies? Who, in fact, has, on a pinch, a word to say for civilization itself? We shall be glad to call attention to any such gentlemen if, in the opinion of their admirers, we have overlooked them.

Now why should this be? The explanation is very easy. Legislation which enables a large body of rich men all over the country to calculate and enter in their ledgers the exact sum which a certain act of Congress will put into their individual pockets, is probably the greatest indirect incentive to corruption ever devised. No popular government could resist it for ten years. Not only does it give every manufacturer a direct commercial interest in the return of one type of man only to the Legislature, and that not a very high one, but it makes it a matter of business with him to resist and wage war on every other type. More than this, in a country of universal suffrage, it drives the employers of labor irresistibly into teaching not only their own employees, but all the poor and ignorant, that the chief function of Government is the making of profits and raising of wages, and causes all its other business to seem insignificant. Let a generation or two grow up under this teaching, and you soon have the devil let loose. You set every man who is not rich at work devising plans for making the Government give him more of the money which he thinks is due to him. You stimulate hatred and envy of the rich, because you make the masses think that they, through governmental carelessness and apathy, have got more than their share. You give all the manufacturers and corporations, too, an interest in establishing the boss system in all the States, so as more easily, through the boss, to control the nominating machinery and prevent men hostile to their interests from getting into office. In fact, the march of our politics under this system to its present condition has almost the order and sequence of a natural agency.

The recent extraordinary phenomenon known as "standing behind the President" in an ill-mannered, sudden, and unexpected attack on a friendly Power, accompanied and followed by a great outpouring of popular hate of a foreign nation, with disastrous effects on trade and commerce and public credit, is another direct result of the protective policy. In order to maintain the high tariff and justify the twenty-five increases of it, culminating in the McKinley bill, which we owe to the Republican party, hatred and suspicion of foreigners had to be embodied in the party creed and made the leading feature in popular education. Foreigners, and particularly Englishmen, had to be represented as constantly watching and plotting against the United States, as trying to influence our elections with money, and meditating designs against our prosperity. From this to rejoicing in the misery caused among foreigners by the loss of our trade, and predicting that, as our commerce grows, we shall have to keep a large navy for the purpose of fighting them, and finally to the development of deep hatred and desire to kill them in battle, among people who had never seen Englishmen at all, was a short step, and it was easily taken. Out of this, too, has grown the widespread delusion that America ought to be sufficient unto herself, ought to have a civilization of her own and currency of her own, and live apart from the rest of mankind on her own literature and ideas. It has been growing, curiously enough, just as the great Eastern empire of China is slowly laying this system of isolation aside, as a failure, after several thousand years of trial, and after the experience of many nations had shown that isolation ends in stagnation, and that contact with a variety of ideas and institutions is the first condition of progress.

Though last not least, the protective policy has brought on us the silver craze and its accompanying barbarisms. The plan of bringing in a number of small, scantily peopled silver States to keep down and counterbalance the rising anti-protective ideas of the East, or, as they frankly expressed it, to make sure of the McKinley tariff for ten years, was a device of the Republican majority in the Reed Congress of 1890. This plan, which really involved the submergence of our government under a tide of semi-barbarism from the mining towns, has now been followed for six years, and here is the result (we quote from the *Evening Post*):

"Nevada, with only 45,761 people, and most of them a harum scarum lot, has as many votes as New York with 5,997,853; Wyoming's 60,705 as Pennsylvania's 5,258,014; and Idaho's 84,385 as Ohio's 3,672,316. The ten States of North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, Utah, Nevada, Idaho, Oregon, and Washington, in one section and with a common interest, with only one-thirtieth of the population of the nation, have twenty of the ninety Senators, or two-fifths of a majority."

These men, reinforced by like-minded legislators from other States west of the Mississippi, while representing only a quarter of the population, are, when united, within eight of commanding a majority of the Senate. Most of them have brought with them the protective idea in its last and crudest and most violent form, for they are in favor of protecting even native money from foreign competition. They avow that they are not only in favor of the excision of America from the civilized world, but of enhancing in every way they can, by legislation, the silver which they wish to make the medium of exchange. The mediæval monarchs used to prohibit the exportation of the precious metals because they wanted them to be cheaper at home, and we laugh over it; but our barbarians "go them one better," for they propose to keep them at home to make them dearer. In fact, anybody who is lecturing at a Circle like Chautauqua, or any summer school, on the history of civilization, could not do better than take his class down to Washington, and converse with a Western silver Senator on currency, credit, and international exchange, as a means of getting a glimpse of the mind of Clovis, or Merovig, or any of the great barbarian chiefs of the fifth and sixth centuries. They will thus acquire more knowledge of the mediæval world in a couple of hours than by a year's study of chronicles or records. The silver craze, in fact, in its trans-Mississippian development, as well as the degradation of the Senate, which is now exciting so much alarm, is as direct a result of the Republican policy of the last quarter of a century as if it embodied it all in a single act of Congress.

THE POCKET VS. PATRIOTISM.

A BOSTON paper reported the President as marvelling greatly, in a letter to a banker of that city, that New England business men should have shown, in the Venezuelan flurry, so much more concern for their pockets than for patriotism. We know, at any rate, that, in the deadly rebuke of the Harvard professors levelled at them by the eminent youth who has more understanding than all his teachers, severe things were said of "stock-jobbing timidity—the kind of statesmanship which is clamored for at this moment by the men who put monetary gain before national honor." It is, indeed, a loathsome picture of the sordid spirit which is thus drawn for us—thousands of merchants and manufacturers, with good red blood to spill, meekly putting up with national insult and disgrace for the sake of a few miserable dollars. Contrasted with them, we are asked to admire the band of gene-

rous and full-souled men, thirsting for honor and despising the jingle of the guinea, who follow their country's flag right or wrong, and count all the rest the vile dross it is.

Everybody must feel indignant as he looks on that picture and then on this. What man so low as not to blush for the cravens who weigh their pocket-books against their country? But, to be consistent, and to insist upon making and keeping our patriotism entirely pure, we shall have to go farther. We shall have to consider the case of those who throw their pocket-books into the same scale with their country—who throw in a very flat and gaping pocket-book, in the hope of getting it back again plump and sleek. In other words, if sordidness is at deadly enmity with patriotism, nobody must be allowed to go to war or advocate war who will not solemnly agree in advance to come out poorer than he goes in. This would at once rule out all naval contractors, one of whom was lately heard to say that he hoped to Heaven there would be a war to give him a chance to make a fortune. It would prevent, also, all furnishing of supplies except at less than cost, all pensions, all promotions with higher pay, all paying of debts in the depreciated currency which war would be certain to bring. We must not have any scandalous getting rich out of the country's troubles, such as plagued us in the civil war. No one should be permitted to speak or vote for war who will not put on file an inventory of all his worldly goods, and give a bond to bring no more out of the war than he carries in. Only in this way can we get a Gideon's band of absolutely disinterested patriots before whom no enemy could stand.

Then we must revise our histories, and stop making patriots of our forefathers who went to war for their pockets' sake. It will never do to say that it is honorable to go to war for a few dollars, but dastardly to try to avert war for the same reason. The American Revolution was, as a philosophic historian tersely defines it, "a money war." The colonists, as Burke said, had no such wonderful love of liberty in the abstract, but were like the sordid English in having that love "fixed and attached" on the point of control of their own property. Now it cannot be at the same time patriotic to go to war for the sake of keeping the money that belongs to you, and recreant to country and all that is sacred to wish to avoid war from the same motive. Historically, all wars originate in a desire to plunder or to escape being plundered. But we have changed all that, and made war simply the nursery of manhood and all gracious and heroic qualities. As Senator Thurston and Mr. Roosevelt maintain, a base "money-changer" cannot live in the pure atmosphere of disinterested war. But this view, we repeat, will make our Revolutionary sires little better than stock-jobbers, and will go far to account for Washington's complaint that his ranks could not be kept full because the war was so mercenary in spirit and was carried on with so little patriotism.

How cleanly our off-hand instructors in war and love of country beg the whole question by their epithets about "the pocket," would be clear even to them if they would stop and ask themselves what is really meant by their pet phrase, the pocket. Does it mean a miserly clutching of creature comforts? Do the men who ask to be shown the reason and justice of war, before being driven madly into it, think only of eating and drinking and good clothes and social enjoyments, and cry out with the Persian, "Ah, take the cash and let the credit go"? Nothing of the kind. What staggers and dismays them in the thought of war, what outrages them in the wild war-talk of raw and silly boys, is the perception of the fearful blow to the whole fabric of civilization which war would strike. "The pocket," in a rational mind, means the most complicated and interdependent system of trade and commerce and industry the world ever saw; it means the daily bread of millions of men and women whom a great war would throw at once into beggary or burglary; it means the progress of art and literature and general refinement; the founding and support of colleges and churches and missions—in short, the chief things that make life worth living and the evolution of society aught but a terrible mockery. Yet it is the man who asks his fellows to stop and think of the imperilling of these great proofs and forces of civilization, who is to be held up as a selfish, spiritless, miserly wretch cumbering the earth!

But what about national honor and dignity? Yes; what about them!

> "They tell you, sir," said Burke in the English Parliament, speaking of the mad rush into war with America, "they tell you that your dignity is tied to it. I know not how it happens, but this dignity of yours is a terrible encumbrance to you; for it has of late been ever at war with your interest, your equity, and every idea of your policy. Show the thing you contend for to be reason; show it to be common sense; show it to be the means of attaining some useful end; and then I am content to allow it what dignity you please. But what dignity is derived from the perseverance in absurdity, is more than ever I could discern."

There is the true answer to the raging of the heathen about "national honor." Honor that has no relation to justice, or good faith, or our own highest self-interest, or the only reason of government and national life at all, is but another name for what is base and savage. Between that kind of false and fraudulent "honor," and "the pocket" that really means the fairest fruits of civilization and Christianity, rational men will not long hesitate how to choose.

VENEZUELAN GOLD FIELDS.

If we may judge from paragraphs in the newspapers, there is a large stock of misinformation touching the gold mines in Venezuela, or British Guiana, whichever the country they may belong to. An impression certainly exists that the desire to possess those mines is the ruling motive in Great Britain in the boundary controversy. A morning paper in this city, for example, says that the production of gold there reached £375,000 in 1891, and had risen to £510,000 in 1894, and then tells its readers that "these gold fields are, of course, the whole cause of the quarrel between England and Venezuela, and the prospect of their increasing production constitutes the chief difficulty in the way of arbitration." Turning to Lord Salisbury's despatch of November 26, upon which Mr. Cleveland founded his bumptious message of December 17, we read this:

> "They [her Majesty's Government] have, on the contrary, repeatedly expressed their readiness to submit to arbitration the conflicting claims of Great Britain and Venezuela to large tracts of territory which from their auriferous nature are known to be of almost untold value."

He went on to say that they could not submit to arbitration territory which had long been settled by British subjects, who were accustomed to a quiet life and well-ordered government, and thus expose them to the chance of frequent revolutionary disorder. In other words, the very territory which many, perhaps most, of our people consider the bone of contention, the British Government has always been ready to submit to arbitration. Now, what do these gold mines amount to *in esse*, not *in posse*?

The recognized authority on gold fields, foreign and domestic, is the United States Mint, which publishes each year, in addition to the regular Mint report, a volume on the "Production of the Precious Metals." Turning to this volume for 1894, we find the latest information then available concerning these mines. They are grouped under the head of British Guiana, which shows that our own officials, at a time when there was no boundary controversy raging, considered these mines to be in British territory. That these are the mines referred to in the current stock of misinformation is made clear by the statistical returns of the output as tabulated in the Mint report, which are nearly identical with those quoted above. There are other gold mines in Venezuela proper, but their total production in 1894 was only $851,000, that of British Guiana being $2,310,100.

The most important and direct information touching the mines of Guiana comes from Mr. Louis S. Delaplaine, United States Consul at Georgetown, Demerara. He tells us that there are five separate and distinct gold fields "in the colony," each of which is difficult to reach, there being no regular means of transportation in that region. Not only is transportation difficult, but there are no roads. There is not even a bridle-path, there is not even a footpath to the mining districts. The only way to reach

them is by open boats poled along the rivers by native Indians. "The fall of the rivers," he says, "is very steep, and there are numerous falls and cataracts to be passed which make the journey laborious and expensive, and also very unpleasant, with the hot sun continually beating down on the traveller's head; provisions and supplies of all kinds must be transported in the same way." It takes three weeks to reach one of these districts which is only one hundred miles from Georgetown.

These are only a minor part of the difficulties to be encountered in getting the gold out of the ground. The country is about in the centre of the tropical rains, which fall incessantly "for months at a time," says Mr. Delaplaine. One consequence is that the vegetation is dense and almost impenetrable, requiring a vast deal of digging and grubbing to get into the ground at all. Another is that the climate is unhealthy. Fevers are prevalent, and only the hardiest constitutions can long survive there. There is no white labor to be had there, and no intelligent labor of any color. The negroes, who are employed to do manual work, "are about as worthless and lazy as can be imagined, not to speak of their moral and mental deficiencies, which are matters of no slight importance." There was only one quartz mill in operation there at the time when Mr. Delaplaine wrote, but another one had been ordered. The ore is not so rich generally as that of California, but it may prove richer when means are found to go deeper below the surface. It is estimated roughly that up to this time the gold taken out has not repaid the cost of getting it, but there is good reason to believe that there will be a credit balance soon. Gold mines exercise a powerful influence on the imagination, not only of the miner, but of the capitalist who never sees the mine. Only an insignificant part of the gold-bearing region has yet been explored.

Mr. Delaplaine neither advises Americans to try their luck in these gold fields, nor dissuades them. He thinks upon the whole that a man who thoroughly understands the business, and who can command a capital of not less than $2,500, and who has a sound constitution, and who does not drink alcoholic or malt liquors, may go there with a reasonably fair prospect of success even under present conditions. The future prosperity of the mining districts, however, depends upon the introduction of capital, the maintenance of order, the making of roads, the education of the blacks, and, in short, the civilization of the country. What progress Venezuela is likely to make towards these ameliorations we may judge from what she has done in the past. There is a revolution overdue in that country now, which the intending reformers tell us is suspended only on account of the boundary dispute. When this is settled they will clean out Crespo in short order.

WILLIAM HENRY FURNESS.

THE earliest living graduate of Harvard College, pastor emeritus of the First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia, died without warning in that city on Thursday last. His faculties were practically unimpaired, and he had made elaborate public addresses within the last three months.

Dr. Furness was born in Boston, April 20, 1802. His earliest education at one "dame's school" after another was in company with Ralph Waldo Emerson, who was a year younger than himself. A happy consequence of this is the charming recollections of Emerson's childhood and youth in Cabot's 'Life of Emerson.' Dr. Furness says they were babies together, and, indeed, they were that at school. Before his third birthday we find Emerson's father complaining that he did not read very well. Later they went to the Latin School together and to a private school at the same time to learn to write, and Dr. Furness tells how his companion's tongue worked up and down with his pen, and thanks heaven that "he never had any talent for anything—nothing but pure genius, which talents would have overlaid." Inspired by the naval victories of the war of 1812, young Emerson wrote a romance in verse called "Fortus," and young Furness furnished the illustrations. It was a work of mutual admiration, and is still preserved by an appreciative friend. Another schoolfellow of the earliest times was Mr. Samuel Bradford. Emerson, in the seventies, wrote that the three "had agreed not to grow old, at least to each other." The agreement was well kept. Dr. Furness and Emerson had ever a very great affection for each other, but had little correspondence. There is a story current to the effect that once, when Furness had broken the long silence, Emerson regretted it—it had been so pleasant to be sure of mutual recollection without any sign.

From the Latin School Dr. Furness went to Harvard College and was graduated in 1820; from the Cambridge Theological School in 1823. Preaching as a candidate in various churches in and around Boston, he received no call, and was well pleased—"such a hearty dread," he says in his fiftieth anniversary discourse, the most considerable bit of autobiography he has left for our instruction, "had I of being settled in Boston, whose churchgoers had in those days the reputation of being terribly critical; and rhetoric then and there was almost a religion." Afterwards, while preaching in Baltimore for a few Sundays, he received an invitation to preach in Philadelphia on his way to Boston, and, doing so, was invited, before he left, to return and be the minister of the society. He had ever a suspicion that the committee which invited him comprised nearly the whole meeting they professed to represent. Philadelphia was a great way from Boston, the Unitarian centre, and ordinations were a solemn business in those days, so that six months were consumed in making the necessary preparations; but finally Mr. Furness was ordained, January 12, 1825. Those taking part in the service were mostly young men, but one of them was Dr. Aaron Bancroft of Worcester, Mass., father of the late George Bancroft, one of the Unitarian pioneers, then in his seventieth year. Dr. Furness was the first regular pastor of the Philadelphia society, though in 1825 it was already twenty-nine years old. It had been organized in 1796 by Dr. Joseph Priestley, who had come to this country two years before. He was living at that time in Northumberland, Pa., and had gone to Philadelphia to deliver certain lectures on the evidences of Christianity. The interest excited by these lectures led to the organization of a Unitarian society, the first organized as such in the United States, though King's Chapel, Boston, had fallen away from Episcopacy into Unitarianism nine years before. Priestley could not be persuaded to remain in Philadelphia and become the pastor of the new society, but advised the regular lay reading of Unitarian literature, and this was kept up, with some lay and clerical preaching, until 1825. A small brick octagon church was built in 1813, which in 1828 was displaced by the pleasant and commodious building in which Dr. Furness preached till the conclusion of his active pastorate in 1875.

Dr. Furness had several qualities that made for his success in the ministry: a fine face and noble presence, a voice remarkable for depth and melody, a style of great simplicity. His was "a standard of pulpit reading which he himself exemplified without a peer," and no higher standard has been known among us. His work as a minister of religion was profoundly individual. Though his ministry began in the most heated period of the Unitarian Controversy, his own preaching was seldom negative or controversial. Its doctrinal part was mainly incidental. When he had occasion to oppose ideas, there was seldom a descent to personal polemics. Channing himself was not more unsectarian than he, or less denominational. Personally he kept himself aloof from all denominational organizations—a circumstance not a little irritating to Dr. Bellows and others with a like passion for organized activities; and his society followed his example. He could never be induced to attend the meetings of the National Conference until it came to Philadelphia, and fairly "roped him in," when he was eighty-seven years old. His ecclesiastical aloofness never prejudiced his Unitarian standing in the least degree; he was counted in while counting himself out, and the warmth of his personal affections made good the lack of formal fellowship. His friendship with Dr. Hedge was, perhaps, the closest of many that enriched his life. For many younger men he had the warmest heart; and while he had some pride in his discovery of Robert Collyer, Mr. Collyer was especially grateful to him as "the first minister in good standing who didn't patronize him." In Philadelphia as a citizen and neighbor his associations had no bounds of sect or creed. Orthodox liberality was always furnishing some fresh encouragement of his faith in the essential unity of all believing souls, and the Roman Catholic bishop was a favorite companion, and furnished him with some of the best stories in a repertory that was always full and overflowing.

Dr. Furness's preaching was not a circle with one centre, but an ellipse with two, from the inception of the anti-slavery conflict till the end of the civil war. The two centres were the naturalness of Jesus and his miracles, and the abolition of slavery. His interest and engrossment in the anti-slavery cause cost him much broken friendship and social disesteem; some that he loved and trusted most doing their best to keep him back from manly opposition to the nation's sin. But they could not do it. His courage grew with opposition, and, let who would hear him or forbear, his convictions found frequent and unmistakable expression in his Sunday speech. Maria Weston Chapman speaks of him as coming at length "into practical fellowship with the American abolitionists." To more than that, with his

distrust of all organizations, he could not attain. The proudest recollection of his life was of the meeting of the American Anti-Slavery Society in New York in 1850, signalized by the Rynders mob. He saw it all, and was a part of it as one of the speakers of the day. "Never before or since," wrote Dr. Furness, "have I been so deeply moved as on that occasion. Depths were stirred in me never before reached."

The other centre of Dr. Furness's enthusiasm as a preacher became the only one when slavery was at length abolished. Even before that it seemed to him, as he reviewed his life, that his interest in the anti-slavery cause did not divert him from his interest in the historical value of the Four Gospels, but rather made it more; helped him better to appreciate the human dignity of Jesus and the spirit of his work. Few lives have been so unified by a course of study flowing with unabated energy from first to last for more than fifty years. Six or eight major books, and scores of lesser books and pamphlets, were the literary products which this current bore along. All these had but a single two-fold theme: the historical validity of the Gospels proved by the naturalness of their contents; and the naturalness of Jesus, without exception on account of the miracles ascribed to him, and without questioning their actual occurrence. With each new volume, as he went on "still clutching the inviolable shade, with a free onward impulse," he thought he had done it better than before, only to become soon dissatisfied and set out on another quest. For many of his later years he seldom preached on anything but one or another aspect of his favorite theme. "I suppose you write many sermons," he said to a young friend about 1870; "I write only one, but I keep on writing it over." There was something pathetic in this long insistence, especially when more and more he failed to command the assent or even to catch the ear of his coreligionists or others, until at length the unique impressiveness of his serene and beautiful old age won for him the fresh attention of the younger generations.

The impulse of Dr. Furness's method probably came from Paulus's 'Life of Jesus,' published in Germany in 1828, or from his 'Exegetical Hand-book,' published in 1830–33. The fundamental rationalism was the same in either case, but Dr. Furness's handling of the principle was that of a poet, while Paulus's was that of a man absolutely prosaic and devoid of taste. Many of Dr. Furness's interpretations are real helps to a better understanding of the Gospels and the character of Jesus, and, where they are not, their ingenious subtlety and their unfailing beauty are a great delight. It is generally agreed that the volumes of 1836 and 1838 contain the best he had to give, though some of the other volumes, and especially 'Thoughts on the Life and Character of Jesus of Nazareth,' have very interesting and suggestive passages.

Dr. Furness was married August 29, 1825, to Annis Pulling Jenks of Salem, Mass., and she outlived by several years the conclusion of his pastorate in 1875. She was a lady of great beauty, and her portrait by Sully, painted in her early womanhood, is one of the most attractive examples of his art. Her face was imaged in her mind and in her heart. Their oldest son, William, a painter of great promise, died in his early manhood. The other children have all won distinction in their separate fields, Dr. Horace H. Furness as a Shakspere scholar, Mr. Frank Furness as an architect, Mrs. Annis Lee Wister as a translator of German novels. The happiness of Dr. Furness in his children was his crowning joy. After his retirement from the regular duties of the ministry he was regarded by his former people as their pastor emeritus, and often preached for them, and in a few years was formally invested with the office. His successor, the Rev. Joseph May, a son of the Rev. Samuel J. May, with a full portion of his father's spirit, was as well qualified as any one could be to take up Dr. Furness's work and carry it on with all the quiet earnestness and public spirit of the patriarch who laid it down.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY'S NEW DEPARTURE.

LONDON, January 6, 1896.

THERE has been much talk lately of the honor done to the Royal Academy by the bestowal of a peerage upon its President; but the Academy's true distinction just now is the presence upon its walls of the work of the French Romanticists, whose existence it has hitherto ignored. Their appearance at Burlington House is certainly a concession to those critics who, for long, have inveighed against the indifference shown to the great modern French painters by official representatives of art in England. Landseers and Friths may litter the walls of the National Gallery, but space never yet has been found for a Corot or a Millet; apparently, Directors labor under the delusion that French art came to an end with Claude, and Poussin, and Watteau. Year after year, in its winter exhibition, the Academy has resurrected "deceased masters of the British School" who had better have been allowed to remain in peaceful obscurity; but to the dealers has been left the far pleasanter task of presenting the modern French masters to the English public. This might seem the more unaccountable since it is to the English Constable that these men, in large measure, owed their inspiration, were it not remembered that Constable himself was misunderstood by the Academy, of which he was a member.

All these things considered, the new departure strikes one as little less than revolutionary within such conservative walls. But indeed, recently, Academicians have given several signs of a sensible desire to amend their ways, and to make the Academy something more than a pleasant club for genial gentlemen who happen to paint. Artistic discrimination has been manifested in the election of at least two or three Associates. Last winter a gallery devoted to the goldsmith's work was practically the first formal recognition of decorative or industrial art, which has been an unknown quantity in an Academy supposed to include all the Arts. The same sort of work was prominent in the spring exhibition; once more, in the winter show just opened, the sculptor-goldsmith is to the fore, now almost as a matter of course. And, as strongest proof of the striving after a more liberal policy, comes the present admission into Academical headquarters of the Romantic School so persistently overlooked. If the National Gallery but follow suit, the official reparation for years of inexplicable neglect will be complete.

Let me say at once that the chief interest of the French pictures now collected together lies in the fact of their being here at all. There can be small doubt that a better selection could easily have been made. At many of the dealers', at Boussod & Valadon's, at Mr. Van Wisselingh's, at Mr. Laurie's, I have seen far finer and more representative series of Barbizon masterpieces. It would seem as if the Academy had half-repented of its unaccustomed liberality, and, even while admitting the Romanticists, had refused to show them in their most distinguished moods and moments. Besides, to hang just a chance Pater or Watteau, Boucher or Fragonard, charming as each may be, or just an occasional Meissonier or Bastien Lepage, is to introduce distracting elements without a sufficient compensating gain.

However, to imply that all the examples chosen are unimportant would be to give a false impression. Probably, among artists, few pictures of the Romantic period produced a greater sensation than Millet's "Wood-Sawyers," lent to the Academy by Mr. Ionides. To the public, the "Angelus," with its touch of obvious sentiment, may ever have been Millet's most notable achievement. But the artist who prizes certain technical qualities in a picture more highly than sentiment, could see in the "Wood-Sawyers," when first exhibited, a successful defiance to those academic restrictions that make for banality and commonplace. Judged by academic standards, the figures might be out of drawing, the action expressed by illegitimate means, the color-scheme a challenge to all tradition, and the indifference to detail might amount to an offence. To-day so much more daring have been the innovators that such a picture would create no special excitement in the studios. There seems no reason to question means when an impression of movement is so admirably recorded, when the mystery and rich shadowy depths of a forest background are so delightfully suggested. But, I must confess, to me the blue trousers of the central figure are so needlessly aggressive that there are times when Mr. Hole's quite wonderful black-and-white interpretation is more satisfactory than the original itself. However this may be, it is fortunate that the "Wood-Sawyers," of all the many Millets, should have been forthcoming when, for the first time, the Romanticists make their welcome intrusion into an Academy exhibition.

Of the other painters in the little group, there is nothing of equal significance, though the four Corots have the advantage of helping to explain the successive phases through which the artist passed before the final development of the style now most intimately associated with his name. To mark his earliest period, there is a tiny "Rome," the trimmed trees of the Pincian forming a sombre frame to the familiar, almost hackneyed, view of St. Peter's—a view here flooded with sunlight as brilliant as any that ever shone on the canvases of Fortuny and his followers. Already Corot's methods had broadened in a lovely "Avignon," town and river, and the vast plain that stretches to the horizon's low hills, seen from a near height—a harmony in the sad grays, pale silvery greens, and sunlit blues that fill the strange olive-clad land of Provence. But it is in the "Evening," a sketch probably for the large picture of the same name, and in the "Ville d'Avray," one of innumerable versions of the landscape Corot never wearied of painting, that he reveals himself the great master of tone, the idyllic poet whose medium was paint. Rousseau also is here, in a stately Valley of the Seine as he saw it from the terraces of St. Cloud; and, with him, are Courbet and Troyon—most inefficiently represented—Diaz and Daubigny, Delacroix and Decamps, Ingres and Géricault; in a word, all the men who brought to Romanticism its glory and its wide-extended influence for good.

The descriptions of these canvases, since they are mostly well known, would be superfluous. It is really more useful to note the value of the opportunity now offered for a very suggestive comparative study. In an adjoining room hang three large Constables, and by referring to these not only may you measure the debt of the Barbizon men to the most original of all English landscape-painters, but you cannot mistake the tremendous advance upon the old methods which they, in their turn, made. To emphasize still further the difference between the old and new schools of landscape-painting, two large Claudes are in the immediate vicinity of the Constables. In the Claudes, both nominally with a Scriptural theme, the classical convention is seen in its perfection. Here is the arrangement of rocks and rivers and classical architecture that never existed save on the classicist's canvas—perhaps it most nearly approached realization in the Chicago Exhibition; here, the light that never was, on sea or land. To look from them to the Constables, is to be confronted with the work of a man who felt the weakness of the classical convention, who objected to looking at nature for ever through the spectacles of the schools, and who, seeing things for himself, endeavored to record them as they are, not as they may compose by rule and compass. The naturalism of Constable is evident in "The Jumping Horse," the "Stratford Mill," the "Landscape," now exhibited. But evident, too, is that which is the great defect of many of his large landscapes—his undue, if conscientious, elaboration of detail until his canvas contains a dozen pictures instead of one only. You need go no further than to the stairway leading to the Academy's Diploma Galleries—all too seldom visited by the crowds who would not miss the spring's show or the winter's Old Masters—to be reminded what an incomparable master Constable was when he sketched. But he had a tendency, when it came to painting a large picture, to arrange upon one canvas half a dozen or more of his marvellous little studies. The effect of the composition as a whole is thus sacrificed to parts having all too little relation to each other, and the result is a certain restlessness that fatigues the eye. This the French Romanticists recognized to be a mistake, though their early canvases prove that they too could, and did for a time, devote to detail all the minute observation and elaboration of a Constable. But in their best work they carried his naturalism to its legitimate conclusion, and sought, not merely to render a landscape, but to render it as they saw it, preserving on their canvas the unity of their actual impression. To follow with intelligence, as you can now at the Academy, the development of landscape-painting from Claude to Corot, through Constable, is one way to finding a clue to what to so many people is still the enigma of modern impressionism.

I have dwelt upon this section of the Exhibition because, in other respects, the collection is much as it was last winter and the many winters preceding. There is a room full of Primitives, a so-called Giorgione conspicuous for the benefit of the foot-rule critic whose least concern is beauty in a picture. There are portraits by, or after, Velasquez and Titian and Tintoretto and Vandyck. There are several very lovely Turners: one, a "Monte Aventino," in which the color seems still fairly fresh in contrast to another called "The Blue Lights," which, like the great majority of Turners, has so suffered by the effect of time upon bad pigments that its name becomes meaningless. And, as usual, there is an imposing array of Romneys, Gainsboroughs, and Sir Joshuas, a few especially famous: Gainsborough's "Blue Boy" from the Duke of Westminster's gallery, the painter's bold protest against academicial color-schemes; Sir Joshua's "Tragic Muse" from the same collection, and a number of his portraits of children, charming in themselves, but responsible for a vast progeny of sentimental and silly babies; while preëminent in the chief centre of honor is Gilbert Stuart's portrait of Washington, who, by his timely presence, seems to be holding out the olive branch. As agent of peace, the Academy was not to be outdone by the Society of Authors. N. N.

PAINTINGS AT CHANTILLY.

PARIS, January 16, 1896.

ON the occasion of the centenary of the foundation of the Institute, a visit to Chantilly was made by the members of the Institute, and each of them was presented, on his arrival at the Château, with a tiny volume, published at the charge of the Duke d'Aumale, bearing this title: 'Chantilly: Visite de l'Institut de France, 26 Octobre, 1895; Itinéraire.' The volume was to serve the recipient as a guide, and gave a succinct account of all the works of art to be seen in each room in the galleries, the towers, the staircases, the chapel, the vestibules, the room which goes under the name of "Appartement de M. le Prince," the library, etc. This pretty volume, published by Plon, is a real guide-book, which will be of great use to all who are allowed to visit Chantilly, as the arrangement of all the works of art, pictures, statues, and tapestries may now be considered as definitive. But this catalogue will be some day supplemented by detailed works on all the valuable works of art at Chantilly. The series has been begun by a very magnificent volume, 'La Peinture au Château de Chantilly,' written by M. Gruyer, member of the Academy of Fine Arts of the Institute, who long ago achieved a great notoriety in the artistic and literary world by his volumes on Raphael, which are standard works of artistic criticism. He lived for many years in Italy, was for some time one of the "conservateurs" of the Museum of the Louvre, and is an occasional contributor to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Living at Chantilly, and honored with the friendship of the Duke d'Aumale, he was better qualified than anybody to give a description of the galleries of pictures formed by the Prince.

The volume just published is full of beautiful illustrations made by modern processes from fine photographs by Braun, and is devoted to the foreign schools, chiefly the Italian and Flemish. A second volume will be consecrated to the French school. The notices written by M. Gruyer concerning each painter have been placed by him in chronological order, and they may thus be said to belong to the history of art, of which they are successive fragments. We cannot here follow such a chronological order, and we can draw attention only to certain pictures which may be called the gems of the collection. "À tout seigneur, tout honneur," says a French proverb. Who would not, if he had only a few moments to spend at Chantilly, ask to see first the Raphaels? They are to be found in a small cabinet which goes under the name of the "Santuario." One is the "Virgin of the House of Orleans," a small panel, painted about 1506, which is absolutely intact and has never been touched by any painter's hand but Raphael's. It was placed by the Regent in the Gallery of the Palais-Royal. The other represents the "Three Graces"; it was painted by Raphael about 1505. In 1503 Raphael was occupied in Siena in helping Pinturicchio decorate the *libreria* of the cathedral with ten frescoes which represent the principal traits of the life of Æneas Sylvius Piccolomini, who became Pope under the name of Pius II. In this *libreria* was at the time an old group of the Three Graces, which had been found in the excavations made for building the cathedral. Raphael was inspired by this group, and first made a drawing of two of the Graces (which is now in the collection of the Academy of Fine Arts at Venice). A year afterwards he made the admirable picture in which the Graces are seen in a landscape which recalls the shores of Lake Thrasymene and the neighborhood of Spoleto. This small masterpiece belongs to what may be called the Umbrian manner of the painter. This picture, after having made a part of the Borghese Gallery, went successively through the hands of Reboul, Fabre, Sir Thomas Lawrence, Woodburne, and Lord Dudley. It was sold to the Duke d'Aumale in 1885 for the price of 625,000 francs.

The "Virgin of the Regent" possesses a marvellous simplicity and freshness. It belongs without a doubt to the Florentine manner or period of the immortal master. It was nevertheless most probably painted at Urbino, where it remained till the end of the sixteenth century. It was taken then to Flanders, and a legend will have it that David Teniers substituted for an open-air background the interior background which is now seen. This legend has no justification. The small vases on a shelf which are seen in the background have Italian forms. We lose sight for a time of the picture; it reappears in the eighteenth century in the Crozat, Tassart, and Decamp collections, and then enters the gallery of the Regent. During the Revolution it emigrates to Brussels, and remains in the hands of M. Laborde de Méréville. In 1798 M. Hibbert buys it for 12,500 francs; it was owned afterwards by M. Vernon, M. Delamarre, M. Aguado, M. François Delessert. After the death of M. Delessert, the Duke d'Aumale bought it in 1869 for 150,000 francs. If it was for sale now, Mr. Gruyer thinks that it would fetch a million, and there is no exaggeration in this statement.

Between the two exquisite Raphaels stands a panel of a marriage-coffer, painted over by Filippino Lippi. It represents the story of Esther and Ahasuerus. Filippo Lippi, commonly called Filippino to distinguish him from his father, was born in 1457 at Prato. He became the pupil of Sandro Botticelli, and it is impossible not to see a deep relation between their works. In 1484 Lippi was chosen for continuing, in the famous chapel of Brancaccio, the work of Masolino da Panicale and of Masaccio, which had been interrupted for nearly half a century. M. Gruyer says that "if Raphael admired Masaccio enough to borrow from him the figures of Adam and Eve for the Loggie, he marked also his esteem for Filippino by being inspired by the figures of St. Peter and St. Paul in the cartoon of the tapestry of Saint Paul at Ephesus. We could almost say that among the latest of the Florentine *quattrocentisti* there is perhaps none who can be considered the immediate precursor of Raphael so much as Filippino Lippi." He had two manners; the picture of "Esther and Ahasuerus" belongs to the first, which was un-

doubtedly the best, as the second manner was spoiled by ostentation of knowledge of classical antiquity. The younger works of the master were unaffected, and had a natural grace and poetry which is unparalleled. On a simple *cassone*, decorated for some noble daughter of Florence, Filippino Lippi has made a composition which is an admirable illustration of the story of Esther. In the background is seen the great repast given by Ahasuerus for his court; the residence of Shushan is represented by one of those charming Florentine palaces which were built by the Brunelleschis, the Michalozzis, the Albertis, with their porticos and their high columns. In the central portico sits the old Ahasuerus; he half rises to greet Esther, who is bowing to him. He is surrounded by the wise men of his council. Six virgins, guided by the guardians of the women, accompany Esther; three are behind her, on the left of the picture, three are before her, and have already passed before the King. The grace and angelic beauty cannot be sufficiently praised.

Fifty years ago the coffer, on one of the sides of which is this graceful composition, was still complete in the Palazzo Torrigiani, at the time when Luigi Torrigiani was beginning his collection. The panels had, however, been all detached, and were hanging like pictures in the gallery, and were afterwards dispersed. In 1877 the panel of "Esther and Ahasuerus" was sold by Prince Torrigiani to a French engineer, M. Leclanché, who made a fair fortune by the aid of an electric pile which bears his name. In 1892 Leclanché died, and the Duke d'Aumale bought the panel, which was a part of the very remarkable collection that had been formed by the French electrician. I remember visiting the collection at the time it was sold, and I was struck by the extraordinary taste which Leclanché, a scientific man, had shown in the choice of the objects which he had collected and bought with his savings; there was hardly an indifferent object in his collection.

The worshippers of the oldest Italian schools will find much to admire at Chantilly. I will notice only the portrait of Simonetta Vespucci, one of the most seductive women of her time, by Pallajuolo, who was one of the best sculptors of his time as well as a painter and engraver. This is the true Simonetta (we see her name in small capitals painted on the lower margin "Simonetta Januensis Vespuccia"), and the Simonetta of the Palazzo Pitti has usurped the name. Perugino is represented by a fine Virgin, called the "Glorious Virgin," sitting with the infant Jesus on a throne, with Saint Jerome on one side and Saint Peter on the other. The picture was made in the youth of Perugino, when he still kept the habit of modelling with lines, like an engraver. This picture left the Church of Saint Jerome to enter the collection of the Duke of Lucques, and afterwards the Northwick collection.

Botticelli shows us a life-sized figure of "Autumn"; a young woman with two young children. This "Autumn" has all the qualities as well as the defects of the great Florentine master. Bernardino Luini has an "Infant Jesus, Saviour of the World" which has all the grace of a Leonardo, so much so that, for a time, it was attributed to Da Vinci, and catalogued as such in 1823 in the gallery of Fonthill Abbey. It was bought by M. Frédéric Reisel and afterwards by the Duke d'Aumale. I know no finer picture by Primaticcio than the portrait of Odet de Coligny, cardinal of Châtillon. It is well in place in the old house of the Montmorencys. It was painted in 1548, when Coligny's brother was thirty-one years old; but is the portrait really by Primaticcio? M. Gruyer has doubts and would rather attribute it to the Florentine masters, to Bronzino or Pontormo. Another fine portrait is the portrait of an unknown gentleman by Scipione Pulzone, commonly called Scipione Gaetano.

In the Flemish school, we must notice the magnificent portrait of the great Bastard of Burgundy by Roger van der Weyden, a disciple of Van Eyck, and one of the glories of the school of Bruges. This portrait of the natural son of Philippe Le Bon was painted about 1460. It belonged to Gaignières, the celebrated collector, and was afterwards in the Duke of Sutherland's gallery till it was bought by the Duke d'Aumale. I can only mention rapidly some important pictures of the foreign schools: the "Virgin and the Infant Jesus appearing before Jeanne of France," by Memling; a portrait of the Cardinal of Bourbon by an unknown Dutch master; a portrait of Elisabeth Stuart, Queen of Bohemia, by Mierevelt; a life size portrait of Gaston of France, Duke of Orleans, by Van Dyck. The same master is represented by two beautiful portraits of Count Henri de Berghe and of Marie de Barbançon, Duchess of Aremberg. A charming portrait of the great Condé, made by David Teniers during the long sojourn of the Prince in Flanders, was added not long ago to the collection. We see in it Condé as a young man; the portraits of Condé in later years are very numerous at Chantilly. I cannot mention a number of other portraits which are all interesting in an artistic and in an historical sense.

There are few landscapes of the Flemish school, but two of them are masterpieces—the shore of Scheveningen, by Ruysdael; a calm sea, by Van der Velde, and a tempest by Everdingen. The English school has but few representatives—a portrait of Philippe Égalité in the uniform of colonel of hussars, by Sir Joshua Reynolds; the "Two Waldegraves," by the same; and Francis I., Emperor of Austria, by Sir Thomas Lawrence.

Correspondence.

"LIGHT": A DISCRIMINATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Attention should be called to Prof. Münsterberg's account in *Science* of the new kind of invisible light. It is in many respects the most comprehensible that has yet appeared. The agent is so new and so wonderful that it is difficult to find correct terms in which to speak of it. Should it be called light or not light? This is an instance of a state of things which is of not uncommon occurrence in those portions of science which do not reach the popular ear—of the necessity, namely, for revising what the logicians call the "formation of the concept." Our naïve ancestors, in making language, did not distinguish between light as an external something brought to us by the sun and candles and fireflies, and light as an internal sensation. The distinction was not very essential so long as the two things always coincided; and the cases of the sensation being produced by a push of the eye-ball, or by a fall on the ice (when one "sees stars"), were not of sufficient practical interest to be taken account of, at a time when mankind was too busy in living to waste time in useless speculations. But there came a time when it was necessary to *préciser* the meaning of the word more fully; it was found that there was something which was invisible as *subjective* light, but which was exactly like *objective* light, except that it passed beyond a given limit in the swiftness of its motion. Objectively, green light is a more rapid wave-motion in the ether than red, and blue than green, and violet than blue; here was something that differed from a color only as one color differeth from another; should it be called light or not? By a weak evasion of the difficulty, this thing has been called nothing but "the ultra-violet rays." Rays of what—rays of light, or "rays" of wave-motion in ether? *Rays*, by itself, means nothing except that which moves in straight lines.

The new rays that have been discovered by Prof. Röntgen are not cathode rays, as they have been said by the newspapers to be, but they are what the cathode rays are turned into as they pass through glass; their discoverer has had the happy idea to call them X-rays until more is known about them. The most probable hypothesis in regard to their nature is, according to Prof. Münsterberg, that they are longitudinal vibrations in the same medium (the ether) whose transverse vibrations give us light rays and infra-red rays and ultra-violet rays. The existence of such rays has for a long time been suspected by physicists; researches are in progress which, it is hoped, will prove that they have now been found.

I do not, of course, propose to discuss the question what this new thing shall be called; Röntgen vibrations might perhaps not be a bad name for it. But I do submit that it is now time to give a little consideration to the sense in which the word *light* ought to be used, and not to let the question be settled in the hit-or-miss fashion that too often prevails among scientists. To use the one word light for (1) ether vibrations that affect the eye, (2) ether vibrations that do not affect the eye, (3) the affections of consciousness that are due to ether vibrations, and (4) also those that are due to a pull on the optic nerve, and to an electric current passing through it, is to permit a degree of hopeless confusion which those who love exact thinking ought to blush for. The Germans have already adopted the compound word *light sensation* for the affections of consciousness, and nothing better could be desired. The "spirit of the English language" is a very backward spirit, and it is very averse to the formation of compound words; but this is an aversion which must be overcome if speech is to keep pace with knowledge. Who knows but that the English might have been as great metaphysicians as the Germans if they had given themselves the same liberty in the formation of long words?

The best use to make of the word *light* is to reserve it for those ether vibrations which cause the sensation of light; any other use of it which should avoid its present vagueness would interfere with the wealth of poetical associations which attach to the word. We should then say, when we receive a blow on the head, not "I see a light," but "I feel a sensation of light," or, better, "I feel a light-sensation." And, on the other hand, the physicist would cease to say that ether waves are not light while they are on their way to us from the sun.

The term "ultra-violet rays" should be given up, and the term *ultra-violet ether vibrations* should be exclusively used in its stead. The term *rays* is, moreover, being discarded by the new scientist on other grounds, and the thing meant by it is being discussed in terms of wave and wave front; it is therefore useless to attempt to preserve it for the ultra-violet rays. There is no help for it but to use

the term *ether vibrations* (as the general name for heat, light, ultra violet rays, and Röntgen rays) in common parlance as freely as it is already used in scientific language. The newspaper men would certainly find no difficulty in adopting this newly arisen requirement for accuracy, and then the whole thing would be settled for us, as far as popular language goes.

The reform that I propose is therefore, in brief, this :

(1.) For the psychologist, the use of the term *light-sensation*, instead of light, when the sensation is referred to.

(2.) For the physicist, the use of the term *ultra-violet vibrations*, instead of ultra-violet rays.

(3.) For the common man, the use of the term *ether vibrations*, instead of light, for light plus invisible light, when it is meant to speak indefinitely of the various phenomena which fall under this head. CHR. LADD FRANKLIN.

BALTIMORE, February 2, 1896.

AN UNPUBLISHED LETTER OF THOMAS PAINE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR : The subjoined letter was purchased many years ago, at an auction sale in London, by Mr. Joseph Cowen of Newcastle-on-Tyne, formerly member of Parliament, to whom I am indebted for its use. There is no indication in the original of the person to whom it was written, but it was certainly to Colonel John Fellows, the bookseller in New York who had there copyrighted Part I. of 'The Age of Reason.' It will be remembered that Paine, on his way to prison in Paris, managed to see Joel Barlow, and intrusted to that ex-parson his MS., which was forwarded to his (Barlow's) own publisher in New York.

PARIS, January 20, 1797.

SIR, Your friend Mr. Caritat being on the point of his departure for America I make it the opportunity of writing to you. I received two letters from you with some pamphlets a considerable time ago in which you inform me of your entering a copy right of the first Part of the Age of Reason; when I return to America we will settle for that matter.

As Doctor Franklin has been my intimate friend for thirty years past you will naturally see the reason of my continuing the connection with his grandson. I printed here (Paris) about fifteen thousand of the second Part of the Age of Reason, which I sent to Mr. F[ranklin] Bache. I gave him notice of it in September, 1795, and the copy right by my own direction was entered by him. The books did not arrive till April following, but he had advertised it long before.

I sent to him in August last a manuscript letter of about seventy pages, from me to Mr. Washington to be printed in a pamphlet Mr. Barnes of Philadelphia carried the letter from me over to London to be forwarded to America It went by the ship *Hope*, Capt. Harley, who since his return from America told me that he put it in the post office at New York for Bache. I have yet no certain account of its publication. I mention this that the letter may be enquired after, in case it has not been published or has not arrived to Mr. Bache. Barnes wrote to me from London 29 August informing me that he was offered three hundred pounds sterling for the manuscript. The offer was refused because it was my intention it should not appear till it appeared in America, as that, and not England, was the place for its operation.

You ask me by your letter to Mr. Caritat for a list of my several works, in order to publish a collection of them. This is an undertaking I have always reserved for myself. It not only belongs to me of right, but nobody but myself can do it; and as every author is accountable (at least in reputation) for his works, he only is the person to do it. If he neglects it in his life time the case is altered. It is my intention to return to America in the course of the present year; I shall then [do] it by subscription, with historical notes. As this work will employ many persons in different parts of the Union, I will confer with you upon the subject, and such part of it as will suit you to undertake will be at your choice. I have sustained so much loss by disinterestedness and inattention to money matters, and by accidents, that I am obliged to look closer to my affairs than I have done. The printer (an Englishman) whom I employed here to print the second part of the Age of Reason, made a copy of the work while he was printing it, which he sent to London and sold. It was by this means that an edition of it came out in London.

We are waiting here for news from America of the state of the federal elections. You will have heard long before this reaches you that the French government has refused to receive Mr. Pinckney as minister. While Mr. Monroe was minister he had the opportunity of softening matters with this government, for he was in good credit with them, though they were in high indignation at the infidelity of the Washington Administration. It is time that Mr. Washington retire, for he has played off so much prudent hypocrisy between France and England that neither government believes anything he says. Your friend, etc.

THOMAS PAINE.

I cannot forbear a few further words on this remarkable letter—not about the animadversion on Washington, for in my third volume of Paine's Writings there are documents enough to make that case clear—but concerning the strange outcome of Paine's purpose of publishing all his works. When he returned to America, near the close of 1802, the Federalists, furious at the election of Jefferson, and the parsons, furious over the 'Age of Reason,' united on Paine for a scapegoat. Amid the storm that broke over him he could not publish his old works, and still less the two he had in manuscript. These were Part III. of the 'Age of Reason' aud 'An Answer to the Bishop of Llandaff.' These he bequeathed to Madame Bonneville, who in Paris, with her husband, had nursed him in illness, and shared with him their home for nearly eight years. She was then an enthusiastic disciple of Paine's ideas, but no sooner was Paine dead than she began to revert to her original type—Catholicism. Strange irony of fate! The two large works to which Paine had devoted the best part of nine years fell into the hands of a Roman Catholic devotee, who did penance for her previous heresies by mutilating and erasing Paine's ideas, so that his two important volumes were well-nigh ruined. Madame's pious destructiveness was, however, in some degree limited by her need of money. It is due to the enterprise and means of John Fellows, to whom the above letter was written, that a number of important fragments were rescued, and in a good many cases he was able to recover striking passages despite the erasures of the zealous French woman.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

LONDON, January 20, 1896.

PROTECTION—BY ANNEXATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR : Senator Cullom's speech at Springfield yesterday throws a new light upon the Venezuelan question. Speaking of the British possessions of Canada, British Guiana, British Honduras, etc., and of the American possessions of Spain, Denmark, France, and Holland, he says :

"But all these possessions lie within a radius of a few hundred miles from southern Florida and are naturally, by position and commercial relationship, of greater importance to the United States than to any other nation."

In the next paragraph he recommends the annexation of Hawaii to the United States. Further on he says, referring to Cuba:

"Why, fellow-citizens, when the day comes that the possession of Cuba by any other Power bears adversely upon the interests and welfare of the United States, we shall cut the Gordian knot and take such action as will make Cuba an annex to this country. It naturally, politically, and commercially belongs to the United States."

And again, near the close of his speech, he says, after recommending many more annexations:

"We have never made a bad bargain in any of our acquisitions of territory. We acquired Florida, and what a gem she is and how great she bids fair to become. We bought Louisiana and the Northwest territory, the greatest and brightest jewel in our possession. State after State have been carved out of her territory. Then California, portions of the very garden of Eden, Texas, an empire of itself, New Mexico, Oregon, and Alaska have come to us. What would we have been without these principalities and empires which we now possess ? It is to be the duty of the great Republican party to look into the future and shape our policy with wisdom and care, and to build up to its proper height and breadth the splendid nation committed to our care."

This speech is quite touching in its innocent and simple dishonesty. Now we understand the noble and self-sacrificing anxiety of Jingoes to protect "our brother republics"; their canting platitudes about the oppression of a weak by a stronger Power; their indignation against the covetousness and "grabbing" of England. Their real meaning seems to be : "Hands off Venezuela ! Some day we hope to annex it ourselves. We are not quite ready yet, because we are first going to appropriate a number of other places, including Canada and your possessions in the West Indies. In the meantime, in the language of Bret Harte's Bill Nye,

"'This poor Injun we protects from such sharps as you be.'"

When Uncle Sam is well out of this Venezuelan business, we trust he may not be found with "a dollar greenback in his hand" worth twenty cents in coin.—Yours truly, X. Z.

CHICAGO, January 29, 1896.

"THE SQUIRREL GIRL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A friend in New York sends me a cutting from a local paper stating that a girl who has captivated the squirrel population of Central Park has had to ask for a home in the workhouse of Yorkville, having no home and apparently no subsistence. That such a phenomenon should excite rather amusement than interest in the busy population of New York is not surprising, but it is one which, to all lovers of nature and psychology, ought to be very interesting. If I were Mayor of New York I would give her a salaried position as Keeper of the Squirrels, with lodgings in the midst of her pets, and I think that, merely for the poetry of the thing, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals should take note of it. As a lover of that most beautiful and intelligent of our lesser quadrupeds, and in default of the proper official action, I should like to open a subscription for the benefit of Mary Lyons to enable her to devote herself to the squirrels; and I beg you to put my name down for $5 a year as long as I live. I would capitalize it if I had the means.

Yours truly, W. J. STILLMAN.

ROME, January 21, 1896.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. have in press 'Joan of Arc,' by Francis C. Lowell; 'Visions and Service,' college chapel discourses by Bishop Lawrence of Massachusetts; 'The Spirit in Literature and Life,' college lectures by the Rev. Dr. Coyle; 'The Parson's Proxy,' by Mrs. Kate W. Hamilton; and 'Bayard Taylor,' by A. H. Smyth, in the American Men of Letters series.

Macmillan & Co. have in press a 'History of the Postal Packet Service during the French War, from 1793 to 1815,' by Arthur H. Norman, and Mr. William Astor Chanler's account of his exploring expedition to northeastern Africa with Lieut. von Höhnel, illustrated by photographs.

'Biblical Character Sketches,' by Dean Farrar and other preachers, and 'Curiosities of Olden Times,' by S. Baring-Gould, will be published directly by Thomas Whittaker.

'The Song of Songs which is Solomon's, being a Reprint and a Study,' by Elbert Hubbard, will issue in a limited edition from the Roycroft Printing Shop, East Aurora, N. Y.

S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, announce 'The Non-Heredity of Inebriety,' by Leslie E. Keeley, M.D.

Mme. Arsène Darmesteter, it is announced, is pushing to completion the edition of the entire works of her lamented husband. The last of these was an essay towards the reconstruction of the Champenoise dialect of the eleventh century. Darmesteter had gathered for this purpose nearly four thousand *fiches*, most of which will be published. Mme. Darmesteter, who is an excellent painter, has just finished a portrait of her husband which is to go to the Sorbonne as a memorial of the life of one of its most esteemed professors.

The Hungarian Academy of Science has decided to publish a dictionary of the national language as it is now used in Hungary. It is estimated that twenty years will be devoted to the preliminary work alone.

A splendid facsimile of William Bradford's Journal, made from the original in the Bishop of London's library at Fulham Palace, has just been published. Its cost precludes the hope of a consummation one might wish, that it should find a place in every public library in this country.

'The Most Delectable History of Reynard the Fox,' edited with notes by the well-known folk-lorist, Joseph Jacobs, is the latest addition to Macmillan's dainty Cranford Series. The text is based upon Caxton's, adapted for the use of children by the late Sir Henry Cole, "Felix Summerly," and modified but slightly by the present editor. An introduction, addressed to adult readers, briefly summarizes the latest results of philological research concerning the origin and history of this old "Weltbibel," whose rascally hero, in spite of his meanness and duplicity, yet commands our respect because, to adopt Froude's explanation, "he can do what he sets to work to do." Numerous illustrations by Frank Calderon, in the manner of F. S. Church, add to the charm of this pretty volume.

Charles Scribner's Sons have reissued George Augustus Sala's 'Life and Adventures,' written by himself. There is nothing on the title-page to show that this is a second edition, but the volumes are somewhat smaller, and clothed in brown instead of red. The price is also reduced, but the value is unchanged by the fact that Mr. Sala has joined the majority since the previous issue.

Mr. Frank Preston Stearns thinks his 'Sketches from Concord and Appledore' (Putnams) will not have been written in vain if, among other achievements, they "succeed in restoring to Wendell Phillips a portion of the fame he lost by the wayward course of his declining years." Save us from our friends! On p. 205 Mr. Stearns says of Mr. Phillips that "he never appeared as an advocate of woman suffrage before the public, but he is said to have approved of it"! Had Mr. Stearns turned to the first series of Mr. Phillips's collected speeches he would have found one delivered in October, 1851, placed as nearly in the forefront of the volume as the Lovejoy speech would permit, based on a resolution of his own writing, in these words: "That while we do not undervalue other methods, the right of suffrage for women is, in our opinion, the corner stone of this [woman's-rights] enterprise." On the same page Mr. Stearns states that Mr. Phillips would not vote because of his scruples against upholding a government maintaining an army and navy. But notoriously Mr. Phillips never adopted Mr. Garrison's non-resistance views, and in the second series of his speeches occurs that Phi Beta Kappa oration which Mr. Stearns describes without, apparently, having read it, and in which dynamite and the dagger are pronounced necessary and *proper* substitutes for peaceful agitation in an absolute monarchy like Russia.

Some picturesque legal antiquities are lightly sketched by Mr. Francis Watt in a rather dainty little volume entitled 'The Law's Lumber Room' (London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). To use his own metaphor, the author brushes the dust from a number of antiquated customs and legal fictions, and shows, not without a pleasant humor, how they arose, what uses they served, and how they came to be discarded. Such topics as Benefit of Clergy, Deodands, Sanctuary, Trial by Ordeal, Wager of Battle, etc., are treated with sufficient detail for all ordinary requirements, and at the same time in a way to make their true significance appreciated.

Of 'Congressional Currency,' by Armistead C. Gordon, which appears in the Putnams' "Questions of the Day" Series, we need say little more than is said in the preface. "An outline of the genesis, growth, and condition of the existing currency system of the United States, a short account of each of the various kinds of 'money' or circulating medium now in use, and a consecutive statement of the most conspicuous or important acts of legislation in connection therewith, concluding with a sketch of the judicial interpretation which such legislation has received at the hands of the Supreme Court," is certainly a timely publication. It is also a well-written one, and the author deserves credit for setting forth clearly a confusion which is steadily growing worse confounded.

The general interest manifested in the improvement of our highways will be increased and intelligently guided by Gen. Alfred P. Rockwell's treatise on 'Roads and Pavements in France' (John Wiley & Sons). It gives in a condensed form, but clearly, all the necessary information as to the best materials for roads, their cost, maintenance, and repair, together with numerous diagrams, thus making a valuable vade-mecum for persons having the care of highways and streets. It is interesting to note that wood-pavement is now the favorite in Paris, because "it is smooth, noiseless, agreeable to drive over, easily kept clean, and is rapidly relaid when worn out."

Dr. Daniel Denison Slade of Harvard University adds to his many accomplishments a knowledge of horticulture. His interest in this has led him to review the early history of the art in New England, and to embody the results of his wide reading in a dainty, old-fashioned book of about two hundred pages ('Evolution of Horticulture in New England,' Knickerbocker Press, 1895). The paper, binding, and general impression carry the volume back about as many years as it has pages, and this effect is not lessened when one finds that the work is copyrighted at Stationers' Hall, London. The citations from the early records are well chosen and accurate, and render the book convenient for reference. The allusions to very recent horticultural successes in New England are meagre and unsatisfactory and the omissions many, but the latter may be overlooked, since the author speaks in a kindly manner of those whom he does mention. He deals with the past rather than with the present, with evolution and not with the evolved. We thank him for giving us a pleasant excursion into the days when the streets of Boston were leisurely assuming their unaccountable and unexpected directions under the feet of kine excluded from the fair flower-beds on Beacon Hill, and forced to wander to the Neck, or to the salt marshes on the Charles where now is to be seen that masterpiece of municipal horticulture and treasury of sculpture known as the Public Garden.

It is difficult to understand why Dr. M. C. Cooke's 'Introduction to the Study of Fungi' (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan) was ever written. The author says that "the pages are the result of an effort to supply an acknowledged want," but this statement is ambiguous. It may mean that the author feels the want, or that certain other people do. It sometimes happens that an author feels the necessity of preparing a book for people already well supplied with the same class of treatises, while the people themselves do not feel the same want at all. The present work is not sufficiently comprehensive and fresh to meet the demands of specialists, while it is, on the other hand, not particularly attractive to beginners or general readers. The defect lies in the plan and not in the treatment. Mr. Cooke has done too much excellent systematic work in mycology, and has been an editor too long, not to express himself clearly and positively in print. If he had divided the volume into two parts, relegating all the popular descriptions to an elementary work, leaving the rest to be brought rather nearer the present time and illustrated with drawings of a better character, the issue would probably have been more satisfactory to two classes of readers who may have some want as yet unsupplied. The whole work, as it stands, would be easier for reading and for reference if the chapters had been broken up more freely, and the discrete paragraphs provided with headings to catch the eye.

The 'Book of the Secrets of Enoch' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), edited by W. R. Morfill and R. H. Charles, is an interesting addition to pre-Christian pseudepigraphic literature. Though abundantly cited by early Christian writers, it exists at present, so far as is known, only in Slavic versions. It appears to have been written by an orthodox but free-minded Jew, who not only sets down current Jewish opinions about religion, but adopts ideas from the Persian, Egyptian, and Greek thought of his time (between B. C. 50

and A. D. 50). He imitates the form of the Book of Enoch, but has noteworthy opinions of his own on the soul, the origin of death, the millennium, angels, Seraphim (*Chalkidri*), cosmography, and ethics. Mr. Morfill has given an English translation based on a text carefully constructed from the various Slavic versions, and Mr. Charles (the well-known translator of Enoch) has added critical and historical notes and a general introduction. The names of these two gentlemen are a guarantee of the good performance of the editorial work.

The quarterly statement for January of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains the report of Dr. F. J. Bliss on the excavations at Jerusalem, and a paper on the site of the Temple, both of which are illustrated by diagrams. An account of a journey east of the Jordan in the spring of 1895 by Mr. Gray Hill is interesting mainly from its picture of the disturbed condition of the country, which made it impossible for him to visit Petra, as he had intended. Every tribe seemed to be at war with its neighbors, and the Turks were apparently passive, if not powerless, spectators. In the wilderness to the southwest of the Dead Sea he passed through some hills of dazzingly white chalk by an "extraordinary winding passage of several miles in length, and in most parts of only the width of a very narrow lane. It is sometimes only 6 to 10 feet across, and the sides stand up on either hand as precipitous as the walls of a castle, varying from 50 to 150 feet in height." There is also an account by Col. Conder of inscriptions in the Syrian language discovered a few years ago by German explorers in the extreme north of Syria, and now published. Transliterations of two, dated about 800 B.C. and 730 B.C., and throwing some light on the Book of Kings, are given.

The last quarterly instalment of vol. iv. of the *Boletin de la Sociedad Geográfica de Lima* (Peru) is of more than usual interest. In addition to the contributions of members, which have for the most part been of a high order, the Society has now undertaken to make its official publication the medium for presenting to the world certain works of value which otherwise would remain entirely unknown, or hidden from all save a few select scholars. The current issue contains the first of a series of notes of travel by the savant Antonio Raimondi. The great work on Peru by this distinguished scientist having been cut short by want of funds, the Society has deemed it expedient to cull out from his literary remains the more important material intended for the future volumes of his *opus magnum*, and publish them at once. This enterprise is particularly commendable, not only as giving to the world desirable information, but as revealing the importance of the labors of Raimondi. In the same issue appears a translation into Spanish of the introduction to Dr. E. W. Middendorf's masterly work entitled 'Das Runa Simi, oder die Keshua-Sprache,' a treatise which had the merit of being written after the studies of a lifetime in Peru, during which its author enjoyed the advantage of friendly and familiar intercourse with the people of all classes in every part of the republic. Other notable articles in this number of the *Boletin* are "Plants and Other Products of China Introduced into Peru," by Manuel García y Merino, and a "Contribution to the Study of the Flora of the Cordillera of Peru, with Observations on the History and Origin of the Flora of the Andes," by John Ball.

Personal reminiscences of General Grant during the war, by Gen. Horace Porter, are to appear in the *Century Magazine* and will be profusely illustrated.

This month sees the starting of a new illustrated magazine in this city, the *Parisian*, published by M. L. Dexter at Carnegie Hall. It will be devoted chiefly to the reproduction in English of contemporaneous articles from the leading French and other Continental periodicals, with a regular review of current European literature. The issue will be quarterly till August, when it will be monthly. The February number has a wholesome and serious aspect, and possesses an agreeable variety.

A new series of the *National Geographic Magazine* begins with the January number. It is henceforth to be an illustrated monthly, with a special concern for the geography, physical, political, and commercial, of this continent. The principal article is a comprehensive account of European Russia by Mr. G. G. Hubbard, interwoven with some personal experiences of an extensive journey in that country. This is followed by an interesting sketch of the Arctic cruise last summer of the United States revenue cutter *Bear*. Her principal employment, besides the prevention of smuggling by the whaling fleet, seems to be carrying supplies to the different stations in Northern Alaska, succoring the shipwrecked, and transporting domestic reindeer from Siberia to Alaska. The remaining contents consist of Gen. Greely's address on Arctic exploration before the London Geographical Congress, notes and notices of new books and maps, executive reports, and the proceedings of the National Geographic Society of Washington.

The evidence that the spirit of enterprise has received a new impulse from the recent war is indicated not only in the commerce of Japan but in her journalism. During the war two periodicals, edited in English, were started by Japanese. The first is the daily *Yorodzu Choho*, which has a few columns of English matter three times a week. The editor, Mr. Muramatsu, does not, however, possess a sufficiently thorough acquaintance with the English language to make his articles readable to English-speaking people. The second is the *Taiyo* (*Sun*), a monthly magazine edited by Prof. N. Kanda. It is of a much higher grade than the *Yorodzu Choho*, and, while the style is not free from occasional errors, it has a character of strength and maturity that few writers can hope to attain to whom English is not the mother tongue. A new venture is the *Far East*, an English edition of the *Kokumin-no-Tomo*. The latter periodical was started in 1887 as a monthly, was soon after made a fortnightly, then a tri-monthly, and recently a weekly. Its general plan is confessedly on the lines of the *Nation*. The English edition is to be a monthly publication for the present. Its editor is Mr. E. Fukai, a graduate of the Doshisha. Though Japanese will write the bulk of the matter for the *Far East*, many Americans and English have promised to contribute, especially those living in Tokyo, where the periodical is to be published.

The Siberian University at Tomsk, which was opened in 1886, is to be enlarged by the establishment of faculties of law, of mathematics and natural science, and of history and philology. At present the only faculty is that of medicine.

The Trustees of the British Museum have begun the publication of autographs in the department of manuscripts. They are reproduced by photo-lithography, in the full size of the originals, in plates measuring about 10½x 17 inches, and can be had for threepence per plate. The first series, comprising thirty plates, has just been issued in a book, price six shillings. The first is a letter written September 16, 1513, by Katharine of Arragon to her husband, Henry VIII. (then in France), with the news of the battle of Flodden. Other royal personages represented are Edward VI., Mary Queen of Scots, Queens Elizabeth and Victoria, Charles I. and II., William III., and George III. From the Duke of Marlborough there is a French letter to George Louis, Elector of Hanover, afterwards George I. of England, giving an account of the victory at Ramillies. George Washington, in a letter to the Earl of Buchan, April 22, 1793, writes: "I believe it is the sincere wish of United America to have nothing to do with the political intrigues or the squabbles of European nations; but, on the contrary, to exchange commodities and live in peace with all the inhabitants of the earth." There are nine literary autographs, from Dryden, Addison, Coleridge, Wordsworth, Keats, Dickens, Thackeray, Carlyle, Browning. Thackeray's is a most beautiful specimen of penmanship. Browning says: "I never designedly tried to puzzle people, as some of my critics have supposed. On the other hand, I never pretended to offer a substitute for a cigar, or a game at dominoes, to an idle man."

Mme. Calmann Lévy's purchasing of Renan's books and presenting them to the French National Library is probably a delicate way of easing her conscience on account of the hard bargain which her late husband must have driven with the simple-minded (in money matters) Ernest Renan. For that the shrewd publisher must have got the best of the arrangement by which Renan handed over to the Lévys all his writings, past, present, and future, there can be little doubt; otherwise the French Government would not have felt called upon to grant the late Mme. Renan a pension, and M. Airy Renan would be able to devote all his time to his brush and not have to give up a good part of it to art criticism, which brings in readier cash. Considering the plain way the Renans lived, the intellectual activity of the head of the family, the wide sale of his books, and the regular stipends—small though some of them were, when viewed from the American standpoint—which he received from the University, the Academy, etc., Ernest Renan should have left behind him a snug little fortune for a Frenchman and a scholar, whereas he may be said to have bequeathed to his son and daughter next to nothing, if we except his library, worth probably three or four thousand dollars, and his great reputation, which has opened to them many doors that would otherwise have been shut against them.

The unfavorable action last November of the Royal College of Surgeons, London, on a petition from the London School of Medicine for Women, praying for the admission of medical women to its examinations, has just been reversed at a meeting of the fellows, by emphatic endorsement (47 to 10) of the following resolution, "that, in the opinion of the fellows of this college, women should be admitted to the diplomas of the college." As the Council, the governing body of the college, is elected by votes of fellows only, their declaration in favor of granting diplomas to properly qualified women practically settles yet another case of educational discrimination against women students. It remains to be seen whether the Royal College of Physicians will also soon be stricken with a change of heart.

Since Dr. Wheeler wrote to us regarding the proposed excavations at Corinth by the Ameri-

can School, we learn that formal permission to conduct them has been granted by the Greek Government, and work will be begun next month.

As is well known to all the archæologically minded, the architrave of the east front of the Parthenon used to bear an inscription in bronze letters fastened on by nails, of which now only the nails or stubs remain. At the suggestion of Dr. Dörpfeld, an attempt is being made by two students of archæology at Athens, one from the German Institute, the other from the American School, to decipher this inscription. One is using photography to obtain an exact representation of the nail holes, the other is making squeezes, being hauled up for the purpose some forty feet from the ground. The inscription may date from the time of Alexander the Great, and the archæological world will await with much interest the results of this attempt to decipher it.

—Even the most cursory of magazine readers will be disposed to linger over some illustrations, in the current *Scribner's*, of Miss S. T. Prideaux's bindings for books, and will be amply repaid for doing so, whether the fascinating designs that have been so admirably reproduced in black and white come as a fresh disclosure of Miss Prideaux's graceful art, or merely serve to recall examples that have been seen in frequent London exhibitions. The text that accompanies the dozen pictures of ornamented morocco bindings, though worth perusal, shows that Miss Prideaux is by no means so much at home in expounding as in applying the principles of artistic decoration. In the selection of the remaining articles for the month, account seems to have been taken rather more than ordinarily of the prevalent restless fancy for going to and fro in the earth—if not bodily, at least by means of copious views and descriptions of miscellaneous localities. A faithful but not graphic account of the fourteenth ascent of Mt. Ararat, by an Englishman, H. F. B. Lynch, and an article on life in the Colorado health plateau, by Lewis M. Iddings, respond to the demand made for them by the taste of the moment. Frank Russell's "Hunting Musk-Ox with the Dog Ribs," a compact and swiftly developed history of an expedition into the remote Barren Ground lying to the northeast of Great Slave Lake, has qualities which are likely to appeal to a perennial fondness for narratives of adventure well seasoned with danger. A successful appeal to the same permanent instinct is made by the story of "A Long Chase," of which the *donnée* is an escape from a pack of wolves, on a fifteen-mile ride across a frozen forest in Manitoba—believed by the writer, Owen Hall, to be in the "northwest" of Canada. The facts that the hero's mount is a bicycle, and that his deadly shots at his pursuers are supposed to be made as it spins over the snow, give novelty to the story, and secure a respectable place in current fiction for "the wheel."

—In *Harper's* the hunting of the musk-ox is the partial theme of the third instalment of Caspar W. Whitney's "On Snow-Shoes to the Barren Grounds." Although this is one of the most readable papers in a number which has no special features of distinction, it suffers by comparison with the corresponding paper in *Scribner's*, through lack of directness and singleness of aim. "A Mother in Israel" is interesting as a posthumous story of Prof. Boyesen's, and as a study of the two conflicting racial elements of cupidity and intellectuality which the Jews transplant to this country from the Ghettos of Old World cities. Henry Loomis Nelson's "Passing of the Fur-Seal," though not a new, is a stirring story, whether told from the standpoint of humanity or of commercial interest. Mr. Nelson contends that for nearly eight years the Dominion of Canada, in the interest of a few pelagic sealers, "has been able to oppose successfully the interests of the United States, Great Britain, and Russia in the seal herds."

—In the *Century* the article on Puvis de Chavannes, by Kenyon Cox, is not only charming to the eye on account of its illustrations, and timely on account of Puvis de Chavannes's connection with the Boston Public Library, but, if thoughtfully read, is an aid to general culture as well. Mr. Cox has not contented himself with cataloguing and eulogizing the several series of great decorations painted by his subject, but has furnished, in comments on their quality, tests for the valuation of mural painting that may be applied to the work of Abbey or Sargent equally as well as to that of the famous decorator of the Sorbonne, the Panthéon, and the Hôtel de Ville. The fundamental principle of Mr. Cox's teaching, that "the highest aim of art is to make some useful thing beautiful," is one on which the changes cannot, here and now, be rung too often. Readers who find a peculiar satisfaction in penetrating the privacy of persons high in place will be gratified by views of the sleeping and other apartments of the Pope. Marion Crawford writes of the Vatican household in the pleasantly rounded periods that offend no ear and carry little thought, leaving the intrinsically interesting features of the article the two portraits of Leo XIII., in youth and old age, each of which presents a face that no student of physiognomy could pass without admiration. "Perdita's Candle," by Martha Young, is a decidedly pretty little dramatic sketch, turning upon the feast of Candlemas; and Henry M. Stanley's résumé of the development of equatorial Africa is a useful addition to the encyclopædic information of the general reader.

—In the *Atlantic*, Henry James has contented himself with being ambiguous merely in the title of his story, "Glasses," and has, happily for the reader, been unusually clear and open in his dealings with him. Not only has he vouchsafed to carry his three characters to a dénouement of the drama in which he shows them engaged, but he has made them known with an intimacy that enriches the reader's acquaintance with types of human nature. To be dealt with in this way by Mr. James is to receive as rare a pleasure as the novel-reader can expect; and when, in addition, Mr. James's style becomes almost as perspicuous as it is distinguished and subtle, an equally rare literary pleasure is added to that of the novel-reader. The result of these fortunate conditions in the story of "Glasses" is a piece of fiction that bears no relation to magazine standards, and that will not easily be forgotten by any one who comes under the spell of its masterliness. A second pleasure, of a quality which the average literary capacity of contributors does not permit a magazine to furnish each and every month, is to be found in Leon H. Vincent's clever essay, "The Bibliotaph." This "portrait not wholly imaginary" shows the second-hand bookshops and odd restaurants of Boston, Philadelphia, and even Chicago, as harboring an habitué whose combination of whimsicality and ripe taste is of just the right stripe for literary portraiture. It was a delicate and difficult task to interpret by description, anecdote, and quoted epigram a figure so eccentric and delightful as that of this scholarly and genial vagabond among books, but fortunately a competent pen has undertaken it. Rose Hawthorne Lathrop's memories of her father, as consul at Liverpool, promise, in their first part, a continued attraction to readers of the *Atlantic*.

—Scheffel's 'Ekkehard' has been republished so frequently that one loses count of the editions somewhere in the middle of the second hundred. Two more have recently appeared in this country, one in the original, the other in English. From Henry Holt & Co. comes a compact, well printed volume in German, edited by Prof. Carruth of the University of Kansas. The first part of the introduction is reprinted from the Chicago *Dial*, and deals with the Historical Novel. Palgrave's denunciation of this form of fiction as "the most harmful of semi-poetic hybrids," and Howells's remarks in a similar vein, are seriously discussed. It is a pity that this should be necessary in the century which began with Scott and whose last decades are marked by the appearance of some of the great masterpieces of historical fiction, the Polish novels of Sienkiewicz. While the philosophers were denying motion, the artists have been walking to and fro. Scheffel, in his own charming preface to 'Ekkehard,' states his belief that "neither history nor poetry will lose anything by forming a close alliance." But it is not the nature of the elements, it is the genius of him who unites them, upon which success depends. What a Scheffel or a Sienkiewicz has joined together, neither documentary history nor dogmatic criticism can put asunder, for such men create living works of art, which continue to exist in defiance of their own defects. Plain men may still venture to enjoy in 'Ekkehard' the vivid and poetic presentation of a picturesque and interesting age, without danger either of blunting their æsthetic perceptions or of confusing their historical facts. An English translation of this novel, revised and furnished with a biographical sketch of the author by Nathan Haskell Dole, has been published by Crowell & Co. The work is in two handy volumes, displaying the beautiful typography of the University Press, and mounted in cheap but attractive form. Both these editions are welcome evidence of the book's unwaning popularity after more than forty years.

—The Goethe Gesellschaft of Weimar marks the end of the first decade of its history by issuing to its members a portfolio of sketches and portraits. They are from the ample treasures of the Goethe National Museum, and, of the twenty-four sheets, nine are by Goethe's own hand. A similar portfolio was published in 1888, consisting of an album of drawings, selected by himself, to exhibit, as he said, "my competence and my incompetence." It should be frankly admitted at the outset that Goethe's drawings possess little artistic value. Having thus rid the mind of cant, one can derive much pleasure from a study of this amateurish work. Emanating from one who stands in the foremost rank of the world's great men, the sketches have an interest for us of the human sort; they serve as marginal notes to the fascinating story of a many-sided life. With reference to the sketch of Schloss Kochberg, Frau von Stein's estate, there is a jotting in Goethe's diary, al-

most pathetic: "Began to hope I had a little talent." Up to the time of his return from Italy, he secretly believed that painting was his true vocation. Besides two little known portraits of Goethe, the portfolio contains several sheets from the Schmeller Album. This was the collection of 150 crayon portraits which Goethe brought together by the flattering device of requiring his friends and eminent visitors to sit to his Weimar protégé, Joseph Schmeller. Here are the fine heads of Von Knebel and Wilhelm von Humboldt, a striking portrait of Bettina von Arnim, and finally the delicately moulded features of the greatest poet of a singularly gifted race, Adam Mickiewicz. There is also a reproduction, from a preliminary sketch, of the Arcadian picture of the Goethe family, painted by Seekatz in 1762, and now in the possession of Herman Grimm, which will remind the Goethe student of the amusing but kindly description of the odd old Darmstadt painter in 'Dichtung und Wahrheit.' Other portfolios are promised, to be, like this, under the editorial care of Dr. Carl Ruland, which will eventually give a fairly comprehensive idea of the rich collections of engravings, and other artistic memorabilia, around which the guests used to gather in the Juno room of the Goethe house three-quarters of a century ago.

—The fourth edition of Dr. George Bruce Halsted's translation of Bolyai's 'Absolute Science of Space' (The Neomon, 2407 Guadalupe Street, Austin, Texas), is enriched with many interesting particulars about the lives of the celebrated author of the Non-Euclidean Geometry, Bolyai János, and of his father, Bolyai Furkas. If we admit that there is any natural and important distinction between men's mental constitutions corresponding to the words genius and talent—if the man of genius is anything more than a man of high talent, *plus* a bold, adventurous spirit—then the father must be ranked high up on the list of men of talent; and not the smallest proof of this was his instant appreciation of that discovery of his son's which superseded his own principal life-work. The son, on the same system of parcelling, must be called a genius, though, being a man of one idea (for he survived his one revelation by thirty-seven years without any other remarkable achievement), he cannot be rated as an exalted genius. He inherited a valuable imaginative element from his mother. Lombroso sets him down as insane; but we find nothing in Dr. Halsted's present account to support that charge, unless it be the circumstance of his fighting thirteen duels the same day with as many cavalry officers, playing on the violin between every two successive duels, and getting cashiered for the performance. Dr. Halsted surmises a psychological connection between the muscular precision of the man, as fencer and violinist, and his mathematical precision. Even in this day of hardy psychological classifications, such a guess startles us. It is stated quite in the Lombroso-Nordau style of assurance. Would the muscular strength exhibited in the thirteen duels be connected with his mathematical strength? There is a winningly enthusiastic letter from Bolyai János to his father, telling him of the great step. He says: "I have discovered such magnificent things that I am myself astonished at them. It would be damage eternal if they were lost. When you see them, my father, you will yourself acknowledge it. At present I cannot say more than that from nothing I have created a wholly new world." Dr. Halsted announces a life of Bolyai from unused Magyar documents. Our countryman as little shrinks from the Magyar tongue as from the Russian, in the pursuit of his valuable researches.

—A true poet passed away when Paul Verlaine died on January 8. He found life so hard and so unkindly that those who might wish to say many things of him may feel a certain sense of restraint now, as if any words would only seem to stretch him out longer on the rack of the tough world that he has quitted. In France he is truly mourned. Nothing is more noticeable than the note of sincere grief that is heard in all that is said of him. The least sympathetic say: "He was an *enfant terrible*, but still always an *enfant*." Coppée, his earliest friend—for whom he called, as he was dying, "François! François!"—took up the same strain beside his grave: "He was a child, a child always, a child and a poet." He had no concealments. Shelley, even, shows us less of himself. Every emotion of his storm-swept soul was revealed in his verse, and in it, too, were reflected his brief hours of serenity and his higher moods of religious devotion. His influence was great. Every young poet in France looked to him as to a master and leader in his art. To him, more than to any other, the present and increasing freedom of French verse is due. He struck the hardest blow at classicism. He struck with all his might, too, at the artificiality and rhetoric which have been besetting sins of the French muse. Preaching in verse he flouted, and oratory, and even eloquence—that good thing which in poetry is the enemy of the best. "Take eloquence and wring its neck!" he said. Of his own achievement in poetry it is perhaps too early to speak. We cannot yet tell how great the next age will count him, but that he will not wholly die appears to be certain. His friends parted from him in the cemetery of Batignolles, and left him in possession of the blessing that he needed most, *requiem æternam*.

ORIGIN OF THE FRANCO GERMAN WAR.—I.

Die Begründung des Deutschen Reichs durch Wilhelm I. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Siebenter Band. Munich: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann.

In the concluding volume of his 'Founding of the German Empire,' the great German historian who passed away in the summer of 1895 presented his view of the genesis of the Franco-German war. Soon after the appearance of this volume, an anonymous book was published entitled 'Aus dem Leben König Karls von Rumänien,' obviously consisting of extracts from the diary of Charles—at the time Prince, since 1881 King of Rumania—and containing letters from his father, Prince Antony. This book threw much new light on the candidacy of Charles's elder brother Leopold for the Spanish throne. It was largely on the strength of the information furnished by this book that Sybel's narrative of the events of 1869 and 1870 was promptly attacked, not in France only, but in Germany. Sybel responded to his critics in a pamphlet published in the early part of last summer, maintaining and defending the positions taken in his book. Simultaneously with this last publication of Sybel's, or but little later, there appeared the 'Souvenirs militaires' of Gen. Lebrun, with interesting and important revelations regarding the negotiations between France and Austria in 1870. In October, 1895, after Sybel's death, Delbrück, the editor of the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, published in his magazine an elaborate criticism of Sybel's theory of the origin of the war—a criticism based mainly on the two books we have just mentioned. Delbrück also sets forth his own theory. Briefly stated, Sybel's explanation is that the war was due to the hostile temper of the French people, stirred by the politicians to an unreasoning and unreasonable jealousy of Prussia, and to the stubborn folly of the Duc de Gramont, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who, supported (and himself urged on) by the popular passions he had awakened, dragged his colleagues and Napoleon into a needless war, in which, as Napoleon knew, France would have no foreign support. He maintains that the Emperor at no time wished for war; that it was Gramont's treatment of the Spanish candidacy that forced the war. Delbrück holds that it was really Napoleon's war; that the Spanish candidacy was a mere pretext—although a better pretext than Sybel is willing to admit; that Napoleon had good reason to believe that he would have the support of Austria and Italy if he needed it; and that he would have had it but for the unexpected rapidity with which the North German forces were thrown upon the Alsatian frontier.

The first half of Sybel's book is largely devoted to showing that there was nothing in the internal conditions of the two countries to necessitate war, and that France could not count upon either Austria or Italy as an ally against Prussia. The preceding volume brought the sketch of German affairs down to the year 1868. In the first and fourth chapters of the present volume Sybel describes the political struggles, from 1868 to 1870, in the Customs Parliament of all Germany, in the North-German Parliament, and in the Prussian Diet; and he shows that, in spite of constant friction and temporary setbacks, the Prussian Government secured, in one form or another, the acceptance of its most important projects. Irksome mediæval restrictions upon industry and commerce were swept away by federal legislation; a modern and humane criminal code was adopted; a compromise was reached upon the troublesome question of the military budget; the first steps were taken to develop a German navy; and the federal finances were placed upon a satisfactory basis. On the 26th of May, 1870, King William closed the last session of the first Federal Parliament with a recapitulation of these achievements and with warm words of appreciation and gratitude in behalf of the German people and the allied governments. These facts, the historian urges, dispose of the assertion made by a number of French writers that Bismarck kindled war with France "in order to escape from his internal difficulties and embarrassments."

In France the relation between the Crown and the people was much less satisfactory. The fear of anarchy, to which the Empire owed its establishment, had diminished, and the best and most intelligent portion of the French people were growing increasingly impatient of absolute government. The prestige derived from a vigorous and successful foreign policy, "which had suddenly placed France at the head of the European system of states," had been seriously impaired by the establishment of the kingdom of Italy, and was nearly destroyed by the unlucky Mexican expedition and the formation of the North German confederation. Two courses were open to the Emperor, each of which was urged upon him by influential advisers. He might make peace with his people by liberal reforms, by aban-

doning absolute rule and introducing constitutional government, or he might once more stifle internal discontent by successful war. The latter course was more popular with his nearest counsellors, but it was distasteful to Napoleon himself. The sight of the battle fields of Italy had left in his mind an ineffaceable horror of war. The establishment of constitutional government had been urged upon him by the ablest of all his advisers, his half-brother De Morny; and De Morny had discovered the man who was to lead the more moderate Liberals to the support of a constitutional empire—the Republican Deputy Ollivier. It seemed to Napoleon, however, that such a change in the form of government would imperil the future of his dynasty. Between these opposite policies he wavered for several years, adopting neither unreservedly. The historian (who was personally acquainted with the Emperor, but refrains from mentioning the fact) ascribes this hesitation partly to Napoleon's character, partly to the painful disease which developed itself in 1865 and afterwards repeatedly prostrated him. During acute attacks he was incapable of thought or will, without desire save for rest.

For a number of years, from 1866 to 1869, Napoleon cherished the hope of escaping from the dilemma by acquiring foreign territory without war. His attempts in this direction Sybel has described in the preceding volumes. After his failure to secure Luxemburg, he entertained the hope of so extending French influence over Belgium as at least to pave the way for annexation. The half-forgotten story of the purchase of Belgian railways by a French company, in 1869, of the refusal of the Belgian Government to permit the execution of the contract, and of Napoleon's abandonment of the scheme, is well and clearly told in pages 82–95. With the collapse of this venture, certain nebulous plans for a customs union with Belgium also disappeared.

Simultaneously with these schemes, Napoleon took up again the negotiations for a triple alliance between the three great Catholic Powers—France, Austria, and Italy. In 1867 the French and Austrian Emperors had reached some sort of an understanding at Salzburg. In 1868 Italy had offered to ally herself with France, or with Austria and France, if the protection of the Pope were intrusted to the Italian Government. Napoleon found this condition unacceptable. Now (in 1869) Napoleon proposed an offensive and defensive alliance between the three Powers to resist the aggressions of Prussia. In case of war, Austria was to be restored to her old place in Germany. The suggestion, according to Sybel, was not favorably received at Vienna. A German war, it was plainly stated, would not be popular among Austria's German subjects. All that Francis Joseph would agree to was a defensive alliance. Victor Emmanuel at first insisted upon the same condition as in 1868; he would not join even a defensive alliance unless a date were fixed for the withdrawal of the French troops from the Papal territory. Austrian mediation, however, persuaded him to accept an indefinite promise from Napoleon, and the draft treaties of alliance were prepared. At this point it was discovered that the Italian cabinet would not endorse the King's agreement. With the restriction of the alliance to reciprocal defence Napoleon had lost interest in it, and the matter was dropped. The only result of the negotiation was an interchange of personal letters between the three sovereigns, pledging themselves to concerted diplomatic action. In the spring of 1870, Archduke Albert of Austria submitted to Napoleon a plan of campaign, to be followed in case an alliance should be concluded. It provided for a concentration of French, Austrian, and Italian troops in South Germany. Napoleon promised to send an officer to Vienna for further conference. In May he laid the plan before his cabinet; it was discussed and criticised. Gen. Lebrun was sent to Vienna; a new plan was worked out, but not definitively agreed upon. On the 6th of June the General had an interview with Francis Joseph. According to Sybel, the Emperor assured Lebrun that he desired peace, and warned him that France could not count on assistance from Austria.

It is at this point that Delbrück first takes issue with Sybel. He believes that the dual understanding of 1867 and the triple agreement of 1869 went much further than Sybel indicates. He shows, on Lebrun's authority, that the Austrian Emperor's conversation with Lebrun was by no means so pacific as Sybel represents. It appears that the Austrian Emperor did express his desire for peace, but that he did not say that France was in no event to count upon Austrian help. On the contrary, he said that if Napoleon appeared in South Germany not as an enemy, but as a liberator, public opinion in Austria would force the Government into war. It also appears that, in the discussion between Lebrun and the Austrian military men, a definite plan of concentration was arranged. If the French troops could make their way into Bavaria, they were to be joined by the Austrian and Italian forces at Nuremburg. At the outbreak of the war Austria would proclaim neutrality, but only for the purpose of completing the mobilization of her army. Lebrun, however, tells us—and this is a point which Delbrück does not mention—that the Austrian military men insisted that war must be declared not later than April; and that, since it was already too late to accomplish this result in 1870, the outbreak of the war was planned for April, 1871.

To return to Sybel's narrative: Napoleon, unable to restore his prestige by any peaceful extension of the French boundary or of the French sphere of influence, was forced back upon the path of constitutional reform. Ollivier had left the Republicans and formed a Centre party as early as 1865. In 1867 the Emperor had made a bid for the support of this group, but had not offered sufficiently liberal concessions. In the elections of 1869 the Centre and the Left obtained a majority of seats in the Chamber of Deputies. In 1870, after convincing himself that nothing less would be accepted, Napoleon acceded to Ollivier's demand for a responsible ministry, and charged the ex-republican with its formation. The necessary changes in the Constitution were voted by the Senate and submitted in May, 1870, to popular vote. While the ostensible question was the approval of the "liberal reforms," a proclamation of the Emperor called for a vote of confidence in himself and of attachment to the dynasty. The answer was overwhelmingly favorable; seven million votes in the affirmative to one and a half in the negative. The future of the dynasty, the succession of the Prince Imperial, upon which the proclamation had laid especial stress, seemed assured, without war, by the concession to the people of a voice in the government.

On the 30th of June, when the military budget for 1871 was under consideration, the Minister of War announced to the Deputies that he would be content with a levy of 90,000 men instead of the usual 100,000; and Ollivier declared that "the preservation of peace was never better assured." At the same time, as Sybel points out, the German Parliament had adjourned; King William was taking the baths at Ems; Bismarck was undergoing a "Carlsbad cure" at Varzin; Moltke and Roon were both rusticating, the one in Silesia, the other in Brandenburg; and Camphausen, the Finance Minister, was visiting his relatives in the Rhine province. On neither side of the Rhine, therefore, was there any expectation of war. Within less than a week, nevertheless, France was in a flame of patriotic wrath over what was considered an act of aggression on the part of Prussia; deep indignation was slowly gathering in Germany because of what were deemed insolent demands on the part of France; and on the 15th of July, after the immediate cause of the quarrel had disappeared, France declared war to avenge her insulted national honor.

The different explanations given by Sybel and Delbrück have already been noted. In his fifth chapter Sybel lays a strong foundation for the development of his theory. He shows how the French war party, the "Arcadians," had labored since 1866 to excite and intensify the national distrust and dislike of Prussia and of her leading statesman; how they represented Bismarck as the omnipresent disturber and evildoer, restlessly busied, in every part of Europe, in subterranean operations for the destruction of the supremacy of France. He also notes the peril that lay in the appointment of the Duc de Gramont, in May, 1870, to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. He shows how little reputation Gramont enjoyed in France, how little confidence Napoleon had in his ability or his discretion. For several years Gramont had been Ambassador at Vienna; but not only were the negotiations for an alliance in 1869 carried on over his head, but Napoleon expressly cautioned the Austrian negotiators not to let Gramont into the secret. He was appointed, Sybel thinks, at the desire of Ollivier, in spite of the fact that his sympathies were with the Right and not with the Centre. He was appointed because Ollivier desired as Minister of Foreign Affairs a man in sympathy with his policy of protecting the deliberations of the Vatican Council, and a man who would take a firmer attitude against Prussia. In both respects Gramont met his needs. The Duke was ultra-clerical and a known hater of Bismarck. In his strong anti-Prussian feeling and in his personal characteristics—in the combination of an active imagination with defective judgment, of ignorance with arrogance and of impulsiveness with obstinacy—lay, in Sybel's judgment, the greatest peril to the peace of Europe. Napoleon, he suggests, may have accepted the nomination "in the opinion that a man of so little intelligence would be easily guided; forgetting the fact that thick heads have at times proved to be hard and hot heads, and that by virtue of these qualities they have often dragged irresolute wisdom along with them."

Among the perils to peace in June, 1870, Sybel does not include the candidacy of Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern for the throne of Spain, although it was in this month that Leopold finally accepted the offer of the Spanish ministry to propose to the Cortes his election.

TWO NOVELS.

Jude the Obscure. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Brothers.

The Emancipated. By George Gissing Chicago: Way & Williams.

THAT hopefulness which perpetually affirms,

even out of evil good must come, seldom meets with such immediate justification as in the clamor of disapproval raised against Mr. Hardy's novel 'Jude the Obscure.' He appears to have done a thing so repugnant to modern English sentiment and taste that the extent of our supposed revolt against Puritanism may well be doubted—so far, at least, as the word is a symbol for manners that correct and restrain animal instincts, and for a decent reticence of speech. The toleration extended to inferior novelists who have for several years, under various hypocritical pretexts, been engaged in the glorification of sensuality, if not lust, may be ascribed, in view of this outburst of wrath, partly to surprise at their audacity, and partly to a belief that no permanent harm could be done by letting such very poor players strut their little hour upon the stage and prance off into secure oblivion. Mr. Hardy's 'Tess' made some people feel and say that our literature was in danger of corruption. The vehement denial by a serious and extremely competent novelist of some principles upon which rests as successful a social system as poor human nature has so far been able to evolve, was thought worth consideration and rational protest. Still, there was but little frank denunciation. The drama in 'Tess' was easily separable from the argument, and made a direct appeal to passionate emotion well adapted to confuse judgment, and even strong enough to win adherents to the author's unequivocal expression of belief that, in the question of society against Tess, society was flagrantly in the wrong. In 'Jude' the author makes no special plea for the righteousness of conduct which long experience has qualified as depraved—and, as a matter of fact, 'Jude,' judged by the strongest impression made on the mind, is a less immoral book than 'Tess'; but it is slightly coarser, many degrees colder; and therefore the average intelligence, unclouded by emotion, perceives its offensiveness and proclaims dissent.

Excepting pronounced hostility to marriage, whether regarded as a Christian sacrament or a permanently binding legal contract, the author's attitude towards the problems involved in his story is as obscure as Jude. He is very bitter about matrimony. When Jude and Arabella are swearing eternal fidelity before the parson, he remarks: "What was as remarkable as the undertaking itself was the fact that nobody seemed at all surprised at what they swore." When Arabella makes a hideous scene, which there is no reason to suppose she would not have made cheerfully and with great spirit even if unmarried, Mr. Hardy thus interprets Jude's thoughts: "Their lives were ruined; ruined by the fundamental error of their matrimonial union—that of having based a permanent contract on a temporary feeling which had no necessary connection with affinities that alone render a life-long companionship tolerable." Again, when Arabella is parading her second victim at a fair, the author's genial comment is, that "they left the tent together in the antipathetic, recriminatory mood of the average husband and wife of Christendom." Many more sentences might be quoted to show his fierce contempt for marriage, and we would believe that no more degrading condition could be imagined, were it not that he goes on to illustrate the pains and penalties of an illegal union and the madness of divorce. Therefore, he seems to stand as an advocate for celibacy and the extinction of the race. In this position we shall have no further occasion to worry about him; he may be permitted to cherish his convictions unenvied and undisturbed.

Equally enigmatic are his opinions about the effect of modern education and modern opportunity on the masses. He seems to say that people who have ceased to be as dumb, driven cattle in intelligence remain so in instinct, and that, finding their intelligence inadequate to compete with power, wealth, and tradition, they fall back for satisfaction on their instincts, and are not to be pitied but admired for the relapse. He may not mean that at all, and, in a book so cleverly planned to pass for a particular instance, generalization is largely conjectural. His group of characters is singularly well chosen to bear the whole responsibility for its heresies, sufferings, and iniquities. In early youth both Jude and Sue Bridehead are detached by temperament and intelligence from the class in which they were born, and they never come in contact with any other class which might have tempered to advantage their feeling of ability to enlighten and guide the universe. The pity of such isolation is clearly seen in Jude's career, the evil of it in Sue's. All the poetic imagination and tenderness which novelists used (by mis take or civility, of course) to attribute to women, are by Mr. Hardy bestowed on Jude, and, added to these, a man's ability to know when he is beaten, and his strength to keep up the fight when dreams are dust and hope is dead. A man of large nature and fine ambitions, not a weakling doomed from the beginning to disaster, it is a pity that Mr. Hardy could not have used him to nobler purpose. Sue Bridehead differs only superficially from many of the author's women. She is not what he most admires, "a complete and substantial female human," but a graceful, ethereal person, possessed of an appreciable quantity of intellect, a taste for literature, and a theory that chastity is best preserved by roaming about the country and living temporarily with men whose conversation and tastes are congenial. After the tragedy brought about by a child from Australia, the dreadful offspring of Jude and Arabella, Sue presumably went mad; otherwise her acute remorse and self-reproach might have driven her to a convent or death, never back to the loathed divorced and adaptable Phillotson.

We find this return of all the divorcees to their original legal mates a humorous conceit, the only one in the book. Time was when Mr. Hardy had a gift for humor, acrid and ironic but efficient. Perhaps a too constant eye on the miseries and infamies of Wessex has destroyed his perception of the comic as it has of the relative position of a few English counties to the rest of the world. Some Norwegians vindicate Ibsen's atrocities by the contention that actual parallels abound in Norway, and that, through the people of whom he writes, he is striving to elevate the people for whom, first of all, he writes. If Mr. Hardy has come to believe that as it is in the "Ancient Kingdom" so it is in the rest of the English-speaking world, he may be excused of deliberate intention to shock or to offend; but before we could acquit him of traducing we should have to know what they think about it in Wessex.

If we admit that Mr. Hardy's conclusions have any general significance, we must agree with that genial but irascible old gentleman who said: "It's a damned wicked world, and the fewer people we think well of in it the better." If we permit Mr. Gissing's restricted observation to tinge our view of life at large, we can't escape the depressing conviction that it's a dull world, that the times are indeed out of joint, also rotten, and that we are all going fast to the "demnition bow-wows." The scene of Mr. Gissing's 'Emancipated' is far removed from the somewhat dingy, commercial British home to which he has hitherto been bound in bonds not of affection; most of the action taking place in Italy, particularly in Naples. Change of scene has not perceptibly enlivened his sombre soul, nor has the blue Italian ether driven off grim spectres whose native element is smoke and fog and suburban gloom. He has unquestionably tried to cheer up and get rid of his bogies, but is overborne by the pessimistic temperament whose watchword is despair. Though not indifferent to the charm of southern landscape, his pen cannot express it. His descriptions are dry and chill, suggestive of phylloxera in the vineyards and frost upon the oranges. He perceives the softening effect of Greek art and Latin manners on rigid British prejudice and self-sufficiency, but does not succeed in transforming the stern patroness of a dissenting chapel in Barths, Mrs. Miriam Baske, either into a gay figure symbolic of intellectual freedom, or a gracious, kind, and honorable woman.

There are a great many people in the novel: some emancipated from the beginning, and some seen undergoing the painful process of emancipation. Among the latter Mrs. Baske is the most conspicuous. When introduced, she believes art to be but a diversion of the profane, and literature, except in the form of lurid tracts, a device of the Evil One. The 'Improvisatore' and the 'Golden Treasury' have to be brought to her notice by craft. Her development is slow, even ponderous, but appears to be thorough. In the last stages she has a preference for the more liberal of the Latin poets, and marries Mr. Mallard, an artist who frequently forgets to brush his hair and to lift his hat to women, and who is tremendous in denunciation of those who are squeamish about the nude. The awakening of æsthetic sensibility effects no improvement in Mrs. Baske's character. Her inhumanity to her sinful brother, Reuben Elgar, rages unmodified, and her treachery to his wife commits her to hopeless dishonor. We are led to suppose that Mr. Mallard would be able to humanize her by giving her a taste of the happiness of "submission to a stronger nature than herself," but we feel that he would soon come to understand her ability for flicking the bloom off any kind of happiness.

The contrasting figure to Mrs. Baske is Cicely Doram, beautiful in body, free in mind, and gay in spirits; blessed, moreover, with a wealthy aunt, who "devoted herself with artistic zeal to her niece's training for the world." We expect much from this fine modern flower, familiar alike with "Latin classics and Parisian feuilletons." Great, therefore, is our disappointment when, quite after the manner of the silly, old-fashioned girl, she elopes with Reuben Elgar, an unattractive man who she perfectly well knew was impecunious and disreputable. Here Mr. Gissing faces the much-vexed marriage question, and it cannot be said that he offers either enlightenment or consolation. From passion the pair pass to dislike, and thence through a series of degrading episodes to separation. Mr. Gissing's arguments against religious and social systems are most disingenuous. The Mosaic dispensation is not responsible for the appearance of Elgars on the earth. They are essentially weak and vicious, and doubtless flourished in Rome under the Cæsars. There never was a society under the old order or the new which, cogni-

zant of Elgar's gross infidelity, would not have approved of Cicely's leaving him without ceremony. It is nonsense for Mr. Gissing to say that she was forced to stay with him by the undiscerning rigor of society; and the unkempt Mr. Mallard shows himself barren of expedients when he declares that, short of killing herself, there was no way out.

In drawing Mrs. Baske and Cicely, Mr. Gissing's limitations are clearly defined. Far greater facility than his for expressing mental moods and spiritual crises is needed to make them acceptable and convincing. In many of the minor characters, especially the Denyer family, he shines more brightly. The Denyers are among his best characterizations. Like the Frenches in the 'Year of Jubilee,' he knows them through and through, and detests as deeply as he knows.

BOOKS ABOUT THE LEVANT.

Constantinople: The City of the Sultans. By Clara Erskine Clement. Illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.

Constantinople. By F. Marion Crawford. Illustrated by Edwin L. Weeks. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

Mentone, Cairo, and Corfu. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Illustrated. Harper & Bros. 1896.

ALMOST anything which bears the name of Constantinople on its title-page attracts attention at the present moment. The Turkish capital is the centre of curiosity to every one who takes any interest in foreign lands and foreign politics, and all the world is eager to learn whatever it can about the city of the sultans, provided it can do so without too much mental effort or too great an expenditure of time. At first appearance, 'Constantinople: The City of the Sultans,' looks as though it were the very book to give the desired information in the most satisfactory manner. In outside appearance it is strikingly Levantine—brilliant, gaudy, adorned with stars and crescents and golden domes and minarets. Within it is equally charming so far as appearance is concerned. It is clearly printed on unglazed paper, soft to the eye, and illustrated with twenty admirably executed full-page half-tones, reproduced, if we are not mistaken, from photographs of Sebah and Joaillier of Constantinople and Cairo. There are, however, some inaccuracies in the titles of these illustrations. The plate facing page 154 is incorrectly entitled "Dolmabatchke [*sic*] Palace and Mosque of Sultan Abdul Medjid." There is no palace visible in the picture, but, if there were, it would be the palace of Cheragan. Dolmabaghtshe is a mile or two further down the Bosphorus. The plate entitled "The Mosque of Sultan Ahmed" would be more properly designated "The Built Column," that being the main feature of the photograph, while the mosque is rather an incident of the background. A "Street Scene," facing page 236, is called in Sebah and Joaillier's series of photographs, where it is No. 217, "Café Turc," which correctly describes the picture.

The contents of the volume are by no means equal to its outward form. The style is bad and illogical, and the statements inaccurate and unreliable. The history of the reigns of the last three sultans, Abdul Aziz, Murad, and Abdul Hamid, degenerates into the merest gossip, garnished after the pattern of the 'Arabian Nights.' Even in the transcription of Turkish words the author is careless and unmethodical, writing in one place *Medjid*, and in another *Mejid*, on page 152 *ferejeh*, and on page 246 *feridjé*. With similar negligence she tells you in two consecutive sentences that "there is no longer a spectacle of the Selanelik [misprint for *Selamlik*] in Constantinople. It can, however, be seen by applying for an order at one of the embassies" (p. 164). Still, she makes some comments upon the government of the present Sultan which are worth reading by his apologists: "We perceive that nothing of importance can occur in the Ottoman Empire without the knowledge of Sultan Abdul Hamid II. What are we, then, to think of him when by general consent it is admitted that his government is of the very worst? Even the glimmers of light that had dawned upon Ottoman darkness before his accession have been extinguished." The first two parts of the book are devoted to the history, the last to the present life of Constantinople, meaning the objects of interest to the tourist, and the life and habits of the people. This part is somewhat better than the other two, but the author's acquaintance with Constantinople is too evidently superficial and inaccurate to make even this part of any value. In the closing chapter she pays a well-deserved tribute to the admirable educational institutions established in Constantinople by Americans, and the remarkable results achieved through them.

F. Marion Crawford's 'Constantinople' is a book of a very different type. It does not profess to be a history of Constantinople or a guide to the objects of interest. It is a graceful little work, meant to lie on your table, not to stand in your book-case, as even its outer form declares. It is light literature, the jottings of a lover of the curious, the outlandish, and the picturesque, of a literary man who studies men and places with a view to their possible utilization in some novel or magazine. You ramble about in out-of-the-way places; sit in a queer little café and study the Galata bridge; bargain, haggle, and drink coffee in the bazaar; eat Turkish dishes and drink Turkish drinks in genuine unadulterated Turkish cook-shops; float up and down the blue Bosphorus in picturesque kaiks; saunter through quaint cemeteries; and, wherever you go, Mr. Edwin L. Weeks goes with you and makes a sketch of the queer people that you see and the odd scenes which surround you, to keep you mindful of them always. It is a delightfully irresponsible book, looking at men and things from the point of view of the man away from home and its social and religious standards, awake to the artistic, the strange, and the effective, indifferent to the moral aspect. One is not surprised, therefore, when Mr. Crawford sighs to think that the Turk must soon give way to civilization, nor to hear him abuse the progressive and mercantile Greeks and Armenians. Massacres are blood-curdling and exciting, trade and industry are plebeian, commonplace, and tiresome. One is, however, somewhat astonished to learn that the Turk "is naturally a fair man, with blue eyes and of fresh complexion, well grown, uncommonly strong, and very enduring," and that the "Greeks, Armenians, Persians, and Africans" are responsible for the bad government of his country, having outwitted and robbed him, although "he himself is a fine fellow and belongs to the superior, dominant races of the world." Or again, that while the Greeks and Armenians and foreigners secure all the concessions, grants, and monopolies, the Turk must "ultimately pay for all these things." In point of fact, nine-tenths of all the Turks in Constantinople live from the public crib, as officials, sinecurists, or pensioners. The Ottoman Turks are not producers, but consumers. It is the various subject peoples, Christian and Moslem, who do the producing and pay the bills.

Owing to the Turkish method of marriage with Circassians, Christians, negroes, and all the outside world, the Turks of the upper classes have become such a mixed race that it is difficult to predicate of them any national type. For this purpose you must go far afield among the Turkish peasantry and small townspeople in Asia Minor. There you do not find the Turk fair-haired and blue-eyed, it is true, but you do find him a good fellow, honest, sober, stupid, and kindly. He conquered and endeavored to appropriate a civilized government while he was still a barbarian. He has remained a barbarian, and his governing classes have appropriated the vices and corruption without the virtues of the government which they conquered.

Miss Woolson's 'Mentone, Cairo, and Corfu' takes us away from Constantinople to travel and sojourn in other parts of the great Mediterranean basin. "The substance of this collection," as we are told in a publisher's note, "originally appeared in *Harper's Magazine*" at different times between the years 1884 and 1892. Now that the author is gone, the different articles are gathered together and published in book form; and they are well worth it. The first of these sketches, which is also the longest and the best, is entitled "At Mentone," and you cannot read it without feeling that you are there, living an out-door life in a balmy, lemon-scented atmosphere, without cares or duties of any sort but to amuse yourself, meeting and associating intimately with other holiday-makers and health-seekers, to separate from them suddenly and completely when the year grows warm again. Physicians who cannot send their patients to the Riviera should give them this book. It will make them think that they are there. It is a combination of guide-book and story, so clever and so just that neither part injures the other, and you obtain your information without being aware, unless you are a professional critic, that you are being informed.

"Cairo in 1890" has not the added charm of being a story as well as a sketch of travel, but it is a charming and graceful record of the impressions and experiences of an intelligent, observant, well-informed woman in one of the most fascinating cities in the world. It is both interesting and profitable reading. We notice a few slight slips in Arabic words, as, for instance, at the foot of page 155, where Miss Woolson transcribes and translates a part of the familiar muezzin call, and in doing so translates what she has not transcribed. Some of the descriptions are delightful, as, for example, where she undertakes to hunt down Assiut ware to its store-rooms, and finds herself in a lodging-house of native Cairo (pp. 224 ff). "Corfu and the Ionian" is not quite equal in interest to the other two sketches, perhaps because Corfu is not in itself so interesting as Cairo and the Riviera. Nevertheless, this also was well worth republication.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL.

The Key of the Pacific: The Nicaragua Canal. By Ross Colquhoun. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE second part of the title tells what this book is. It is a description of the Nicaragua Canal, with some account of the country which the canal will traverse and of the business

which it may be expected to accommodate. The author, whose life has combined that of a civil engineer, a Government commissioner, and a newspaper correspondent, has devoted somewhat more than 300 pages of well-printed matter to this general subject. He begins by considering the three main schemes which of late years have been proposed for the passage of the American isthmus—the Panama Canal, the Nicaragua Canal, and the Tehuantepec Ship-Railway. Panama and Tehuantepec are quickly dismissed. The former lost whatever merit it may have had when the tide-level canal was abandoned; the latter ended with the life of its illustrious promoter. The Nicaragua route remains, and the author regards this as the sole practicable line of isthmian transit. Two chapters are devoted to concessions and organizations, and the author concludes that "it is certain that the project must be under the auspices of some strong Government, and without doubt that Government must be the United States." Two chapters are devoted to the engineering problem, including therein both the construction and the physical conditions which affect construction; two more are of an historical character; four relate to the general features and resources of Nicaragua; one chapter takes up the general subject of ship-canals, and the two last confirm the value of the canal and its far-reaching effects. While written by an Englishman, and in fact an English publication, printed also in America under the international copyright provisions, the work is apparently intended for American readers quite as much as for English, and it is an interesting and readable account of a subject of very great importance which is but imperfectly understood.

The Nicaragua Ship-Canal differs very materially from the other great ship-canals of the world. The Suez Canal is simply a level cut from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea, opening an artificial strait between two great bodies of salt water. The Corinth Canal is of the same nature. The Panama Canal, as originally projected, was of the same kind. The North Sea Canal, though provided with guard-locks at both entrances, is constructed on a single level from the Baltic to the North Sea. All of these canals are throughout salt-water canals. At Nicaragua, on the other hand, a fresh-water lake of an area of nearly 3,000 square miles and about 100 feet above the level of either ocean, lies midway between the Atlantic and Pacific. The problem consists in connecting this fresh inland sea with the oceans which are so close at hand. The present outlet of the lake is by the San Juan River to the Caribbean Sea, though there are reasons to believe that the outlet was once in a northwesterly direction to the Bay of Fonseca on the Pacific. The lake is a beautiful sheet of water surrounded by mountains and embellished with volcanoes, some of which rise as islands in the lake.

Although the outlet is to the Atlantic, the chief difficulties in construction lie on the Atlantic side. The distance from the lake to the Pacific is only eighteen miles, and this portion of the canal presents no difficulties of an unusual nature. The Pacific terminus would be at Brito, which is at present barely worthy to be called a roadstead, but a fairly good harbor can be constructed there by artificial breakwaters. On the Atlantic side the case is very different: the air-line distance from the lake to the ocean is about seventy miles, and the general course of the San Juan River seems to be the only feasible route. The early plans, which contemplated a canal of much less capacity than is now proposed, were based upon a system of slack-water navigation on the San Juan River. The plans adopted by the Nicaragua Canal Construction Company are of a radically different character: they contemplate the construction of a great dam across the San Juan River at Ochoa, which shall not only raise the present level of the river above the dam to that of Lake Nicaragua, but, by extending this summit level through other valleys north of the San Juan, carry it to within twelve miles of the Caribbean Sea. Not only is it proposed to extend the lake by means of the Ochoa dam, but it is expected to raise its present level about four feet, so that the lake would become a great fresh-water basin reaching within a dozen miles of either ocean. The principal difficulties of this scheme lie in the extension of the basin eastward. The Ochoa dam is in itself a work of great magnitude, but the range of hills which would confine the southern boundary of the extended basin are not continuous, requiring a long series of embankments, some of them of great dimensions, to sustain the basin; besides which, it is proposed to cut through a divide between the drainage of the San Francisco and Deseado Rivers, both tributaries of the San Juan, involving a cut of a maximum depth of more than three hundred feet. The Ochoa dam would be about seventy-five feet high, and some of the valleys on the San Francisco embankment are crossed at almost an equal height. Three locks of unusual dimensions, exceeding any yet constructed, make the descent on either side from the great fresh-water summit basin to the ocean. After leaving the basin on the Atlantic side, except the magnitude of the locks, no special difficulties are found. The Atlantic terminus would be at Greytown, which was once one of the best harbors in Central America, but is a fearful illustration of the dangers of shifting sands. One of the most uncertain problems which the builders of this canal will have to face is the reopening and preservation of Greytown harbor.

The climate of Lake Nicaragua is delightful, and the general features all that are needed to make a tropical climate attractive. Between the lake and the Caribbean Sea the rainfall is excessive; the rainy season extends through the whole year and the total rainfall is nearly 300 inches annually. While this excessive rainfall is less objectionable in the tropics than in a colder zone, it adds to the difficulties of a task which at best requires the most careful examination and the most skilful engineering.

The general idea of a canal of this kind is most attractive. In a few hours after leaving the ocean, a ship would pass through the three locks and reach the great interior lake. The passage through this lake would have the same charm that belongs to the Inland Sea of Japan, while delightful watering-places would be built around this great fresh-water harbor. But the attractiveness of a tropical lake is an unimportant incident: the real questions are, whether the plans now proposed are feasible, what they will cost, and whether the results will justify the cost.

So far as the feasibility of the plans is concerned, the author accepts them as thoroughly satisfactory. The only features in which he sees any difficulties are the Ochoa dam, the East Divide cut, and Greytown harbor. As to the dam, he is simply not fully prepared to accept the plans already made as the best; the East Divide cut may require flatter slopes, and possibly a tunnel may be desirable; of Greytown harbor he feels more doubt. The next question is that of cost, and the writer doubles the estimates of the canal company, considering it probable that the cost of the enterprise may be $150,000,000. As to the value of the completed work, the author has no doubts whatever; he believes it reasonable to estimate the net income two years after the opening of the canal at about $9,000,000, which would be 6 per cent. on the $150,000,000 which he thinks the canal may cost, and this income he expects to increase from year to year, as has been the case at Suez. But the mere income is by no means the whole value of the canal; its value from a strategic point of view in enabling naval vessels to pass from one ocean to another in a minimum time, and its value from a commercial point of view in enabling coasting vessels of one ocean to be utilized on the other, are of the utmost importance.

All this is very interesting and very important. The book, however, is in many respects superficial, and the reader feels that, before accepting the conclusions, he ought to verify some of the facts. One special defect should be pointed out: any book of this character should be accompanied by a full and accurate map which may be carefully studied by the reader. A number of sketch-maps are printed in the body of the book, and a very poor folding map is placed at the end; profiles in rather inconvenient form, with no vertical scale and apparently not very accurate, are given of the two canal sections between the Ochoa dam and the Caribbean Sea, and between the lake and the Pacific, while a small profile, with no scale whatever, gives an unsatisfactory view of the entire canal. A few inaccuracies may be cited which show the carelessness with which the book is prepared: on page 40 it is stated that the Maritime Canal Company of Nicaragua has the only charter which Congress has ever granted except that of the Union Pacific Railroad, whereas at least two other railroads now running are operated under charters from the general Government; on page 74 the Quaker Bridge dam, which appears to be ninety feet higher than any dam ever built, is included in a list of constructed works; on page 107 the statement is made that on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts practically only at the mouth of the Mississippi have American engineers succeeded in deepening the channel into a harbor, ignoring the fact that the depth on Sandy Hook bar has been increased until there is now thirty feet at low water, that the depth on the bar at Galveston has been doubled, and that equally great improvements have been made at Charleston and at the mouth of the St. John's River. On page 278 occurs the extraordinary statement that a canal a thousand miles long to connect the Baltic with the Black Sea, following up the Dwina and down the Dnieper Rivers, would be without locks. Such statements cannot fail to shake the reader's confidence in the accuracy of the whole book.

An Old New England Town: Sketches of Life, Scenery, and Character. By Frank Samuel Child. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

BOOKS that relate to life in New England towns are always interesting to New Englanders, wherever the latter may abide. This book is no exception, though in many respects it is of a somewhat slight and sketchy character. It is exceptionally neatly printed, and the binding is in good taste, even in what is termed the "regular" (*i. e.*, cheaper) edition. The author evidently worked *con amore*, and, in the lectures which preceded and formed the

original material of the book, he was applauded by the approval of the local community. Both text and illustrations are largely taken up with the natural scenery of the "grand old town." Many of these descriptions might have been omitted, for, however grand the town might have been in the past, or may be at present, in many features, the natural scenery is not imposing. Besides, whatever quiet beauties it may present are all visible to the present generation as they were to those who have passed away.

While the book is often pleasing and instructive, we think it might easily have been made more so by giving a fuller account of some of its former inhabitants, especially those who were distinguished in their day. The only notable biographical sketch in the work is that of Roger Minot Sherman, whose portrait is the frontispiece to the volume. But the sketch of this distinguished gentleman is, to say the least, somewhat imperfect. He was, for at least thirty years, the most accomplished lawyer at the Connecticut bar, and, as an advocate and jurist, he had few equals in the United States. No one would claim for him the "majestic intellectual power" often displayed by Mr. Webster, but few who are competent to speak on the subject would hesitate to say that Mr. Sherman was the more accomplished and thoroughly equipped lawyer of the two. The author cites President Woolsey (no mean judge) as saying that "Roger Minot Sherman came nearer his conception of Cicero than any other human being he had ever heard speak." Then occurs the following: "He [President Woolsey] said Mr. Sherman was unwilling to speak anywhere but in court in his own county." The authority for this is Senator Hoar, cited by the author. Though the Senator is a distant relative of Mr. Sherman, either he or President Woolsey (one of the exactest of men) was mistaken. Very likely Mr. Sherman declined all invitations to address public bodies or miscellaneous audiences on literary or historical themes. He was not singular in this. His relative, Roger Sherman Baldwin, one of the ablest and most finished lawyers of Connecticut, habitually refused to employ his talents in that field of intellectual labor. A few legal opinions and briefs and one or two great arguments are about all that has come down to us from either of these eminent lawyers. But the statement attributed to President Woolsey, that "Mr. Sherman was unwilling to speak anywhere but in court in his own county," is clearly erroneous. The reports of cases and the records of litigation in Connecticut from as early as 1810, at least, till 1839, conclusively show that Mr. Sherman was constantly arguing causes in nearly every county in the State. Like the English lawyers, he "rode the circuit," trying causes whenever he was offered retainers, which was very often. This was inevitable, for his fame, both as an advocate and a jurist, transcended that of any lawyer in the State. Though not a florid or, perhaps, in the popular sense, a brilliant forensic orator, he was a finished advocate, both on matters of fact to the jury and on the most intricate and subtle questions of law presented to the court. An eminent Chief Justice of Connecticut (now deceased) once told the writer of this notice that Sherman's logic was so cogent and faultless that the most distinguished of the judges before whom he appeared felt it unsafe to fail to examine carefully his premises, or to remit for a moment their attention to the course of his argument, lest they might be lured to a wrong conclusion.

After referring to the fact that Sherman declined a nomination for Congress, the author remarks: "At a later date the opportunity came when the State would have been glad to choose him to represent her in the United States Senate; but certain views which Judge Sherman held were not agreeable to his party, and he was not willing to compromise his position." Now we apprehend that the real reason why he was not elected to the United States Senate was because he had been a member of the Hartford Convention, a body which the Democrats had for years denounced as treasonable. Certain small men in the Whig party were afraid to elect Mr. Sherman to the Senate for fear that it would hurt the party, so that once august legislative chamber lost the services of one who would have been one of its most useful members as well as one of its brightest ornaments.

Mr. Child, after stating that in 1823 a "young man by the name of 'Ellsworth' wrote to Sherman for advice about the choice of a profession," and giving the substance of his reply, adds: "It is pleasant to remember that Mr. Ellsworth continued to shine with the light of Christian manhood in the legal profession, and that he became famous as professor of law, member of Congress, Governor of Connecticut, and *Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States.*" This is rather an unfortunate slip. The writer does not give the full name, but, clearly, he refers to the late Hon. Wm. W. Ellsworth, who was a member of Congress, Governor of the State, and judge of the Supreme Court of Errors of Connecticut; but he was never a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. His father, Oliver Ellsworth, was for a time Chief Justice of the latter court, a man of great intellectual endowments. He drafted what is known as the "Judiciary Act of 1789," which to this day is the foundation and framework of our Federal jurisprudence. It was a masterly piece of judicial legislation, second only in usefulness to the lucid and luminous expositions of the Constitution of the United States by Chief Justice Marshall.

We are rather surprised that no more is said in this book of Gen. Gold Selleck Silliman of Fairfield. He was, especially during the Revolutionary war, one of the most conspicuous figures in Connecticut. He was a man of untiring energy, and his discreet and efficient management of the military posts assigned to him won the lasting confidence and approval of Governor Trumbull. His wife was scarcely inferior to him in skill, energy, and force of character. They were the head of one of the most distinguished families in the State, their descendants including two eminent professors at Yale. The senior Professor Silliman won a fame not only in his native State, but in the whole country, as well as abroad. The family is well represented at this day in the person of the Hon. B. D. Silliman, an eminent lawyer in this city, a resident of Brooklyn, where he is enjoying a green and cheerful old age.

This book, pleasing as it is in many of its features, reminds us that Connecticut still lacks any adequate history or biographical record of its distinguished men. Some son of hers who may combine the industry of a Dryasdust with the literary gifts of a true historian, might well undertake the task which has thus far remained unperformed.

A History of Money and Prices, being an inquiry into their relations from the thirteenth century to the present time. By J. Schoenhof. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896. 12mo, pp. xvii, 352.

In his latest book Mr. Schoenhof renews his attack upon the theory that the quantity of money in circulation determines money prices. His present argument is chiefly historical. Many figures from Thorold Rogers, D'Avenel, and Beissel are cited to prove that prices "from the thirteenth century to the present time" have not increased proportionately to the contemporaneous increase in the volume of money. The fact is indisputable, but it is not, as Mr. Schoenhof asserts, conclusive against the quantitative theory. Completely stated, that theory is complicated to the verge of unintelligibility. In practice it is simplified into the truism that quotient equals divisor into dividend; or, in other words, that the supply of money and the demand for money—Walker's "money-work"—determine the goods price of money, and therefore the money price of goods. The formula is perhaps true, it is certainly useless. Nobody has measured the supply of money more accurately than to say that it is the number of pieces multiplied by the (indeterminate) rapidity of their circulation. Nobody has ever pointed out a way of ascertaining how great the "amount of money-work" may be. Until these preliminary steps in defining the quantitative theory of money shall be taken, no appeal to statistics or to history can either prove or disprove it. At present we have not the materials for testing its applicability during even the last twenty-five years, to say nothing of the thirteenth century.

In the latter part of the book, dealing with "the true price-making factors," namely, the material and intellectual processes of production, Mr. Schoenhof's knowledge of business enables him to support his contentions by much fresh and apposite illustration. These pages are distinctly stronger than the more theoretical portions.

Elementary Physical Geography. By Ralph S. Tarr, B.S., F.G.S.A. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

This book is in part an attempt to carry out the suggestions which were made by the majority of the Committee of Ten, but the author has deemed it unwise to attempt to do more than partly follow out those suggestions. In his preface he very frankly says that he anticipates much criticism, and in a measure he forestalls unfavorable comment by confessing that he is far from being satisfied with his attempt. In its treatment of "The Land" the book is a decided advance upon any physical geography heretofore published. The various physiographic processes which have shaped the earth's surface are described in some detail. The cycle of erosion, in connection with the development of a river system, is well brought out, and the various accidents which commonly interrupt the normal cycle are well described. The author has apparently been reluctant to use terms, such as "peneplain," "river piracy," and others, which, although new to many teachers of geography, nevertheless have become well established in scientific literature. He has, we may add, put himself in opposition to the authority of the best geologists in discussing weathering and erosion as two separate and coördinate processes. It would have been more in accord with the best usage to have discussed weathering as one of the elements of erosion, and to have used the term "corrasion" in many cases where he has used "erosion." Mr. Tarr's treatment of lakes is inadequate in

that he has failed to emphasize the place which lakes occupy in the cycle of river development, some types being characteristic of the youth and others of the maturity or old age of a river system. Much the same criticism may be made of the author's discussion of plateaus and mountains.

The book contains a few errors which ought to be corrected. Hadley's inaccurate explanation of the deflective force of the earth's rotation is repeated by Mr. Tarr. As has been shown by Ferrel, this force is dependent solely upon the latitude and the momentum of the moving body, and not at all upon the *direction* of motion, whereas Hadley's explanation demands that there be *no* deflection in the case of bodies moving in an east-and-west direction, and that the amount of deflection diminish with the departure from a north-and-south direction. According to the diagram on page 49, the temperature in the southern hemisphere is higher in June than in December, an error probably due to carelessness in preparation. The text seems to have been hastily written, and in places it is marred by careless expressions, such as, "a river valley transformed into a lake" (p. 299), and "we have in this, the Malaspina glacier, an instance of a well developed forest" (p. 313). The illustrations are profuse and in general well chosen, many of them being new to text-books. Unfortunately not a few of them are poorly reproduced.

But praise much more than censure is due to the work as a whole, which is of the nature of a pioneer. The author has in preparation a larger work, which will be awaited with much interest.

English Essays from a French Pen. By J. J. Jusserand, Ministre Plénipotentiaire. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. 1895.

M. JUSSERAND is certainly one of the most vivacious of antiquaries. A book from his pen is sure to be curiously instructive and not to be heavy, and we hope he may long continue to keep to his present average of a volume a year. Of the essays brought together in the little volume before us, "The Forbidden Pastimes of a Recluse" is by all odds the most entertaining. It consists of a string of extracts from a manual for anchoresses written in the twelfth century by the Englishman Ailred, Abbot of Rievaulx, for the guidance of his sister. The manual has interesting points of comparison with the well-known 'Ancren Riwle' of the following century. Some of the scenes depicted are highly characteristic—particularly that of the tattling old woman at the recluse's window, telling tales and keeping her informed of the town gossip. The second paper is a brief and lively account (from an unpublished manuscript) of the journey of Regnault Girard to Scotland in 1435. Girard's errand was to fetch the little Lady Margaret, the betrothed of the Dauphin, and he had some amusing experiences. We are glad to learn that Mr. Andrew Lang is preparing an edition of this important manuscript for the Roxburghe Club. Two other visits to England—that of Sorbières in 1663 and that of Voltaire in 1726—are briefly treated. The longest paper in the volume is that on Scarron, which is reprinted from the Lawrence & Bullen edition of 'The Comical Romance.'

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

La Jeunesse de Bougainville et la Guerre de Sept Ans. [Les Français au Canada.] Paris: Daupeley-Gouverneur.
Lees, Prof. The Claims of Greek. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 25c.
Lieber, B. F. Standard Telegraphic Code. Lieber Publishing Co. $10.
Marcou, J. Life, Letters, and Works of Louis Agassiz. 2 vols. Macmillan & Co.
Meade, L. T. A Princess of the Gutter. Putnams. $1.
Musgrave, George. Dante's Inferno: A Version in the Nine-Line Metre of Spenser. Macmillan. $1.50.
Powell, Lieut.-Col. W. H. The Fifth Army Corps (Army of the Potomac). Putnams. $7.50.
Robb, Russell. Electric Wiring. Macmillan. $2 50.
Roosevelt, Theodore, and Grinnell, G. B. Hunting in Many Lands. *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. $2.50.
Rossetti, W. M. New Poems by Christina Rossetti. Macmillan. $1.75.
Sears, Prof. Lorenzo. The History of Oratory. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co.
Sewall, J. B. The Timon of Lucian. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Tille, Alexander. German Songs of To-Day. Macmillan. $1.
Waugh, Arthur. Alfred Lord Tennyson: A Study of His Life and Works. Macmillan. $2.
Welch, Deshler. The Bachelor and the Chafing Dish. F. T. Neely.
Wentworth, G. A. Syllables of Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Williams, R. P. Chemical Experiments, General and Analytical. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
Wood, Gen. Sir Evelyn. Cavalry in the Waterloo Campaign. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Wood, Henry. Studies in the Thought World; or, Practical Mind Art. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.25.
Young, W. T. The Art of Putting Questions. New ed. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 15c.
Zola, Émile. The Fat and the Thin. F. T. Neely.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1896.

The Week.

THE reference in the Queen's speech to the Venezuelan difficulty is pacific enough. Parliament is informed that the Government of the United States have "expressed a wish to coöperate in bringing to a close" the Guiana boundary dispute, and that "I have expressed my sympathy with the desire to come to an equitable arrangement." This seems to give ample confirmation to the rumors that negotiations have been going on between Washington and London since the bellicose message of December 17, and have been much more amicable in tone. Certainly no ministry could describe the Olney-Cleveland threat to settle the whole thing ourselves as the expression of "a wish to coöperate." It must be, then, that our Washington fire-eaters, after their theatric display, went quietly back to the methods of Evarts and Frelinghuysen and Bayard and Blaine and Gresham, and tried the effect of good offices instead of bludgeons. This will be hailed as good news on both sides the Atlantic, and all will hope, with the Queen's speech, that "further negotiations will lead to a satisfactory settlement."

The speeches of Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury, as well as those of Sir William Harcourt and Lord Rosebery, following the Queen's speech at the opening of Parliament, further indicate that the Venezuela controversy is in a fair way of peaceable settlement. The sense of the English nation, like that of the American people, is clearly against even the thought of the possibility of war between Great Britain and the United States. Mr. Balfour reiterated in the Commons his hope that out of the late evil the great good may come of a permanent arbitration agreement between the two countries. Certainly this is the auspicious time to strike for such a consummation; and the Washington authorities cannot bring forth works more meet for repentance than a hearty closing with any and every advance made to them along this line. Mr. Olney's extremely polite and gracious note of February 3, though a little late, was received with equal graciousness; and nothing seems now to remain except an exchange of compliments and a speedy adjustment of the whole miserable Venezuelan dispute, with our Commission probably, and to their own great satisfaction, left high and dry to one side. Of far greater interest to Parliament and the British nation is the Turkish situation. All Lord Salisbury's skill in dialectics cannot save him from the appearance of having suffered a great diplomatic defeat in this affair.

President Washburn of Robert College, Constantinople, has an interesting article in last week's *Independent* on the Armenian deadlock. He seems to be convinced that Salisbury could not have done any more than he has done without imminent danger of bringing on a European war. That danger President Washburn thinks should have been faced with "faith in God and the Right." But that, on merely political and statesmanlike grounds, Salisbury could not have gone forward without the Powers at his back, appears to be admitted. When he has threatened, or intimated, as he did last summer, armed intervention, he meant intervention, perhaps by England alone, but with the consent and moral support of the Powers always understood. Mr. Washburn is fair and frank enough to concede that the "difficulty with the United States" must have hampered Lord Salisbury enormously. The depression which our brief war madness of December last wrought in thoughtful Americans living abroad is well expressed by the President of the American college in Constantinople, when he says:

> "The present hope of the world is in America; but we have more reason to fear than to boast. I know both countries very well, and I should not like to say that the standard of morality and Christian living is any higher in America than in England, or that the worship of Mammon is more frantic in London than in Chicago, or that our courts administer justice more fairly and surely than hers, or that our moneyed aristocracy is of purer morals or more unselfish spirit than her hereditary nobility. But as a nation we have made no final choice of evil. I thought we had a month ago when I read the President's message, and heard of the enthusiastic cheers which went up all over the land at the prospect of war. I am glad to believe that I was mistaken, that the President did not mean what he seemed to say, and that the cheers for war were only an unhappy way of expressing our patriotism."

The *Rio News* has some striking and truthful remarks about the total confusion of mind of many of our public men, with Secretary Olney at their head, in regard to what we ought to think of South American institutions, and what South Americans themselves really think of us. The power of words to mislead mankind was never more conspicuously shown than by the effect on the imagination of the term "republic" chosen to describe governments which are truly, for the most part, nothing but military oligarchies. England, a republic in everything but name, we must hate as the home of "alien institutions," but South American governments, which are republican in nothing but name, we must hail as sisters on the strength of what we call them, not what they actually are. Equally factitious is the idea that the South Americans have any especial fondness for us, either as republicans or human beings. The *Rio News* tells the exact truth on this point; and so does the Buenos Ayres *Herald* when it affirms that the Argentines are of "a different race, of different language, customs, and interests, having no sympathy with American thought or commerce, having neither affection nor any especial friendship for Americans." Ah, but these are the opinions of jealous foreigners, violently suspected of having their pockets filled with British gold. Not at all. Both the *News* and *Herald* are edited by Americans—only they happen to be Americans who have lived long in the countries they write of, keep their eyes open, and speak the thing they think, unaffected by the fumes either of a Presidential ambition or of the after-dinner wine-cup too long looked upon.

It appears that the advocates of the admission of Arizona and New Mexico as States have about half of the House committee on Territories on their side, and are hopeful of pushing the scheme through Congress at this session. Public sentiment ought to pronounce so emphatically against this proposition that Congress will drop it. Neither of the two Territories is fit for statehood. The only effect of admitting them will be to strengthen the champions of every financial folly by four more votes in the Senate. Sound-money Representatives and Senators ought to be notified that their constituents will not pardon them if they help to consummate such an outrage.

There is a sort of poetic justice in the action of the Senators from the silver-mining States who have voted to substitute a free-coinage bill in place of the House tariff bill. Those States were admitted to the Union for the express purpose of keeping the Republicans in control of the Senate and of preserving the blessed tariff. Both of these dishonest aims have failed, but the republic has received no detriment in consequence. The House tariff bill is a bill of false pretences from beginning to end. It was not expected to become a law when it was passed in the House, but merely to commit the party to passing it at some future time when the party should be strong enough to shape legislation at its own pleasure. The silver extremists have said, through Senators Teller and Jones, that in any such game they hold the winning cards. The country is much benefited by non-action at the present time on the tariff as well as on the silver question. It would be even more benefited if Congress would adjourn as soon as the necessary appropriation bills can be passed. But if it is to remain in session for purposes of general legislation, it can do nothing less harmful than to substitute a free-silver bill for the tariff bill and then kill the former.

The address of Mr. Wharton Barker to the manufacturers on the subject of silver and the tariff is not a very weighty document. It amounts to saying that there will be no more protective-tariff bills passed unless the free coinage of silver is made a part of the measure. But this threat carries no terrors to any manufacturers who are satisfied with the present tariff, and we have heard of no movement for increased duties except among the Ohio wool-growers, who are hardly to be classed as manufacturers. Accompanying Mr. Barker's manifesto is a paper signed by sixteen Republican Senators (all of them, except Cameron, from States west of the Missouri River), saying that they favor rescuing the people of the United States from the impending danger of being overwhelmed by the industrial competition of China and Japan, "by removing the difference of exchange between gold-standard countries and silver-standard countries by the only method possible, which is the free and unlimited coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 by the independent action of the United States." This is not exactly the same thing in terms as Mr. Barker's pronunciamiento, but it probably means the same thing. If so, it means that the House tariff bill will not pass the Senate at this session of Congress, and probably not at any session. Yet it is possible that the manufacturers may not tremble.

We are glad to record the practical defeat of the movement in the Senate to divide up the appropriation bills among a lot of committees, instead of giving the control of nearly all of them to a single committee. The object of this attempt to destroy a centralized and responsible oversight of the national expenditures was scarcely concealed. Much fine talk was put forward about the need of relieving the committee on appropriations from a part of its arduous labors, and of securing more deliberate consideration for important bills; but behind all this was an evident plan, both to increase the power of other committees and other chairmanships, and to make raids on the Treasury easier of execution. The very character of the men engineering the affair was enough to make it extremely suspicious; and though they began with great confidence and with an apparent large majority of the Senate, the sober sense of the older members, together with a little manœuvring of their own, appears to have squelched the whole scheme. It would surely be a pity to abandon one of our few remaining checks on reckless and extravagant legislation, and to make our system of voting money in and out of the Treasury still more chaotic than it is.

Senator Lodge's $100,000,000 bill for coast defences, about which he has been so long mewing and caterwauling on our roofs, was stranded worse than the steamer *St. Paul*, on Saturday week, and will not be got afloat again so easily, we think. He had his scheme nicely prepared and printed, to be offered as an amendment to the House bond bill. It proposed to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds to the amount of $100,000,000, drawing interest at 3 per cent., the principal payable twenty years from date in "coin," with an annual sinking fund of $3,000,000, the proceeds of the bonds to be kept in a separate fund and applied solely to the fortification of the seacoast and lakes of the United States, for the manufacture of guns, the purchase of sites, and the erection of forts and batteries according to plans to be hereafter prepared by the War Department. When this amendment was offered, Senator Teller moved to lay it on the table. Mr. Lodge called for the yeas and nays. To order the yeas and nays a vote of one fifth of the Senators present is required. Only three or four votes were cast for this motion. Senator Teller's motion to lay on the table then prevailed without a division.

The debate in the House on Thursday showed that the silver element among the Republicans in the lower branch of Congress is as bent on declaring itself as is the case with Republican Senators who believe in free coinage. Mr. Johnson of California openly and strongly denounced the Reed programme of inaction. He declared that "a do-nothing policy, or a policy confined to action on non-essentials, such as self-constituted leaders of the House say is proper, will not serve," and he criticised Chairman Dingley of the ways and means committee for offering nothing as an alternative to free coinage, urging that at least provision be made for the coining of American silver. "The silver Republicans," he announced, "are ready to set lance in rest now or at any time upon this question." In taking this position Mr. Johnson, and the silver Republicans who stand with him, feel that they have their constituents behind them. Upon the passage by the Senate of the free-coinage substitute for the bond bill, the Denver *Republican* declared that "the Republican majority in the House ought to have sufficient intelligence and patriotism to pass the bill exactly as it went through the Senate." Although it is generally assumed that there is a "goldite" majority in the House, the *Republican* questioned the correctness of that conclusion, and wanted to see a fair test made in order that every member may be forced to go on record. It expected that Speaker Reed and the Republican members who favor his Presidential aspirations would attempt to smother the measure in committee or elsewhere, but insisted that this should not be permitted, but that the bill should be forced to a vote on its merits, "in spite of the opposition of possible Presidential candidates, and the jugglery of two-faced representatives who profess to be bimetallists at home and act as the tools of the Money Power in Washington."

A significant speech was delivered in the House on Saturday by Mr. Hall, a Democratic Representative from Missouri, who has hitherto been a strong free-coinage man, but now declares his conversion to the cause of sound money. Mr. Hall made the interesting statement that eight of the Senators who voted for free coinage a few days ago have said privately that they believe the adoption of this policy would destroy the commercial prosperity of the country. This is entirely credible; indeed, nobody has ever been able to believe that all, or a large proportion, of the Senators who have voted for free coinage were such fools as to believe in it. It is impossible, for example, to suppose that such a man as Wolcott of Colorado seriously thinks that the prosperity of the United States would be promoted by the adoption of this policy; but he knew that anybody who questioned its wisdom would have stood no chance of being elected a Senator from Colorado. Many other Senators who voted on the same side have had less excuse for their attitude, since their constituents have no selfish interest in silver mines, and might have been shown the folly of the silver delusion if the public men whom they trusted had done their duty. One of the most striking signs of the decadence of the Senate is the readiness of its members to shirk responsibility, as evidenced by the willingness of many who believe that free coinage would ruin the nation to vote for it because they think it popular with their constituents, and leave the House of Representatives or the President to block a scheme that they ought to have defeated themselves.

People may freely speak their mind, as they are speaking it, about the wretched incapacity and recreancy of Congress in all matters of domestic legislation. Nothing is commoner than to hear the Senate, especially, denounced as a collection of knaves and imbeciles, a fearful incubus on the country which it totally misunderstands and misrepresents. The vast majority of the intelligent citizens of the nation would be indignant if told that they must not question the wisdom of Congress about the currency, about taxation, about copyright, about banking. What! that body of adventurers and trucklers represent the country? We must all "stand behind" it? Treason to talk against it? But, excited brother, is not this just what you were saying about the action of Congress on the vastly greater question of peace or war? Were you not almost ready to mob anybody who said that Congress was as ignorant and cowardly in that matter as you now admit it is in all others? It would be strange, indeed, if a Congress which has shown itself wholly incapable of laying taxes or ordering the currency,

should suddenly develop the loftiest patriotism and purest wisdom in a crisis affecting the very life of the nation. Men are not built that way. If they are trimmers or incendiaries in that which is least, they will be in that which is much. No one suddenly becomes wise and virtuous, any more than base. The men at Washington whom we now speak of with disgust and loathing, are the very men who, we were told six weeks ago, accurately represented the deliberate judgment of this nation. They were precisely the same men then that they are now, and they trifled with the vast issues of peace and war, with the very destiny of the country, in the same reckless and barbaric spirit which they now display in dealing with the national credit. They did not put more character or intelligence into that work than they are putting into this, though in the frenzy of the moment they passed as wise patriots. Luckily, that frenzy is now overpassed, and thousands of shamefaced people are ready to admit that their worshipped heroes of last December were really the same ignoble and incapable set that they now despise.

That the proper study of mankind is war is maintained with great power in the last *North American Review* by Capt. H. C. Taylor of the Naval War College. He is pained at the widespread "prejudice against its study," admits with shame that "soldiers and sailors hardened in battle" have called war "unnatural," just as if they were no clearer-eyed than "philosophers of a certain ability," and points out that the ravages of "the anti-war spirit during the nineteenth century" have gone to such an alarming extent that some men can "soberly suggest the possibilities of the nations of the earth ceasing to war with each other." Against such a horrible thought he lifts a manly voice. War, he maintains, is necessary to the whole man—to "the artistic spirit," to "the moral nature," to "the fervor of religion." It is a serious mistake to think of Christ as the great non-resistant; for "the willing effacement of the stubborn ego in the flood of fellow-humanity which the head of Christianity demands," is possible through war alone. The duty of a Christian nation, mindful of "the dignity of her high estate," is clearly, therefore, to keep fighting as constantly as possible, so that we may retain "the idea of war as a permanent factor of life," and prevent peace from "generating doubts as to the wisdom of the Providence that sways the universe." All this makes the plan of salvation plain and beautiful, but Capt. Taylor seems to confuse matters by a weak admission that "war is cruel and brutal, disposing men to a state of savagery." We do not see that he saves himself by adding that "the corrupt ease, the luxurious immorality of life, towards which a total absence of war always leads nations, has in it something more degrading for the human race than simple savagery." If war makes us savages, and the absence of war something worse than savages, it would seem to be all up with us. But it must be confessed that Capt. Taylor's thesis that war disposes men to a state of savagery, he certainly proves in his own person.

The last New York Legislature passed an act which places the 12th of February, the anniversary of Lincoln's birth, on the same footing as New Year's, Washington's Birthday, Decoration Day, the Fourth of July, Labor Day, Election Day, Thanksgiving, and Christmas. The States of New Jersey, Illinois, and Washington have taken similar action, while Connecticut has established a Lincoln holiday in the month of October. It is a mistaken policy. A general observance of two holidays within ten days of each other in February is impossible, while the Connecticut idea of picking out a day that has no relation to any event in Lincoln's life is absurd. The consequence must be that the anniversary will secure but small recognition, while it introduces a fresh disturbance of business. Lincoln himself, with his shrewd common sense, would have put a quietus on the suggestion if he could have had his way about it. The mischief is that, as revolutions do not go backward, holidays are not revoked, and that the granting of them seems as easy to procure, and as difficult for legislators to resist, as the generality of demagogical measures.

John Morley gave a definition of the Jingo, in his speech at Arbroath the other night, which has a philosophical neatness and accuracy about it. He rightly said that your Jingo is known to the fauna of all countries, infesting Great Britain as well as America. The "born Jingo," said Mr. Morley, evidently having in mind the many artificial, for-this-campaign-only Jingoes, is "a man overflowing with the old Adam of violence and force, who would not be a bad fellow if he could only recognize two things—first, that there is a relation between cause and effect, and, second, that there is a difference between right and wrong." It is almost cruel now to recall the aptness with which our Jingoes have lately illustrated the definition. To shriek for war one day and bewail a smashed stock market and chilled business the next, could be possible only in beings of a deficient sense of causal relations. Great Heavens, they said, we never meant that! But godlike reason is given to mortals precisely that they may foresee the consequences of their own acts. The difference between right and wrong is a subtler thing, which bluff Jingo minds perhaps ought not to be expected to grasp on all occasions; but even they ought to find it incredible that we should always be right, and the other fellows always wrong, and that, anyhow, we can whip them.

The Anglo-French convention, signed January 15, relating to Siam, appears to have given satisfaction on both sides of the Channel. Its effect is not so much to partition Siam as to determine the respective English and French "spheres of influence," and to neutralize the Menam valley—say, one-third of the entire territory of Siam. In this region each country will enjoy the same commercial rights, and Lord Salisbury made it clear in his letter to the Marquis of Dufferin, that he did not doubt the ability of English merchants and traders to compete with the French on even terms. No one seems to have inquired how the Siamese would like the arrangement. It was apparently thought superfluous to question Siam's perfect willingness to be cut up into spheres of influence and neutralized regions. Anyhow, it is now reported that the Siamese authorities are quite content. They may be making a virtue of necessity, or reflecting how much worse it might have been.

Protection, masquerading as hygienic regulations, is taking a novel turn in Germany. The demand is made that Russian grain be excluded on the ground that it is a deadly vehicle of infection. A professor has found in one-tenth of a gramme of Russian oats, barley, and rye, anywhere from 500,000 to 1,000,000 bacilli, and from 400 to 12,000 mould fungi. This is enough for Count Kanitz and the Agrarians, who are loudly demanding that the national health (not, of course, their farm products) be protected against the new danger. Meanwhile, it is safe to say that all attempts of bacteriologists to put German grain under the microscope will be severely frowned upon. Such a thing, on a pinch, could be made out *lèse-majesté*.

What a serious business the trade of Emperor has become in the modern world may be inferred from some statistics recently published in the German papers regarding William II.'s distribution of his time during the past year. He spent 159 days away from Berlin. Of these, 52 were taken up by hunting parties, 38 by visits to allied princes, and 28 by military parades and army manœuvres—what has been called the "defilirium tremens" of the Kaiser. The remaining days of his absence from the capital were passed in different German cities, haranguing the burgomasters, and in various royal châteaus, doing "suthin' in the pastoral line." Even when in Berlin, William keeps up his pathological activity, counting that day lost whose low descending sun has not seen a garrison alarmed, a minister rebuked, Socialists threatened with the sword of the Lord's anointed, or an imperial finger thrust into some international pie. To such a life a young man must feel that he has a "serious call" before daring to undertake it in this degenerate age.

THE BOND SALE.

THE success of the new Government loan has surpassed the expectations of everybody, in both the amount offered and the price obtained. The oldest and most experienced heads in Wall Street were as much astonished as the neophytes. The whole amount subscribed for was in excess of $500,000,000. This casts in the shade everything else previously attempted. The loan of February, 1894, was practically forced upon the New York city banks after the public had failed to subscribe. The 5 per cent. bonds it offered were taken at 117.223, a rate which made the interest equal to 3 per cent. The purchasers lost money on them. The loan of November, 1894, was of the same kind, and the results were the same. The syndicate loan of February, 1895, was a sale of 4 per cents at 104.50, which made the interest equal to 3¾ per cent. The present bids averaging about 111, the rate of interest will be about 3⅝, which is more favorable to the Government than the syndicate loan of last February, but not so favorable as the loan of February, 1894. Nor must we fail to remark that the credit of New York city is higher than that of the United States. On the 26th of February last year, $3.265,000 city bonds sold above par, the bids ranging as high as 103.25. These were 3 per cents, but they were specifically payable in gold. This accounts for the solecism that the nation's credit is inferior to that of one of its cities which contains not more than a fortieth part of its population. If we look abroad for comparisons, we find that British consols bearing 2¾ per cent. interest are selling at 108⅛, or nearly as high as our 4 per cents. When the Government bond contract was pending in February, 1895, the syndicate offered to take the lot at a price equal to 3 per cent. if the loan were made payable in gold, but Congress refused to pass an act to that effect. It cannot be doubted that if such a law were now in force, the present sale would have been made on far better terms for the Government. The bid would probably have been as high as 125.

Of course this sale will be drawn into comparison with that of February, 1895, and to the disparagement of the latter. It should be borne in mind, however, that the syndicate contract was made at a time when the Government was within three days (some say three hours) of suspension. It was made in the very teeth of a panic. The Government came as a borrower at a time when ordinary borrowers could not get money on any terms. To have delayed thirty days then would have involved both public and private bankruptcy. Under circumstances of that appalling kind it was impossible to wait, and we think still that the offer at the time was a reasonable one, considering the syndicate's engagement to protect the Treasury gold reserve for ten months, and their actual protection of it for a year. It should be remembered, also, that the elections of last autumn, so disastrous to the silverites in parts of the country where they were supposed to be strong, have had an improving effect on the public credit, so that, barring any war scare, the bonds ought to sell higher now than then. If we make a further comparison with the recent offer of the Morgan syndicate to take $100,000,000 at 105, we must bear in mind that that offer was made in the shadow of a panic caused by Mr. Cleveland's Venezuelan message, which has since been measurably cleared away. On certain days after that message was sent to Congress, no bid could be obtained for Government bonds in Wall Street. Nobody could have anticipated then that there would be such a clearing up of the financial atmosphere within so short a time.

The effect of what has happened on the silverites must be blighting. When the business interests of the country come forward, at thirty days' notice, and offer to bet five hundred million dollars that the gold standard will be maintained, and to put up 20 per cent. of that sum as a pledge of good faith, the bragging and blackguardism of the silver majority in the Senate disappear like loose straw in a hurricane. It would be impossible to produce by any other means such a profound moral effect. It was only a few weeks ago that their chief men assembled in Washington and prepared a political programme for the Presidential year. They called a national convention to meet at St. Louis on the same day as that of the Populists. They declared it to be their purpose to compel one of the great political parties, if not both, to adopt a platform in favor of free coinage at the rate of 16 to 1, by this country alone, failing in which they would nominate a Presidential ticket and create a new party in all the States, based upon that single idea. They could have done nothing more gratifying to the friends of sound money. The strength of the silver faction all along has consisted in their ability to pose as a balance of power between Republicans and Democrats. In this way a minority as small as one-tenth may exercise a preponderating influence over a wide region of country and over national affairs, whereas if they should take the field as a separate force, relying on their own numbers and the merits of their particular scheme, they would win nothing but ridicule. This will be the situation of the silverites as soon as they begin a separate 16-to-1 campaign.

The "first gun" in this campaign has been fired. It is a far more telling shot than the numbers of the persons concerned would imply. Its force consists in the demonstration that the capital of the country is determined that the gold standard shall be maintained, is ready to put up, not $100,000,000 merely, but as much money as may be needed at any future time. The effect of such a demonstration upon political parties must be very great and very beneficial. It must also serve to brace up the financial nerve of the Administration if it needed any bracing, and it may lead to a still further accumulation of gold. Indeed, it would have been better if the loan had been for $200,000,000 instead of half that sum. With the gold now in hand, that would have given the Treasury a reserve of nearly $270,000,000, which is not too large for the total amount of fiat money outstanding. When the gold reserve was collected preparatory to specie resumption in 1878, it was about 30 per cent. of the legal-tender notes to be redeemed. Since that time we have added to the stock of fiat money, in round numbers, $400,000,000 of silver and $150,000,000 of Treasury notes, bringing the total up to $900,000,000. If 30 per cent. was the proper proportion of reserve to demand liabilities in 1879, it must be considered so now. In fact, that percentage is much smaller than is held by the great banks of Europe which are charged with the duty of keeping the ultimate gold reserve of their respective countries.

It may be said that the $100,000,000 of greenbacks now in the Treasury vaults should be deducted from the total amount of fiat money. It is true that as long as they remain there they cannot be used to draw gold from the Treasury, but, since they are liable to be paid out in consequence of any excessive appropriations by Congress, and must be so paid if, for any reason, the Government's expenses exceed its receipts, they cannot be ignored. They are liable to be rushed into the circulation at any time, and hence, in any prudent calculation of the future, must be considered as a part of the nation's demand liabilities. The $110,000,000 or more of gold to be realized from the new bond sale, added to the stock in hand previously, will carry us to the end of the present year, without any commotion resulting from financial causes; but if the reserve should fall below the traditional $100,000,000 at any time during the term of the present Secretary, he will be justified by public opinion in making a new loan equal to the present one, which would be large enough to constitute a permanent infallible reserve, needing no further additions and dispensing with all further anxiety.

NATIONAL INSANITY.

THERE is a story told of Bishop Butler, the author of the 'Analogy,' that, walking in his garden one night with his chaplain, he asked him whether "public bodies might not go mad as well as individuals," adding that "nothing else could account for most of the transactions in history." The question is an exceedingly interesting one, and seems to grow more so with the passage of time and the increase of intellectual activity; and yet there has been but little discussion of it by either historians or alienists. For instance, if we were to examine Socialism—or rather the various schemes which are laid before

the world under that name—with the aid of tests and standards which a professional alienist applies to signs of mental disease in individuals, it would be almost impossible to avoid placing it in the category of morbid symptoms. It may be true that men would behave under a Socialist régime in the manner which its champions predict, and in which they must behave in order that it should succeed, but there is nothing whatever, either in our experience of human nature in the past, or in our observation of the human nature we see around us, to warrant us in expecting anything of the kind. Approached from the point of view from which we approach all the ordinary affairs of life, and examined under the same guidance, nearly all Socialist proposals appear to be the product of a disordered imagination. If the Socialists are sane, the rest of mankind is insane, or *vice versa*, and yet an immense body of people, all told, who are leading ordinary lives, are given up to this (apparent) delusion, and hold it with a certain morbid fierceness.

The Crusades, the extermination of the Albigenses, the wars of Edward III. with France, the French Revolution, and the recent sudden outbreak of war worship among ourselves, are all historical illustrations of the theory that large masses of men may be seized with mental disturbance, which, examined as individual aberrations are examined, yields undoubted proofs of what alienists call mania—such as expectation of things which there is no experiential ground for expecting, absence of that regard for consequences which is the leading regulator of individual conduct, great suspicion of the designs of some neighbor, great fear of stupendous and calamitous events, and great dislike of the ordinary pursuits of life, such as steady industry.

In the beginning of the Crusades, a movement in which whole nations took part, and mobs 600,000 strong started for the Holy Sepulchre, the mental condition of the crowd undoubtedly closely resembled that of our Jingoes. They had, in the first place, a "doctrine," and this doctrine forbade them to discuss the probability of success or the possible effect of their enterprise on their own lives or on their own country. In the second place, they suspected and hated every one who tried to dissuade them, as either "heretics" or "infidels," which was the mediæval equivalent for Mugwumps or Anglomaniacs. There is in Joinville an interesting account of the way in which the reign of reason began slowly to return among the Crusaders. The very first sign of it was a consideration of consequences, of what had happened *at home* after the first Crusades, and of what would probably happen after another one. This is, in both national and individual madness, the earliest sign of recovery. Joinville was urged to go on the second crusade. Says he:

"The King of France urged me strongly to go crusading and follow the road of the pilgrimage of the cross. But I answered him, that while I was abroad in the King's service, the King's officers had so levied on and oppressed my people that they were impoverished to such a degree that I did not think either they or I should ever recover from it. I saw clearly that if I went on another pilgrimage of the cross, it would be the total destruction of my poor subjects, and I have since heard many say that those who advised it did great wrong and committed mortal sin. As long as the King remained in France, all the kingdom lived in peace and justice reigned. But as soon as he went abroad, everything began to decline and run down."

Now Joinville, in refusing to go crusading for these reasons—that is, in order to prevent the impoverishment of his people and the desolation of his territory—was doing the exact thing which our Jingoes call "considering the pocket before patriotism." He was bound to crusade by the same order of considerations which bind us to fight for the Monroe Doctrine; and in sacrificing the Holy Sepulchre for a life of quiet peace and industry, he was giving up honor for comfort. But he was nevertheless recovering his sanity in the sense in which the word is used by mental pathologists.

It is impossible not to look on the sudden longing for war as a means of moral culture or amusement which has taken hold of large masses of people among us, as another remarkable outbreak of the same disease. War differs as an agency for the elevation of character from all other agencies for a similar end. Every other means of human culture is as permanent as the race itself—religion, science, art, literature, instruction, discovery, invention, social intercourse, trade, commerce, industry, family affection. Some of these things began their work as soon as man became self-conscious; all of them will continue their work as long as the globe lasts. War alone can do its beneficent work by fits and starts only, and at long intervals, and has to kill large bodies of the people it is trying to improve. There is no fact in human history better known than this. Every Jingo is perfectly aware that, owing to the enormous cost of war in life and treasure, no nation can use it for educational purposes for more than a year or two at a time; but somehow the fact does not make the least impression on him. He tells you that he feels a process of moral deterioration going on within him which nothing but war can arrest, and though he acknowledges that a very short period of war is all he can get, and that tens of thousands of men must die to give him a few months of elevation, he yearns for it just the same. Now, is there not in this a striking resemblance to that form of insanity known as alcoholism? The dipsomaniac knows his pleasure will be short, that the ultimate result will be frightful suffering, that some of the worst consequences will fall on his family; but none of these considerations turn him aside.

Another striking symptom is the disregard of human experience. No Jingo can point to any war which has had the result which he says his war is going to have. He has only to open the history of any of the great military nations to see what the ordinary results of war have been, in the following order: (1) great loss of life among the younger and more vigorous men; (2) tremendous destruction of property; (3) great disorder in the finances and currency; (4) wide diffusion of the spirit of speculation and aleatory gains, and distaste for steady industry among the population; (5) increased contempt for legality and for thinkers, writers, speakers, and for all scientific men, except inventors of explosives; (6) great increase of tramps and of crimes of violence; (7) greatly aggravated hatred for the particular people against whom the war has been waged, and great rejoicing over any calamity that may overtake them; (8) wide diffusion of the belief that a young man who wears a sabre and spurs all day, and passes his time training himself to fight, is a nobler young man than one who labors daily to increase the stock of human comfort, to advance the arts, and support helpless people.

These are among the most notorious facts, as we have said, of human experience. If total indifference to them be not a very important phenomenon for any one who is attempting a diagnosis of mental disease, whether in the public or the individual mind, then all the researches that have ever been made into the pathology of the brain are worthless. We may depend upon it that such manifestations as we are now witnessing in politics mean some lesion of the nervous system in the nature of an epidemic, and Crookes's tubes could not be better employed than in locating it.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION.

A LETTER written by the late Secretary Gresham on December 31, 1894, implies that he then expected that a permanent treaty of arbitration with Great Britain would be reduced to terms and be ready for ratification within six months of that time. As nothing came of it, we must conclude either that Great Britain declined to enter into it, or that the death of Mr. Gresham was followed by a change of policy, or that the matter became complicated with the Venezuelan boundary dispute and was therefore laid aside. If the Venezuelan question interfered, the untoward result may be chargeable to either side or to both. That must be left to conjecture, yet we can easily see how the most hopeful negotiations may have been brought to a standstill if it were sought to bring in other countries which were not parties to the negotiation.

Whatever may have caused the suspension or failure of the plan which Secretary Gresham had on foot, and notwithstanding the Venezuelan difficulty, we are convinced that there never was a time when both countries were better disposed to such a treaty than now. Certainly there

never was a time when so much popular interest was felt in it on this side of the water as now, and, apart from the Venezuelan dispute, we do not believe that any ministry in England could long sustain itself if it should refuse to enter into such a treaty on fair terms. Arbitration cannot deal with all the questions that may arise between nations. One nation may claim the hitherto undisputed territory of another, or may make a demand inconsistent with the other's sovereignty. For such cases there must be reservations. The Pan-American conference reserved all cases where, in the judgment of the country concerned, its independence was at stake. In order to give the principle of arbitration a fair start it would probably be necessary to name distinctly the class of questions which the two Powers concerned would agree to submit to such a tribunal, leaving them free to deal with other cases as they should see fit at the time when they arise. It would probably be found in practice that no questions could arise which would not be susceptible of such treatment, and which the public opinion of the two countries would not insist upon referring to impartial judges, rather than go to war over them.

The last arbitration we had—the one on the Bering Sea question—was hinted at by Lord Salisbury in his dispatch on the Venezuelan boundary in a tone which implied that he had not much faith in arbitration anyway. He said that, after its decisions were made, the execution of them was not exempt from difficulty; referring, no doubt, to the refusal of our Congress to appropriate the sum of $450,000 to pay the damages agreed upon by Secretary Gresham. This was not a good argument against arbitration, even in that particular case. The Paris tribunal did not fix any sum to be paid as damages. It did provide a means of determining the sum in case the two governments could not agree upon the amount. By the two governments is meant, of course, the branches of government in each whose concurrence is necessary. One of these was our Congress, which refused, as it had a right to do, to adopt the short path to a final settlement which was recommended by our own Department of State. If Congress should further refuse to pay the money for the final award, then the nation would be deeply humiliated, and the cause of arbitration might be properly made a butt of ridicule by anybody.

It may be said that it is not a propitious time for bringing up the question of an arbitration treaty with Great Britain when the relations of the two countries are strained as they are now. On the contrary, we think that this is the best of all times, when the eyes of the people on both sides of the water have had a glimpse of the awful chances of war. The losses caused by the mere penumbra of that calamity have amounted to an incalculable sum—more, probably, than was bid for Government bonds at the sale last week. The anxious days and sleepless nights that men have passed since that dreadful pall fell upon us, have quickened the consciences of men, and have aroused the better classes of society and of the press, the clergy, and all God-fearing men and women, to a more active interest in public affairs than they have taken in many years. They have seen on what a slender thread hang the most momentous issues, and how a few reckless words may set the country on fire without any respectable reason, and perhaps without the intention of the person uttering them. What has happened once may happen again. The circumstances the next time may be less favorable to composition or pacification. Therefore no time should be lost in putting the relations of the two countries on a better basis if one can be found. The common opinion on both sides of the water is that a better basis may be found in a permanent treaty of arbitration.

The opponents of such a treaty tell us that the difficulties in the way of negotiating it are so great that in a majority of cases war would probably be a preferable solution. The answer is that the latter solution is always open. International arbitration cannot prevent a nation from fighting if it really wants to. It only diminishes the chances of war. Its great merit lies in the fact that it gives time for thought and discussion, which in most cases is all that is needed to bring about a pacific solution. It gives "the whip hand" to the sober-minded classes. It puts a new obstacle in the pathway of Jingoes, demagogues, and madmen. In any given case it starts a discussion of the question whether the difficulty in hand is a suitable one for arbitration, and whether it falls within the established rules or not. In most cases it would be found perfectly adapted to such treatment, and in all doubtful cases it would give the advantage to the friends of peace by establishing a national habit of mind in favor of arbitration. While not absolutely interdicting war, it would put greater responsibilities on any country resorting to it, and this would of course diminish the chances of war.

We trust that the movement so auspiciously begun in this country may be earnestly and systematically pushed till we have a society for the promotion of international arbitration in every county in the United States intent upon realizing what Mr. Blaine, in the Pan-American Congress, called "the new Magna Charta, which abolishes war and substitutes arbitration between the American republics"—a condition which is equally fitted for all nations, and is desirable exactly in proportion to their powers of destruction.

THE GERMAN QUARTER-CENTENNIAL.

BERLIN, January 20, 1896.

THE imperial capital has just been celebrating on a grand scale, with parades, illuminations, religious exercises, and speech-making, what the German nation very properly regards as its twenty-fifth birthday. It was on the 18th of January, 1871, that the King of Prussia, through a proclamation read by Bismarck to a company of men assembled in the Hall of Mirrors at Versailles, formally assumed the imperial title, pledging himself "to protect the rights of the Empire and of its members, to guard the peace and independence of Germany, and to strengthen the strength of the people"; and praying devoutly that he and his successors might be "at all times increasers of the Empire, not by military conquests, but by the goods and gifts of peace, in the domain of national prosperity, freedom, and morality." At that time there was much doubt, both in Germany and outside of it, as to the durability of the structure thus ideally called into being. The memory of the old Empire, the long history of impotent disunion, the fiasco of 1848, the well-known prejudices of the South Germans, all seemed to bode ill for the future of a federal state under Prussian hegemony. But it was even as Friedrich Wilhelm IV. had prophesied and Bismarck had foreseen: blood and iron—Sadowa and Sedan—had done the work. The problem of federal consolidation, which a few years before would have been endlessly difficult, had become so easy that the history of it forms perhaps the least interesting chapter in the annals of the New Empire.

To-day, whatever one may think of the present status of European politics, and of Germany's share in bringing it about and maintaining it, the founding of the Empire stands out clearly as the most momentous political event of the century. Even Waterloo must yield to it in far-reaching importance and in dramatic interest. In creating a powerful and united Germany, with Bismarck for a Chancellor, it shifted the political centre of gravity and led to a new grouping of forces. At the same time it profoundly affected the national character of the Germans themselves. It brought them under the sway of a powerful sentiment to which they had long been unused, save as something to dream of and write verses about. It turned their energies and aspirations in a new direction, opened fresh avenues for their industry and art, and furnished new criteria for judging both present and past. No wonder, then, that the recent jubilee filled them with enthusiasm.

I shall not write of the celebration itself further than to say that it was sufficiently interesting in spite of bad weather and the absence of Bismarck. My purpose is rather to comment briefly upon the span of history which closed on Saturday. The view-point is that of an American scholar who has a warm regard for the German people, but stands aloof from their partisan politics.

The proclamation of 1871 professed to restore a name and dignity that had existed before. In fact, however, there was to be little resemblance between the new fabric and the one which had fallen to pieces in 1806; and, as if to dispel illusions on this subject, the first serious problem of the "German" Empire was to make clear that it would be neither "holy" nor "Roman." The *Kulturkampf* probably settled that question for good, in spite of the subsequent relaxation of the Falk laws. There was no surrender in essentials. The new government had shown its will and its power, but it had also discovered that the clericals were too strong to be kept safely in a state of chronic exacerbation against the Empire. And really it is one thing to "go to Canossa" as the foun-

tain head of all authority, and quite another to keep Canossa in sight as a quarter whence votes may be had in a parliamentary exigency. Imperial statesmanship will yet have to learn the same lesson with respect to the Social Democrats.

Aside from the *Kulturkampf*, the history of the New Empire is most instructive along the lines of its military policy, its attempts to deal with socialism, and its measures of internal consolidation. In this last direction a remarkable success has been achieved. To an American or an Englishman, accustomed to see the political situation dominated by the one or the other of two great parties, the constitution of the German Reichstag, representing, as it now does, no less than fourteen different parties, with contingents ranging from one to ninety-five votes, is apt to suggest a dangerous incohesiveness. And yet I venture to express with some confidence the opinion that the federal sentiment is to-day as strong throughout Germany as in the United States. Jealousy of Prussia, the danger most dreaded in the early days, still exists to a degree in the South and Middle German States, but it cuts no figure as an element of disunion; is in fact less ominous than our own well-known sectional antipathies. The military successes of Prussia, the elimination of Austrian intrigue, the mingling of North and South German blood upon the battlefield, the conciliatory attitude of Prussian statesmen in reference to federal representation and reserved rights—all tended from the outset to disarm suspicion and spread the feeling that Prussia deserved her primacy, and would use it not to overreach her sister states but to bind them together for mutual benefit and safety. Even the decisive vote of 1877 in favor of Leipzig as the seat of the Imperial Chamber of Justice was directed not so much against Prussia as against Berlin. Other centrifugal forces of a sectional character are, in a broad view of the matter, hardly worth considering. The "Polish" faction in the Reichstag has averaged pretty steadily about sixteen votes and now stands at nineteen. The "Alsatian" contingent remained constant at fifteen down to 1890, when it dropped to ten. It now stands at eight; that is, the time has already come when the representatives of the annexed provinces are no longer as a matter of course "Alsatians."

The real Alsatian danger proceeds, as is well known, from another quarter, namely, from France. Was it then a mistake to annex Alsace and Lorraine in 1871? It seemed to many at the time, and no doubt many still think, that for once Bismarck was short-sighted in urging this particular demand at the peace of Frankfort. The argument was that the Germanization of the provinces after their two centuries of French allegiance would be a slow and difficult task, which in the end could bring little strength to the Empire and would meanwhile furnish French "patriotism" with a standing pretext for war. It seemed to cast doubt from the start upon the sincerity of Bismarck's vaunted peace policy that he should deliberately put his countrymen in a position which would require them to keep saying constantly (the present Emperor has lately been saying it again): "We want peace, but we will defend to the last man what our swords have won." Was it not an occasion for the waiving of ancient historical claims, or at least for letting the people of the two provinces decide for themselves to whom they would belong, even if it thus became necesary to draw entirely new boundary lines?

To an outsider, especially to an American, this might seem to have been the just and also the politic view of the matter; but there is another view which is taken by the great mass of the German people. They believe that they must be prepared to fight the French *any way*. It was a home-thrust of Bismarck when he drew attention to the fact that within 200 years French armies had invaded Germany thirty-five times. This showed that, *with* Alsace and Lorraine, a pretext for war upon Germany had never been wanting to the French kings; and the cries of "Revenge for Sadowa," in 1866, and "On to Berlin," in 1870, demonstrated the same important fact for the French populace. The Iron Chancellor foresaw that, make what terms he might, Germany would have to face continually the danger of a French war of revenge, if not for Alsace and Lorraine, then for the milliards, for the bombardment of Paris, for anything or for nothing. And this danger would not be lessened, but rather increased, by the establishment of the republic. The nobler spirits of France might be touched by the memory of generous treatment at the hands of a conqueror who had them in his power; but the nobler spirits of a nation seldom determine its war policy, and there was no counting either upon a long memory or upon a high degree of chivalrous susceptibility in the Parisian populace. Add to this that the historical claim of Germany to Alsace and Lorraine is perfectly sound if you only go back far enough, and consider also the immense strategic importance that could be given to Metz and Strassburg in the event of another war, and we have justification enough, from the German point of view, for the drastic policy which was adopted. And the Germans believe that this kind of peace policy has vindicated itself after a trial of twenty-five years; in proof whereof they refer to the Boulanger scare of 1886–7, and the promptness with which it subsided after the overwhelming vote in favor of the septennate by the newly elected Reichstag in the spring of 1887. The only way we can keep France from our throats, they say, is to be ready for her and to let her know that we are ready for her.

Speaking as a humane idealist, to whom war is savagery, militarism calamitous folly, and Jingoism the abomination of desolation, I confess with pain that, in the present stage of civilization, this seems to me also the only safe course for the Germans. One may pine for better days, but one must not blink the facts; and for Germany the most momentous of all facts is the danger to which it is exposed from its neighbors, but especially from France. It has had experience of the weakness of disunion, and out of that experience grew the New Empire. Centuries of invasion and devastation by hostile armies, of impoverishment, insult, humiliation, self-contempt—all this, and not the illusion of military glory, formed the real soil from which grew that intense desire for national unity which carried everything before it twenty-five years ago. No doubt some were captivated by the glamour of the mediæval empire; and no doubt militarism has begotten a class—not all of them Prussian officers, either—to whom the rôle of bully would be acceptable for its own sake. But these persons are in a refreshing minority; what the great majority of Germans want is to be let alone. They have had more of war at home than any other great civilized nation, with the possible exception of Italy, and in consequence are less open to illusions on the subject. There are Jingoes among them, but their warriors of mouth and pen are less numerous and less hysterical than in France, England, or—alas that it should be so!—the United States of America.

During the past few months I have read a pretty large amount of jubilee literature in books and pamphlets and in newspapers of every shade, and I can testify to the moderation that has pervaded it. Very little of bellicose mouthing has come to my attention. Everywhere prominence is given to the fact that peace, the peace of Germany and of Europe, has been from the first the great aim of imperial statesmanship. The Germans believe heartily in the candor of Bismarck's peace policy and in the pacific intentions of the present Emperor. Even during the recent Transvaal excitement they kept their heads remarkably well. There were fire-eaters here and there, but the prevailing tone was one of satirical amusement at the bad logic of the English press. For, they said, the British Government itself repudiates Dr. Jameson as a lawless invader; how, then, can the Emperor's telegram be reasonably construed as an act of hostility to Great Britain? And is there not a measure of sanity in this view of the matter?

But if the Germans want peace, they also believe that an iron necessity requires them to be prepared for war, and that their army is their only sure guarantee of safety. In respect to this subject the Emperor fairly represents an overwhelming majority of the people, although there are, of course, wide differences of opinion as to how much is the least that will suffice. This accounts for the hostile attitude of the Government towards the Social Democracy, and for the wildly absurd proposal of last year to disturb the boasted *Lehrfreiheit* of the German universities. Official circles would not so dread the ventilation of radical ideas concerning the "sacred foundations" of society if they did not fear that the gradual spread of socialistic doctrines would presently undermine the bulwark of national defence. And this fear is well grounded, if we accept as a finality the doctrine that the bigger your army and navy are, the less is the likelihood that you will have to use it. For of late the Socialists have been turning their guns more and more upon militarism, which they characterize as the systematic fleecing of the workingman in the interest of a soldier class. They are about right. Whatever we may think of their Utopian programme in general, we must give them credit for the sagacity of this particular discovery; and so it is hardly too much to say that international socialism is at present about the most promising influence that is making for the disarmament of Europe. If the time shall come—and the thing does not appear unthinkable—when capable representatives of real workingmen, with their minds cleared of cant and chimeras, shall meet in international congresses for the calm discussion of their own interests, the idea can hardly fail to gain ground that those interests are in no way subserved either by war or by the maintenance of enormous armies and navies.

What, then, is the plain lesson of experience for the New Empire with regard to the Social Democrats? It is that they are not to be put down by the sop-to-Cerberus method, and still less by persecution. Their contingent in the Reichstag has steadily risen from nine in 1874 to forty-five in 1893, and it is not unlikely that the Emperor's recent passionate deliverance against them may net them a few more seats at the next election. They thrive best under the operation of laws specially aimed at their particular propaganda. This, if nothing else, should suggest that it will not do, in a country where men are to vote at all, to treat a large

body of voters as enemies of the country and "without a fatherland," because of opinions which they honestly hold respecting the sanctity of existing social and economic arrangements. Their propaganda must be met with argument, and not with force, or blind denunciation, or annoying police intervention. The foolish muzzling of the press and abolition of unions must cease. The Socialists must be recognized as a legitimate party, having the same right to its opinions that other parties have. In other words, the party must be made respectable by being treated as if it were respectable. With increased prestige will come a heightened sense of responsibility, a better leadership, and a keener sense for the practicable in legislation. It is a matter of general experience that nothing tames a radical like responsibility.

But, above all, as the best means of meeting the Socialists, and for other and broader reasons, imperial statesmanship should begin to use its influence for the mitigation of the disgraceful condition of affairs in which Europe is now living. Granted that Germany cannot disarm alone, and cannot disarm first; still, it can show a little more unequivocally that it desires peace, and only peace, and it can exert itself by diplomatic means for a general reduction of the peace footing of European armies. It can make a little less conspicuous its reliance upon force and the show of force. It can take a firm stand for international arbitration. It can work for the extension of the Triple Alliance to a general European alliance for the preservation of peace on the basis of the *status quo*. It has shown that it is not afraid, and that it can take care of itself, and has made a winged word out of Bismarck's famous saying in his great speech of 1888: "We Germans fear God and nothing else in the world." This was not a bad motto for the Empire in the first quarter-century of its existence: but a better one for the second would be: "We Germans fear God alone, and the God that we fear is the God of humanity."

CALVIN THOMAS.

THE EASTERN QUESTION IN CRETE.

BOSTON, January 20, 1896.

AT the partition of the Eastern Empire, Crete fell to Boniface of Montferrat, who sold it to Venice; and from Venice, after twenty-four years of bitter resistance, in 1669, the Turks wrested it. Under the Turk its fortunes have been varied, but they have always been stormy and the state of things unsettled. The Venetians left some accounts of their rapacity in Crete, and an English adventurer of the seventeenth century had a stirring experience there. In the eighteenth we hear little about the island. There was a great insurrection in 1821, lasting some years; in 1830, France, England, and Russia intervened to place Crete under the rule of Mehemet Ali, viceroy of Egypt. In 1840, back it went to the Sultan. Heralded in 1859 by a slight revolt, in 1866 began the great revolution which lasted three years and exhausted both parties. For this struggle, the book of Mr. Stillman, then American consul, is the authority. In it and in a little Greek volume, 'Outrages in Crete in the Year 1867,' by an English volunteer, Mr. Hilary Skinner, you may read stories like those of Armenia—the usual incidents of Turkish warfare; insult, rape, and massacre. In 1870 a new era began. Pressure from the Powers, and the narrow escape from losing Crete entirely, compelled the Porte to reforms which have resulted in a kind of constitution, the appointment of Greek governors over Greek districts, etc. Notwithstanding, there have been occasional risings—in 1889, in particular, a rather threatening *émeute;* and these, I believe, are likely to continue.

So much of history seems necessary for an understanding of the present condition of things, and, brief as this sketch is, it contains nearly all the characteristic history of the isle—a record of changing masters and of steady opposition by the subjects. The various foreign masters have conquered, but the islanders have never submitted. The physical character of the place has much to do with this. Three great mountain ranges form the backbone of the island, and in a length of 160 miles there is only one plain of any extent. Mountains and their ready refuge; the proved courage, world-wide, of mountaineers; the very isolation—assist the struggle. Crete is hard to conquer, hard to keep.

The traveller from Europe meets at Candia the old order. A steamer bears him there, but, on landing, he enters a life framed in an Old-World walled city, innocent of this era and of modern improvements. The population is two-thirds Mohammedan, but the Greek third is a select body, the best of the isle. In a sense, the Greeks are the masters of affairs, the merchants, landholders, physicians of the town. Politically it is another thing. The Greeks are energetic and prosperous; the Turk is willing enough to have his work done for him. Many of the Greeks are graduates of the fine university at Athens; some, of the European universities; and all, eager for progress with the intellectual keenness of their race. Numerically a small body, they are the real *citizens* of the town, their influence preponderating in nearly every way. All that may be called "society" is Greek. To this element, continually restless and progressive, is opposed the sluggish, unyielding mass of Turkish population, with its leaders of the official class, Mussulmans from various parts of the empire who are billeted in Crete. The Greeks are, in all respects, European, western, in education, life (so far as is possible), religion, aims. Their intellectual outlook is westward; Islam faces for ever to the East. Such facts as follow may show how it happens that a Christian population can never dwell in peace with a Mohammedan, most of all if the latter, whose creed knows no tolerance, is in the saddle. A Turk may come to your house, may see your wife and family. His wife you may not even allude to; and while she is within, you cannot step across his threshold. Your Sunday is on the first day of the week; his is on the sixth. All the progress and history of Europe is your heritage; he remembers the day when his armies beat at the gates of Vienna—the day when the Sultan lost the fair province of Greece. The whole harem system, with its seclusion of women, makes any fusion of sects or mutual sympathy impossible. By the Turks themselves it is even felt to be a burden; in Crete the rule is, one wife. To maintain the lawful four wives and attendants almost implies a city house and a large income. In the country, where the Turkish peasants have to work, both sexes in the fields together, any real seclusion of women is impracticable. They have had to compromise. Before men of the same village women do not veil themselves, but only on the approach of a stranger.

The life of the Greek women is still more constrained. Those of the upper class rarely step upon the street. On winter evenings they are taken to the performances at the Greek theatre; in summer, to a small esplanade to hear the garrison band play. In the early morning, while the streets are empty, they attend church. Veiled Turkish women throng the bazaars, but I remember the sensation caused by the appearance, one day, of a lady in European dress in the square. It was the wife of the Austrian consul. Two facts of daily life connote much in this connection. The ladies never go to walk because of the risk of insulting remarks by passing soldiers; at the theatre they never enter the body of the house, to which Turks of the upper class resort, but sit alone in a gallery. The monotony of their life is appalling. Their recreations are domestic only, and the years pass away in trifling pleasures, in the absence of all that is considered indispensable by the modern woman in free lands.

In the country the proportion of the races changes, and the Greek is vastly in the majority. In Crete the real Oriental Turk sticks to the cities; the country Turk is nearly always the descendant of Greek renegades, Oriental only in his creed. Ethnically the eparchies or districts are checkered by villages of the two religions. Some are wholly appropriated by one party; others contain distinct settlements of both. Rarely a Turk lives in a Greek village; but the converse, I believe, never happens.

The life of the Cretan peasant is civilization at its lowest degree. To strike the average, I take a typical family. The village, say, is situated inland twenty miles from the city. There are no roads. All communication must be by horse or donkey over a rough trail. If it is near the shire town of the eparchy, our village will receive a weekly mail brought from the city by a mounted soldier. But this service is liable to frequent interruption, and, in time of trouble, is remitted entirely. The village itself is built of stone, uncemented and unplastered, the interiors with dirt floors and unglazed windows: in short, it consists of rude, smoky, dim hovels alive with vermin. In most houses there is no bed. A low platform of masonry and coverings of dirty rugs serve. The occupants sleep in their clothes, and personal cleanliness is disregarded. Our typical family rise at four daily, and go out to the fields at some distance from the village to care for the vineyard, the olive grove, or the barley-field. By these they live. Their food is black bread, olives, vegetables, wine, coffee. At night the lamp is a wick flickering and smoking in a cup of oil. Pleasures there are none. Perhaps the place has its school. Out of their scanty store the folk support what they call a "Hellenic school"; *i. e.*, one where elements of ancient and pure modern Greek are taught. The Government discourages but does not positively forbid such schools, but the text-books have to be smuggled in from Athens.

The effect of religion on a people is apt to tally with the character of the clergy. Apart from the cities, the Greek Church in Crete does not appear to advantage. The bishops and higher clergy are men of sanctity and learning. With the exception of an hereditary hatred of Rome, their views are broad and liberal. Throughout the country the priests are of the peasant class, illiterate, dirty, and unrespected. Some are even criminals who have taken sanctuary in the profession. Others deal openly in magic. Churches are very common in the country-side. Every mountain-top and desert-place has its shrine, built ages ago, and often opened only on the saint's anniversary. The village churches are built afield, usually at some distance. Services are held before sunrise. The men seldom go; the

women, as the world over, are regular attendants. There are no seats and no preaching. The service is a mumbled ritual, lasting but a few minutes. Religious teaching and its effect on character, the doctrine of good works, the ethical value of the Christian faith, are unreflected in the lives of the peasantry. The Greek mind has been and is practical and unemotional with respect to religion. This appears in the Greek rite, which, although highly ritualistic in many ways, is yet, as compared with the Roman, austere and Puritan. The Greek attitude is distinctly intellectual, unmoral. The real value of the Church to the people has been ethnical—to unite the race in a solid front against the Turk. In actual fighting, the priests have often held command; and the cross, in default of a country and a flag, has been the symbol to rally under.

The resultant character of the peasantry is better than the environment. The Cretan virtues are courage, intelligence, hospitality; the defects—superstition, hard-heartedness, and an ineradicable lust for blood. In a life of misery and uncertainty men grow callous, lack sympathy for others, and do not expect it for themselves. For centuries the people of Crete have lived under oppressive and despotic aliens. Masters not of their choosing have been forced upon them, and, although the Venetians were hard drivers, the latest comer has been the worst. At no period has the tenure of life been secure. Every passer upon the road might prove an enemy. The mountains and Turkish justice are lenient to the murderer. Like all southern races, the Cretans are quick to anger; the knife flashes close upon the word. Their antecedents have made them fighters. Male children are ardently desired by parents, not so much as bread-winners as defenders of the cause. The skirmish is the only excitement. The extraordinary value attached to the name palikári, "fighting-man," and the habit of bearing arms, are significant. We have the middle ages here. Accustomed to frequent uprisings and the sacking of his home, the peasant does not care for improvement. Men and women move in a sad world—where there is no hope and no great desire for life; their courage is partly that of indifference and despair. In the case of the Sphakiote, the western mountaineer, into whose precipitous province no Turkish army has ever forged, it becomes aggressive and picturesque. "Sphakiote," as an epithet in Crete, is almost as great a compliment as "palikári."

The trade of the island to-day is trifling, and consists chiefly in the exportation of crude olive-oil to Italy and England. The imports are from Trieste, a traffic built up and maintained by the Austrian Lloyd Company. Under good management Crete could become the most prosperous of the Greek islands, being especially adapted to vine-culture, and, indeed, famous so recently as Shakspere's time for the Malmsey wine. As yet the phylloxera has given little trouble. Improvements that are of prime necessity are a system of roads, the dredging of the harbors, regular mail-service, and a railway inland. At present, steamers cannot enter the haven at Candia, and whenever the wind blows hard from the north, as it does pretty regularly in winter, they cannot even anchor off the port. At Canéa, the small political capital at the western end of Crete, the Bay of Suda creates a natural harbor. Consequently the Canéa mail is landed with regularity, but letters for Candia, for lack of roads, cannot be brought overland. Thus the largest city of Crete and centre of commerce, although but thirty-six hours from the Piræus, is often without a mail for seventeen or eighteen days. Post-offices are maintained both by the Government and by the Austrian Company; at each office only one clerk distributes the mail of 24,000 people. The Eastern Cable Company has a station at Candia, but no messages may be in cipher or in terms unintelligible to the Turkish censor. Canéa and Candia each issue fortnightly a tiny Greek newspaper, rigidly muzzled by the authorities, a mere straining of expurgated news. Newspapers from abroad and books, even school-books, are nominally contraband: but they usually make their way through the mails.

None of these things can be bettered until security of life and property is established. Revolutions and disturbances occurring every few years preclude any material advancement. The rising of 1889, as described to me by many participants, is a type of these affairs. Precipitated largely by the jealousies of local politics, the Turks, however, soon turned it into a race quarrel. Men were found murdered in the fields about the city, and reprisals by both parties immediately began. On the outgoing steamers the Greeks of the upper class hurried their wives and daughters off to Athens for safety. All shops conducted by them, with the exception of one, were closed, and street fighting was of daily occurrence. Under the flags of the consuls hundreds of women and children took shelter. The principal nations of Europe, much to the Turks' disgust, are represented in Candia, nearly all the consuls being Greek. For the moment these are the only persons secure in the city. As a result, consulships are eagerly sought, but they are obtained only after great difficulties. The present representative of Spain waited eight years for recognition, and the accomplished gentleman appointed two years ago as the representative of the United States, at this writing has not received his exequatur. In spite of consuls, in 1889 no European was safe on the street. An Italian from a ship in port, strolling up town, was shot at sight by a passing Turk. An indemnity was paid to Italy, the murderer sent to the Turkish prison in Rhodes, and pardoned out at the next celebration of the Sultan's birthday. *Ex uno disce omnes!*

In this difficulty the Government troops, for the first time, took no open part. A mob of lower-class Turks, armed surreptitiously with military rifles, controlled the city and even sallied out to attack the fine Greek village of Arkhánis, nine miles away. After some sharp fighting they were repulsed. Meanwhile, the influential Greeks were haggling at Constantinople, a new Pasha was set over the island, and a kind of truce was arranged. It is all quite conventional in Crete. A few villages sacked, much rape and bloodshed, appeals to the Porte, indemnities and reforms promised, and life goes on as before.

In February, 1894, the Government, for the first time since 1866, decided to execute some of the murderers with whom the jails were crowded. And so, one night, five criminals—picked apparently at random, except that four were Christian and one Ottoman—were taken out and hung in the midnight hours. At Candia, only one of the five suffered—the gallows being a tree in the central square, where all must pass on their business; and here, in the morning, the astounded and enraged Greeks found their countryman swinging, without any mitigating circumstance of black cap, his sentence in Greek and Turkish pinned upon his breast. When this came to the ears of the country, there was great excitement. Within a week the bodies of three Turks were found murdered by the wayside, and once more the account was squared.

Turkey will never willingly let Crete go. Pride and policy, the clinging of the "Sick Man" to his diminishing dominions, forbid that. Since 1889 he has also strengthened his hold by erecting barracks in each province and a military telegraph, the use of which is practically prohibited in Greek districts, since all messages must be in Turkish. The island is heavily garrisoned by about eighteen thousand troops, including regulars and the local forces of gendarmes. A party in Crete, moved by the fine things done by England for Cyprus, are all for English occupation; another goes so far as to prefer the Turk to the Englishman. "Once here," they reason, "England will improve, develop, fortify; but she will never loose her grasp." And yet they might remember the Ionian Isles. The great majority are for Greece, as Greece is for Crete, although aware of the present impossibility of their desire. "Greece wants Crete but cannot get her," a Cretan said to me on the steamer, and it is the keynote of the situation. "Manifest destiny," to use a phrase of the politicians, points to the union of two peoples alike in race, religion, and speech, still more closely bound by a common experience of Turkish oppression; and to the revived glories of the Byzantine Empire, the "great idea" in which all good Greeks live, Crete as well as Constantinople will be indispensable. As the case stands, a European war and the dismemberment of Turkey, so likely to follow, is the hope of the island. While Europe hesitates and wavers at the frontiers, Crete awaits her hour.

JOHN ALDEN.

Correspondence.

THE RECOGNITION OF CUBA: GRANT'S PRECEDENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: No doubt a great pressure is being brought to bear upon President Cleveland to make him take strong action regarding the Cuban revolution. The great sympathy of our people with the Cubans who desire independence forms the groundwork for this pressure. But as to what the President should do there is considerable difference of opinion. Some friends of the Cubans propose the recognition of belligerency only, others insist on recognizing at once the independence of the revolutionary Government, the seat of which appears to be at present in the city of New York. Some go so far as to advocate immediate annexation, whether the Cubans wish it or not.

The action of President Grant in 1875 in regard to Cuban troubles is frequently referred to as a correct precedent, which President Cleveland should take for an example. Surely those who thus point to it must be little acquainted with its history. It may not be without interest to make a brief review of the proceedings at the time regarding events in the island of Cuba; and in the first place it may be as well to compare the situation then and the condition of things now. The Cuban revolt at the time Grant brought the matter before Congress (December, 1874) had lasted nearly seven years, during which time Spain had acted very provokingly, had confiscated property of inoffensive American citizens, had arrested American

citizens suspected as filibusters, had tried them by court-martial and had shot them. Both parties, Spaniards and Cubans, had carried on the war most cruelly, and had laid waste great parts of the beautiful island. The struggle is now carried on in about the same way. Martinez de Campos was then, and was until a short time ago, the commander of the Spanish forces. But the present outbreak is not quite one year old, and the chances of success are quite uncertain as yet, the bulletins of both parties deserving but slight credence.

Now as to the facts of the case as they transpired in 1875 and 1876. In his message President Grant briefly stated his views of the question of Cuba, transmitting at the same time a dispatch to the Spanish Government written by Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State, a copy of which (as stated in the dispatch) was also sent to the principal European Powers, inviting them to coöperate with the United States in putting an end to the cruel war then raging in the island of Cuba. The message and dispatch were rather coolly received, particularly on account of the invitation to foreign Powers to join the United States in an intervention in the war between Spain and the Cubans. This request was considered as against our well-established principle to keep aloof from foreign alliances. Secretary Fish appeared before the committee on foreign relations of the House of Representatives to explain his dispatch. The newspapers at the time published substantially the dispatch itself. It alleged that the insurrection in Cuba had lasted some seven years; that Spain had been entirely unable to suppress it; that the President was convinced that the final issue would be to break up the bonds which attached the Cuban colony to Spain (this view of the case was in various ways repeated over and over again in the dispatch); that the American people naturally deeply sympathized with the Cuban people, who desired independence; that no effective steps had been taken to reform abuses; that material interests of trade and commerce of the United States in the meantime had been impaired to a degree which called for remonstrance, if not for another line of conduct, on the part of all commercial nations; that the United States were the principal customers for Cuban products, and therefore more interested in arresting the wanton destruction of property; that it had become a serious question how long this condition of things should be allowed to exist, and whether the point had not been reached when longer endurance would be impossible; that in the opinion of the President the time had arrived when the interests of this country demanded the speedy and satisfactory end of the strife which was devastating Cuba; that a disastrous conflict of more than seven years' duration had demonstrated the inability of Spain to maintain peace on an island lying at our door. The dispatch then referred particularly to the celebrated case of the *Virginius*, which, while professedly sailing under American colors, was seized by the Spaniards; American citizens being taken out and shot by judgment of a court martial. The President hopes (continued the dispatch) that Spain will spontaneously adopt measures looking to a reconciliation and speedy restoration of peace; but, in the absence of any prospect of a termination of the war or any change in the manner in which it has been conducted on either side, he feels that the time is at hand when it may be the duty of other governments to intervene. He had accordingly submitted the subject in this light to the consideration of Congress.

Secretary Fish further stated to the committee that the foreign Powers had been invited to exercise only their moral influence to settle the troubles in Cuba as soon as possible. At the same time the Secretary said the foreign Powers had been assured that nothing was further from the President than the idea of an annexation of Cuba, as the President believed that such annexation would have a very injurious effect on his own country; that the foreign Powers had received the request of the United States kindly, and had promised their moral support, except Austria, which had declined any sort of interference.

Spain did not long delay an answer to Mr. Fish's dispatch to Gen. Cushing, our Minister at Madrid. This answer appears only in the journals of that day. It would seem that neither the dispatch nor the reply was ever published in the diplomatic correspondence of our State Department. Mr. Fish is reported to have stated to the committee that Spain had replied in a manner "quite inoffensive." The language may have been very polite, but, if the papers give the reply correctly, it was really a sharp one. It set out with the allegation that the statement in Mr. Fish's dispatch, that material interests as to trade and commerce had been so impaired as to call for remonstrance if not for another line of conduct, was not founded on fact; that, on the contrary, the trade with Cuba, as concerned both imports and exports, had, since the insurrection, not decreased, but greatly increased, thus striking at the very basis of the principal complaint of the United States. (This fact, as stated by Spain, was admitted by some of our leading commercial papers.) The reply is said to have further alleged that Spain had tried to satisfy all just demands that had been made by people who had suffered from the disturbances in Cuba; that the *Virginius* incident had been already amicably settled; that no important question was pending between the two countries, and that therefore the action of the President was wholly inexplicable; that the insurrection was confined to the mountainous regions of the island, which were almost inaccessible, sterile, and without any commerce; that but for the sympathy shown by the American people and the active help which the insurgents had received from North American filibusters, peace would long ago have been restored; that Spain would, however, make every effort to pacify the country.

Here the matter appears to have been quietly dropped. Martinez de Campos not long afterwards succeeded in settling the seven years' struggle. It would seem, then, that President Grant's intervention was not a success, and certainly in many respects cannot be commended as a precedent to President Cleveland. It is well known that the latter some time ago expressed his opinion that the recognition of the insurgents as a belligerent Power would be of no benefit to the Cubans or to our country. We have every confidence that the President will carefully consider the question of recognition, for, should he decide in favor of independence, it would, if Spain felt herself strong enough, be certainly followed by a declaration of war. G. K.

BALTIMORE UP TO DATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Something may be allowed for the time which evidently elapsed between the writing of Mr. Stephen Bonsal's article on "New Baltimore" and its appearance in the February issue of *Harper's Magazine*. This will account for the reference to the old court-house as still standing, and to the long term of office of our late Mayor as still continuing. It will not account, however, for the negro hackmen and policemen whom the writer has been able to discover at the Camden station of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, nor for some of his statements regarding several of our institutions. I read twice the account of the library with which I am connected, to be sure that the writer was not intending to be humorous. The beautiful picture of the 400,000 books to which "the readers of Baltimore have had access" for "seven years," and of the "supply wagons" of the library "dashing through the streets of Baltimore, like express wagons during the Christmas season," is very effective, but it is not quite accurate. We have not, and never have had, any "supply wagons"; consequently, there is no danger that any citizen will be run over by these wagons "dashing through the streets." We have bought books more rapidly than any other public circulating library in the world, to the best of my knowledge; but although we have collected them and circulated them for *ten* instead of "seven" years, we possess only about 165,000 volumes instead of 400,000. Mr. Pratt's gift to the city was made *fourteen* and not "some ten years ago."—Yours respectfully,

Bernard C. Steiner.

The Enoch Pratt Free Library
of Baltimore City, January 23, 1896.

THE NEED OF A NEW REVIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to call attention to the fact that the new *American Historical Review* has already been obliged to print a second edition of its initial number. Before it was issued, one of its most sanguine promoters said it was hoped that in two years a subscription-list of one thousand might possibly be secured. Evidently, the willingness of the American people to support what is clearly shown to be the best of its kind was as much underestimated as was its willingness to subscribe for Government bonds last year.

If such men as Profs. Lounsbury, Shorey, Kittredge, Woodberry, Gayley, Marsh, Winchester, and others would but formulate a plan for an "Inter-University Review of Literature," the money to guarantee it for a few years would easily be found, and within that time its proper *clientèle* would gather to its support as soon as it showed its claim upon them. Wm. C. Lawton.

Adelphi Academy, Brooklyn, February 9, 1896.

Notes.

It is announced that the Dunlap Society of this city has been reorganized under the presidency of Douglas Taylor. The treasurer is Daniel Frohman, and the secretary Evert Jansen Wendell, No. 8 East Thirty-eighth Street. Its first publication will be issued from the De Vinne Press in the spring, and will probably be a paper upon Early American Theatres by the Hon. Charles P. Daly.

S. S. McClure is about to publish a Life of Lincoln based upon the material already accumulated in *McClure's Magazine*, but much extended. The number of portraits will be very large.

The Life of Phillips Brooks undertaken, but left unfinished, by his brother, the late Rev.

Arthur Brooks, will be completed by Prof. A. V. G. Allen, of Cambridge, Mass., and published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

We are to have from Charles Scribner's Sons a new Life of Madame Roland, by Miss Ida M. Tarbell; 'The Jewish Scriptures,' in the light of the latest criticism, by Amos K. Fiske; 'Sunrise Stories,' essays on the literature of Japan, by Tozo Takayanagi and Roger Riordan; and 'The Book of a Hundred Games,' by Miss Mary White.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. promise 'The Life and Letters of Oliver Wendell Holmes,' by John T. Morse, jr; 'William H. Seward,' by Thornton K. Lathrop; 'The Life of Thomas Hutchinson,' by James K. Hosmer; 'The Life, Public Services, Addresses, and Letters of Elias Boudinot,' by J. J. Boudinot; the fourth volume of the 'History of Prussia,' left unfinished by the late Prof Herbert Tuttle of Cornell, and treating of the early part of the Seven Years' War, with a biographical introduction by Prof. Herbert B. Adams; 'Quaint Nantucket,' by William Root Bliss; 'In New England Fields and Woods,' by Rowland E. Robinson; 'Spring Notes from Tennessee,' by Bradford Torrey; 'Four-handed Folk,' by Mrs. Olive Thorne Miller; 'Kokoro: Hints and Echoes of Japanese Inner Life,' by Lafcadio Hearn; 'The Browning Phrase-Book,' by Marie Ada Molineux, M.A., Ph.D., uniform with the Riverside Browning; 'Moral Evolution,' by Prof. George Harris of Andover; 'The Expansion of Religion,' by E. Winchester Donald, D.D.; 'Pirate Gold,' by F. J. Stimson; 'Tom Grogan,' by F. Hopkinson Smith; and the Complete Works of Burns, edited by W. E. Henley and T. F. Henderson, a centenary edition in four volumes, limited to 150 copies.

One cannot too much congratulate the schools on the ever-extending "Riverside Literature Series" of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.; the quadruple numbers forming Quaker-like linen-bound duodecimo volumes in the best of print, and extremely moderate in price. Five of the latest of these are 'Robinson Crusoe,' 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' 'Ivanhoe,' 'Tom Brown's School Days,' and Dana's 'Two Years Before the Mast.' But the public at large is equally interested in knowing of these editions, which meet all conditions except the luxurious.

Another series deserving attention in and out of school is the "Arden Shakspere," of which the American publishers are D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. Half-a dozen volumes are before us. They are convenient to the hand or pocket, clearly if compactly printed, and very fully annotated—not for the youngest minds.

Macmillans continue their little reprint of Charles Kingsley's novels with 'Yeast,' and of Dickens's novels, edited by his son, with 'A Tale of Two Cities and the Mystery of Edwin Drood,' after the editions of 1869 and 1870 respectively. The younger Dickens vouches, in his introduction, for the story that Carlyle, in response to a request from the author of 'A Tale of Two Cities' for the loan of a few authorities on the French Revolution, sent him two cartloads. Dickens repaid this courtesy in his preface by averring that "no one can hope to add anything to the philosophy of Mr. Carlyle's wonderful book." He cherished the vain idea of having the story dramatized for representation in France in the first decade of the Second Empire. As to 'Edwin Drood,' the editor sets at rest any speculation that the hero of the story was not actually murdered. His comments on Mr. Forster as a literary executor (in connection with both stories) are consonant with earlier ones in this same notable series.

From the same firm we have Peacock's 'Headlong Hall, and Nightmare Abbey,' in the one-volume reprint of standard novels of the early part of the century. Mr. Saintsbury furnishes an introduction.

The welcome to be accorded to a new edition of Sir George Dasent's 'Tales from the Fjeld' (Putnams) is not, in our opinion, because of Mr. Moyr Smith's "more than a hundred illustrations." These we cannot praise in gross or in detail. It is the "mother English" into which the translator "tried to turn his Norse original" which has made and will preserve this collection a classic, remarkable among all translations for its idiomatic purity.

By omitting episodes and detailed descriptions, and replacing them occasionally by brief summaries in smaller type, Mr. A. de Rougemont of Chautauqua University has compressed Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables' into one volume, leaving the *story* intact (New York: W. R. Jenkins). Five hundred pages of large print are sufficient for this achievement, and there are twenty pages of notes.

Books about book-plates approach very near the category of *biblia abiblia*, consisting as they do, in the main, of formal and informal lists diversified only by exemplary illustrations. The latest is 'Ladies' Book-plates, for Collectors and Book-lovers,' by Norna Labouchere (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). General considerations and detailed descriptions, quite unreadable except by way of reference, occupy two-thirds of this pretty volume. Formal alphabetical lists follow English, foreign, and "joint" plates—these last of husband and wife. The reproduced designs are abundant and suggestive; many of them beautiful. Not a few are *by* women as well as for them.

Three periodicals, each excellent and unique, reappear on our table in a bound volume for the past year—namely, the eighth of *Garden and Forest* (New York), the seventh of the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Co.), and the eleventh of *Babyhood* (New York). They are all capable of profiting those who do not, as well as those who do, profess a special interest in things suburban and horticultural, legal and infantile.

Two more volumes, xliv. and xlv., of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) extend the work from Paston to Pockrich, and are peculiarly rich in great names, as Peel, the Pitts, William Penn, St. Patrick, the Plantagenets; besides William Paterson, founder of the Bank of England, Sir W. Petty, Isaac Penington, Mrs. Piozzi, Gen. Picton, Mark Pattison, Walter Pater, and Samuel Pepys, who (like Mrs. Piozzi) falls to Leslie Stephen, and is treated with delicacy and characteristic pungency. Another excellent example of restraint is shown in the sketch of that shady character, Cora Pearl; and another adventuress, Teresia Constantia Phillips, is commemorated not without reason, as her memoirs "exerted a considerable influence upon Bentham's youthful imagination, especially their account of the chicanery incidental to law proceedings." The American section is unusually strong, embracing—in addition to Penn and Chatham and Shelburne—Sir William Pepperell, Sir William Phipps, Hugh Peters, George Phillips (ancestor of Wendell Phillips), Abraham Pierson, founder of Newark, N. J., George Percy, one of the founders of Virginia with Capt. John Smith, and the Pennsylvania pilgrim Pastorius, whose inclusion in the Dictionary seems somewhat difficult to account for. The Irish forger Pigott is among the baser characters admitted to this equal sky.

It has been to the advantage of the public, as it must be to the satisfaction of the author, that a new edition of Col. George E. Waring's 'How to Drain a House,' originally published in 1885 (D. Van Nostrand Co.), is brought up to the standard of to-day by a few annotations, not by rewriting, the last chapter excepted. This little book, whose sub-title is "Practical Information for Householders," is in the author's clear and practical style. He wastes no time in the discussion of varieties of method, but dogmatically expresses his opinion as to the best. That is what the ordinary house-owner wants, and as this opinion is the outcome of intelligence and experience, he is perfectly safe in adding it to his library of practical economics as an untechnical, straightforward, useful book.

'Outlines of Legal History' (Macmillan) is the title of a manual prepared by Mr. Archer M. White, an English barrister who has not only fitted large numbers of pupils for legal examinations, but has also passed many himself with distinguished success. The amount of information which Mr. White has contrived to pack into a duodecimo of less than 250 pages is certainly extraordinary. The book is of course unreadable except by those over whom examination impends, but it answers the purpose of an encyclopædia of courts and procedure, while containing much detail concerning the development of law. The method adopted is to describe first the legal system now existing, then the conditions out of which it developed, and then to trace the history of some of the more important doctrines of the law. The severe compression necessary is not always favorable to the clearest exposition, but we have noted little obscurity except that due to condensation. For its chief end the work must be regarded as remarkably well adapted, as it will be found valuable by others as well as students cramming for examination.

'The Child and Childhood in Folk-Thought' (Macmillan) is a voluminous collection of everything that has been said about children by the anthropologists, in the first instance, and by writers of every sort after that. Children appear under the head of magi and medicine-men, priests and oracle-keepers, physicians and healers, teachers and judges, saints and heroes, poets and musicians. The influence of the child-idea and its accompaniments upon sociology, mythology, religion, and language is matter for discussion. The subject is of peculiar interest now that the scientists have informed us that the child alone possesses in their fulness the distinctive features of humanity, that the highest human types as represented in men of genius present a striking approximation to the child type, and that adolescence is to some extent progress in degeneration and senility. There is an index to this volume which should be the emulation of all future makers of books.

Brentano sends us a French whimsey, a child's library of inch high volumes in a glass cabinet "style Louis XV."—fables from Perrault, La Fontaine, Fénelon, and Florian, tales from Canon Schmid and Moreau, 'Aladdin,' 'The Forty Thieves,' 'The Wandering Jew' in verse, etc. Happily the type of these Liliputian volumes is not proportionate to their size, but is readable without straining of the eyes.

In the *Temps* of January 9 there is an account of an interview with M. Ary Renan, which throws some pleasant light on the life of his illustrious father among his books. Renan was a book-lover, but not in the least a bibliophile. He cared nothing for rare editions. He loved books, not for any beau-

ty of print or binding, but for their contents alone. They were his tools, which he used every day. It was with great reluctance that he ever sent any of them to the binder. He could not get on without them even for a day, and it is remembered that once, when he was absolutely obliged to send a volume to be bound, he bought another copy of it to use during the few days of its absence. All his life, books surrounded him, overwhelmed him, shut him in. They gradually overflowed from one room to another until the whole story on which he lived was full. M. Ary Renan says that he still remembers with horror the several occasions when the family removed from one house to another, and especially one dreadful time when the *déménageurs* heaped the books together in a vast number of baskets, having classified them cleverly, as it seemed, in accordance with their size.

The priority in the method of photographing through solid bodies recently discovered by Prof. Röntgen is now claimed by the Hungarian physicist Lenard, who in 1894 succeeded in photographing through pasteboard by means of the rays emanating from the cathode or negative pole of a galvanic battery. He published an account of his experiments at that time in the *Annalen für Physik und Chimie* (vol. li., p. 225) with plates showing the results, but does not seem to have pursued the subject further or to have made any practical application of his discovery. Prof. Röntgen explains the purely accidental manner in which his discovery was made, and denies that he is under any indebtedness whatever to the researches of Prof. Lenard.

Dr. Parker of Harvard gave the result of some interesting experiments on the sea anemone at the recent meeting of the Morphological Society, as reported in *Science*. The œsophagus of this little animal is lined with cilia whose constant wavy motion causes the food to pass onward from the mouth into the stomach. But their action can be reversed when occasion arises, and by this means innutritious substances can be thrown out from the stomach. If an anemone is fed with fragments of meat and pieces of paper soaked in meat juice, both are taken into the stomach, but the paper fragments are afterwards thrown out by means of the backward action of the cilia. More than this, the organ of sense in the tentacles is capable of a certain degree of education. After a number of trials (seventeen or more) the animal learns to discriminate, the paper being rejected and the meat swallowed. The memory is, however, short-lived, for on the following day the lesson must be learned anew.

—The question of the admission of women to the University for the study of medicine has lately excited considerable discussion in Vienna. The well-known professor of surgery, Dr. E. Albert, being no longer able to ignore this movement, published a pamphlet against it, entitled 'Die Frauen und das Studium der Medicin' (Vienna: Hölder), and written with the same spirit that animated John Knox more than three centuries ago when he blew 'The First Blast of the Trumpet against the Monstrous Regiment of Women.' He begins with the assertion that all works of the human hand which we see around us and which minister to our comfort, were made by man. When we rise in the morning, he adds in illustration of this proposition, all the dishes in which our breakfast is served we owe to masculine ingenuity and invention; hence the female is intellectually disqualified for the study of medicine. Not only is the logic of this syllogism exceedingly faulty, but also the premises are false or at least highly problematical. All prehistoric researches tend to prove that woman contributed more than man to the growth of primitive civilization. It was her feeble attempts to cultivate the soil and to raise grain that gradually effected the transition from nomadic to sedentary life; it was because she learned to spin and weave that cloth was substituted for skins as raiment, and there is hardly any doubt that the first rude pottery was formed by her hands. A clear and cogent reply to Albert's inconsequent lucubration is Prof. Dr. Emanuel Hannak's 'Die Frauen und das Studium der Medicin kritisch beleuchtet' (Vienna: Hölder), in which the author shows the injustice of excluding women from the most efficient means of culture and then censuring them for being uncultivated He reviews Dr. Albert's pamphlet in detail, and proves that the objections urged by him simply beg the whole question at issue, and declares in conclusion that it is the duty of the state to furnish every facility for academical and professional education without distinction of sex.

—Many strange things have been done, first and last, in the way of devising, and adapting, and modernizing some of the great books of the world. Shakspere has been Bowdlerized and, less offensively, Hudsonized. The 'Summa' of Thomas Aquinas has been put into doggerel Latin verse to be used as a cram book. Dante has been turned into quatrains, and Molière's "L'Avare" has been versified; the 'Contes' of Voltaire have been put into alexandrines, and the 'Profession de foi du Vicaire savoyard' has been arranged in chapters and verses, like a Bible. The late Bishop Hopkins was once inspired to write a church history in the "common metre" of the hymn-books. But the latest venture of this kind, and the strangest, is surely that of a certain M. Boizomont, who has just produced an expurgated Rabelais —for the use of Sunday-schools, perhaps. Two or three times before now Rabelais has been put into modern French—once by the Chevalier Lureau, in 1849, and again by Prof. Martial Lureau. But these versions, it would seem, are completely overwhelmed and sunk when set beside the work of M. Boizomont, if one may judge from extracts from it which were given lately in the *Jour.* We can give but one specimen of it, and that shall be the well-known jest about Panurge's means of living. Rabelais says: "Toutefois, il avait soixante et trois manières d'en trouver toujours à son besoing, dont la plus honorable et la plus commune estoit par façon de larcin furtivement faict." This M. Boizomont turns thus: "C'était, toutefois, un invidu rempli de ressources, dont quelques-unes frisaient l'indélicatesse." This is the converse of a sea-change. Prof. Sophocles used to say sometimes that, if Virgil were obliged to restore what he had conveyed from Homer, there would be nothing left of him but the proper names; M. Boizomont leaves to Rabelais even a scantier residuum.

—The dynasty of the Mikados of Japan is the oldest in the world, being sentimentally 2556, and in historic certainty 1600 years old. A conspectus of their names, age at death, dates of reign, and order of succession may be seen on page 123 of 'The Mikado's Empire.' Now, however, it is possible at a glance of the eye to see the graphic counterfeits of six score or more men and women who have borne the title of Mikado. We have before us a sheet of heavy brocade paper (42x21 in.), on which are engraved the vignettes of 129 mikados; the ruling Emperor, Empress, and Crown Prince being in the centre. The sixteen divine progenitors of the line are set on either side of Ten Shō Dai Jin, or the sun-goddess, at the top, and all under the golden disc and rays of the sun. The portraits are printed on paper which has been first printed upon in banknote style with an engraved plate bearing tracery-work of clouds, dots and the *Kiri* (*Paulownia Imperialis*) leaf and flower—the Emperors' insignia. From the artistic, historic, archæologic, and purely contemporary points of view this publication is interesting and marks an epoch. The beings of "the divine age," as well as the first thirteen of the seventeen mikados to whom Occidental criticism refuses to ascribe historic reality, wear around their necks the *magatama*, or carved jewels which belong to the prehistoric era. These, now fossil or in museums, were often made of jade, which is not found in Japan, but only in China. The sun-goddess and the divine beings wear also the eight-pointed mirror on their breasts; and beneath the central lady, aureoled and flower surrounded, the ancestress of Everlasting great Japan, are the three sacred jewels or palladia—sword, crystal sphere, and metal mirror. Between the Empress of A.D. 1869–'96, in golden crown, low neck and short sleeves, Parisian coiffure, bodice, sash jewels and decorations, and the aureoled lady in *magatama* and unbound hair, there is suggestive but not unpleasing contrast. Considering the antiquity of Japanese art in both sketching, painting, and carving, credence can be given to most of these representations as portraits.

—The mutations of government, religion, and partisan politics are shown in the helmet and mail-clad warriors, the cowled and shaven-pated monks, the baby puppets, the girls and women, and in the varied degrees and insignia of rank and office held when promotion to the throne came. Nine of the mikados were women, the first (if we except Jingu—261–269 A. D.), being Suiko (593–628 A D.), and the last Go-Sakuramachi (1763–1770); two of the female emperors reigning twice. The Constitution of 1889 limits succession to the male line. The head-dresses and bust-costumes are a study to the archæologist, but the most striking point is the addition of the six "Northern" or "false emperors." These were the nominees of the Ashikaga shoguns during the civil war ("the war of the chrysanthemums") which desolated Japan from the year 1336 to 1392. Heretofore by most Japanese historians denied legitimacy, and their names printed in various styles of *odium typographicum* in the books, it is a sign of the times to see them here set with, though beneath, the recognized dynasty, and this with the permission of the censor. We hail it as a sign of increasing national pride, indeed, but of improved ethics in historiography. The number (121) of regular occupants of the throne is reached by omitting the names of Jingu, the Amazonian Empress and legendary conqueror of Korea, and one of the twice-reigning empresses. The average length of the reigns in the whole line is twenty-one years, or in the historic portion, fourteen years.

—The latest number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* shows that a pause in discovery at Delphi has been reached. There is, however, a rich harvest of material still to be threshed out; and of this process M. Homolle gives a valuable specimen in his restora-

tion and discussion of an inscription of the fifth century B. C., which is here photographed. It contains the regulations of the Delphic phratry of the Labyadæ, the conditions of admission into the community, the prescriptions for sacrificial ceremonies and for funeral rites, embracing even such details as the expense of funerals, the manner of laying out the dead, the times and places in which lamentation may be permitted during the burial ceremony. The inscription, with M. Homolle's discussion, throws new light on the Attic festival, the Apaturia, at which young men and married women were admitted to formal citizenship in their respective phratries; the most characteristic part of the ceremony being the cutting and the consecration of the hair—a rite practised by Semitic tribes on similar occasions. The language of the inscription is a highly interesting example of Delphic Dorian, illustrating certain forms in Hesiod, in Pindar, and in Theocritus, and retaining the digamma at the beginning of some words as well as a special sign for the rough breathing. M. de Ridder's elaborate report on the excavations at Orchomenus should be mentioned, but does not admit of summary. We may note, however, M. Chamounard's interesting description of the frieze of the temple of Hecate at Lagina in Caria, on account of its relation to the well-known sculpture of Pergamum. The fragments have been lately conveyed to the museum at Constantinople. They reveal an evident but awkward imitation of the famous Gigantomachy. The poses are borrowed from this; but the artist, not daring to attempt the bold and original pell-mell arrangement of the combatants, has reverted to the old-fashioned device of isolated groups of two adversaries. The monotony of this device is repeated in the details of armor, of gesture, and of costume. The workmanship is also somewhat rude and clumsy in many particulars. The date may be referred to the early part of the first century B. C., when, in all probability, the temple was repaired and restored, after the invasion of Mithridates, to commemorate Sylla's successes and to symbolize the protection of the Roman people toward the Carians, who had suffered for their fidelity to the Republic.

—The after-dinner amusements of the Greeks of the sixth century are suggested by a curious toy preserved in the Louvre and described and figured by M. E. Pottier. It consists of a seated satyr holding in front a crater-shaped vase, of Corinthian style and polychromy. The satyr has small perforations on the head and back, and his interior is so connected with the vase that his owner, whose name, Kolodon, is inscribed, could, by stopping one orifice or another with the finger, represent the satyr as alternately absorbing the wine or restoring it to the crater. This performance doubtless afforded a surprise and entertainment to his guests less likely to strain their intellects than the Platonic symposium; but it is further interesting as showing that some slight knowledge of the effects of air-pressure had reached the artisan class within a century of the date of Thales. A link in the history of ceramics is contributed by M. Joubin's discussion of a group of painted sarcophagi from Clazomenæ, two fine specimens of which are contained in the Louvre. They are decorated with animals painted in silhouette in a style resembling the early pottery of Camirus and Naucratis. Though belonging to the sixth century, they represent an Ionian tradition of animal decoration and painting in transparent silhouette which flourished as early as the eighth or ninth century, and was itself a development of the Mycenæan motives and technique. This Ionian style finally prevailed over the taste for geometric decoration, and restored the "Oriental style" to Rhodes, to Corinth, to Athens and Bœotia; and the sarcophagi of Clazomenæ may thus be regarded as the forerunners of the François vase.

HANS VON BÜLOW'S LETTERS.

Briefe und Schriften. Von Hans von Bülow. Vols. I., II. Leipzig and New York: Breitkopf & Härtel.

ALTHOUGH Hans von Bülow was considered one of the foremost pianists of his time, his best work lay in the line of orchestral and operatic conducting. Thirty years ago Wagner referred to him as the only conductor then living in whom he had full confidence, and showed that he meant what he said by choosing him to preside over the first performances ever given of "Tristan und Isolde" and "Die Meistersinger." In later years Bülow achieved unique fame in the concert hall by taking an ordinary orchestra and training it so thoroughly that he could play on it at will as on a piano. To posterity he will be chiefly known—since his own compositions are of no lasting value—as a pedagogue, by his admirable editing of various classical and romantic masters, and as a wit and letter-writer. In the latter capacity he has just become extensively known through the publication of two volumes of his correspondence, under the editorial supervision of his widow, the actress Marie Schanzer, whom he married twelve years after his divorce from Cosima Liszt, who subsequently became Wagner's wife. These volumes extend only from Bülow's eleventh year to his twenty-fifth (1841 to 1855), but it is announced that two further volumes, containing the best letters of the remaining thirty-nine years of his life, and a selection of his newspaper articles and musical essays will appear in the autumn. The editor not only has prefaced the first volume with a biographic sketch, but has added an occasional page of comment and footnotes where needed, so that this correspondence has the aspect and value of a complete autobiography.

Inasmuch as Bülow wrote enough letters in fourteen years to fill 900 printed pages (and many have been omitted or abbreviated), it is amusing to find him apologizing to Raff for his "unbounded indolence in letter-writing," in which indolence he boasts of having reached "a high degree of virtuosity." During all these years the world showed so little appreciation of his talent that he can hardly have thought that his letters would ever be printed, and there is no evidence anywhere that he wrote with an eye to such a contingency. He is known to have kept a diary, to which there are several allusions, but no trace of it remains. He was repeatedly urged to write his memoirs, but always replied that life was too short, and that it was better to let the past be past and devote one's time to new labors. The majority of the letters in these two volumes are addressed to his parents (who were divorced after 1849); other recipients are Liszt, Raff, Uhlig, Cornelius, Pohl, Radecke, Kroll, Ritter, Wieck. There are also printed here a few letters of Berlioz to Bülow, and of Wagner and Liszt to Bülow's parents. Those written in French are printed in that language. The footnotes are not obtrusively numerous; in one case, at any rate, an addition to their number would have been welcomed. Bülow states, under date of January 21, 1852, that he was carrying on, partly on his own behalf and partly for the busy Liszt, "a not very brisk but continuous correspondence with Wagner." What has become of these letters? Is the widow Cosima guarding them at Bayreuth, together with the three-volume autobiography of Wagner and other Nibelung treasures?

As might have been expected, the most interesting letters in the present collection are those relating to Bülow's intercourse with Wagner, whom he simply worshipped. It was Wagner's operas that induced him to give up the study of law and devote himself to music, even though by so doing he alienated the affection of his mother, so that she broke off all correspondence with him for half a year. He was only twelve years old when Wagner's music, in "Rienzi," first made an impression on him. At that time Italian opera was still a fashionable monopoly in the cities of Germany; from Stuttgart Bülow wrote to Wieck (Schumann's father-in-law) that "classical taste prevails here as little as in Dresden. Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, can be performed only in the absence of the King." Hans, as a boy, did not dislike the operas of Bellini and other Italians—indeed, he frequently refers to the "heavenly" pleasure they gave him; but at fourteen he had come to the conclusion that Mozart's "Don Juan" "is, after all, the opera of operas." Then followed his growing adoration of Wagner, to which there are numerous references. At seventeen he seems to have sent some of his own efforts at composition to Wagner, who delighted him with this amiable reply:

"Your pieces, my dear Mr. Bülow, have given me much pleasure; I was loath to send them back to you through your friend Ritter without enclosing a word of encouragement. A criticism I do not wish to add, nor is it necessary; you will find plenty of others ready to criticise you, and I feel the less disposed to enumerate flaws and details I do not like, because I can see from all the rest that you will soon be quite capable of criticising your own early efforts. Persevere in your efforts, and let me hear from you again soon."

To Ritter, Wagner said personally that Bülow's work showed "unmistakable talent." Such recognition from his idol was oil on the flames of his enthusiasm. In a letter to his mother he gives vent to his indignation on hearing that the famous poet Tieck had utterly condemned "Lohengrin" as a poem. If he remembered this indignation in later years, it must have gratified him to know that every child in Germany now knows "Lohengrin" by heart, and Tieck by name only, if at all. His friends did not share his admiration, for he tells us, on one occasion, how "Livia offered to go over 'Tannhäuser' with me, but she finds everything bad or crazy, while Waldemar usually leaves the room—in haste." Letter 37 (to his mother) is largely filled with lamentations because "Tannhäuser" was given in Dresden while he was in Leipzig. He would gladly have walked to Dresden had it been possible; and he adds:

"I thank God that, unlike the Pharisees, I am able to feel the holiness and divinity of the art of music as exemplified by this work, and to understand Wagner's mission as its apostle. I do not despise Wagner's enemies for this reason, unless they are guided by a personal prejudice; but I pity them for not being able to rise from the dust."

A few months later he again wrote to his mother, who had missed an opportunity or two to hear "Tannhäuser": "You will pardon me for saying so, but if I should hear that you

had missed it again, I should be furious." On learning that "Lohengrin" might possibly have its first performance at Weimar, he wrote: "If that should happen, it would be a colossal thing, and Weimar would become the capital of the world"! In September, 1850, he went to Weimar to hear that opera, and when he found that the performance was postponed, he wrote: "You cannot possibly conceive my mortification; I wept in my disappointment and rage, and not in the privacy of my room, but right before Kroll's eyes." At last he heard the opera, and that sealed his fate. He took the diligence for Zurich, had an interview with Wagner, returned to his father, fell on his knees before him, and begged to be allowed to become a musician, under Wagner's guidance. The father consented on condition that his mother also would approve the step. So he wrote her a long letter, in which he explained that Wagner had proposed to him to come to Zurich and take part as pianist at the concerts and as assistant conductor at the opera there. Wagner himself wrote a long letter to his mother pleading for Hans. "I have observed," he says, "that your son's love for art, and especially for music, is not a mere fancy, but is based on great, nay, exceptional talent," adding that he had advised him also to continue his scientific studies, "because nothing is more unsympathetic to me than a learned musician without general culture." Liszt, too, pleaded for him, yet the mother remained obdurate; she feared that the rebel and revolutionist Wagner might corrupt her son's character. His father, in consequence, forbade him to even visit Wagner at Zurich. Wagner heard of this, and wrote to the father that, nevertheless, since he had discovered in Hans "an extraordinarily gifted and precocious artist," he sympathized with his desire, and was willing to risk his (the father's) displeasure, feeling sure that he would some day thank him for it. Hans had in the meantime been almost persuaded by his father's counsel to return to his legal studies in Berlin, when a letter from Wagner, which Ritter brought him, finally decided him. With Ritter he returned to Zurich, going on foot for two days and avoiding the public conveyances for fear of being pursued by his father.

Wagner welcomed his young pupil cordially and invited him daily to dinner, "which was always very good," Bülow writes, "as his wife is an accomplished cook." She also made herself useful by mending things for him, etc. He went to work at once rehearsing operas, concerning which he says: "It is not such an easy thing as it might seem; it requires a thorough study of the scores, amounting almost to a complete memorizing of them, and that is exhausting work." In another place he states that he is memorizing the "Freischütz," because such a work, where every detail is of importance, can be properly interpreted only if the conductor knows by heart every note, and does not need to look at the score. Some months later his placated father had the pleasure of seeing him, a youth of twenty, conducting an opera in that way without any assistance from the score; but the mother persisted in her resentment, as already stated, half a year, before the reports of his progress reconciled her partially to his chosen career.

That career, however, was by no means a bed of roses. There was a great deal of hard work to be done, in which Wagner usually took the lead. For instance, they devoted three days and evenings to correcting and arranging the score of "Don Juan" for performance. On this occasion Bülow was

"overcome with indignation in recollecting how Wagner's enemies at Dresden had said that he 'intentionally conducted Mozart's operas badly because he did not like them, but cared only for his own music.' I say, on the contrary, that none of these pseudo-adorers of Mozart will ever be able to manifest such a warm, vital admiration and artistic intelligence as Wagner has shown by his unselfish devotion. It is clear that 'Don Juan,' as given to-day everywhere, cannot produce the effect of which it is capable if his reforms are carried out."

In another place he writes regarding Wagner's editing of Gluck's "Iphigenia in Aulis":

"If he had never done anything but this work, so admirable from every point of view, his name would deserve to be held in the highest honor. To discover and learn to appreciate the significance of the details of his editing is in itself a rare pleasure. So far from showing a lack of respect for the great master whom he revised, Wagner has, on the contrary, given by his deed the noblest and most positive proof of his respect for him. True, the old maxim, *Quod licet Jovi non licet bovi*, remains in force."

Columns might be filled with similar outpourings of enthusiasm for Wagner as an artist and as a man—"the noblest, most amiable and adorable of men." He declares that his Wagner-worship is the best trait of his character; that he is proud of having been one of the first to recognize the genius and historic importance of the greatest artist of the century; that the possibility of being such a man's apostle gave an object and goal to his own life. "I love and respect him more every hour." "He has behaved toward me in such a kind, noble, fatherly way that I shall be eternally indebted to him. . . . In no case can my separation from Wagner be more than temporary." Unfortunately he was not able long to enjoy this friendly intercourse and artistic guidance. The most important singer in the Zurich company quarrelled with the young conductor, and her ultimatum was that one of the two must leave. So Bülow went to St. Gallen, where he presided over a small opera company, which gave him a great deal more experience than pleasure. The orchestra, it appears, consisted largely of amateurs—honest men, but poor players—and the hall used for rehearsing could not be heated, for economic reasons. The result—a performance of "The Daughter of the Regiment"—as described by him, is so amusingly and characteristically Bülowesque that it must be quoted in his own words:

"I had been unable to get a sufficient number of rehearsals, or all the necessary instruments, so that I had to make various changes to fill up the gaps. I was frightened to death as I stood at my desk, expecting every moment a fiasco, which did not fail to appear, not in the form of a collapse but of an ear-splitting cat's-music. I refused stubbornly to conduct the second act and was with difficulty persuaded to go on. After the performance I had a disagreeable scene with the manager, to whom I declared I was too good for such a piggery. . . . Such oxen as I had to deal with in this orchestra is beyond human experience to imagine. If I could only have made myself understood by these brutes! I would gladly have learned to grunt or bellow, but even that would have been useless."

His one consolation was that "one can learn more from a bad orchestra than from a good one." But he soon gave up this job and went to Weimar to study the piano with Liszt. The greater part of the two volumes is devoted to accounts of his intercourse with that great musician, who, as he told his mother, loved him like a son (long before he became his father-in-law), and to his (Bülow's) pitiable and pathetic efforts to make his mark as a pianist. But we have quoted enough to show how entertaining these volumes are. It may be added that they are adorned by two portraits of Bülow, a facsimile of one of his letters, and several programmes. There is also a good index, and the book is beautifully printed; but it should not be bought unbound. Why do German publishers persist in putting together their unbound (and usually expensive) volumes so that they come to pieces after a few hours' use? The ten-cent books of our department drygoods stores are better stitched.

ORIGIN OF THE FRANCO GERMAN WAR.—II.

Die Begründung des Deutschen Reichs durch Wilhelm I. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Siebenter Band. Munich: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann.

THE French have always maintained that the candidacy of Prince Leopold was the result of a Prussian intrigue; that Bismarck started it in order to provoke France to war. All the evidence, as Sybel points out, goes to show that the first thought of the candidacy was purely Spanish. He shows also that the offer of the crown was three times refused by the Prince, with the assent of his father and the approval of King William; that, in 1869, Bismarck also advised refusal; that Leopold's acceptance of the fourth offer, in June, 1870, was given without King William's knowledge or approval, although, when notified of the Prince's decision, the King declared that he would interpose no objection. Sybel also insists, as the Germans have always insisted, on the fact that the authority of King William over this remotely related South German branch of the family was not such that he could forbid Leopold's acceptance of a foreign crown. On the other hand, Sybel himself states that when a "family council" was held at Berlin, in March, 1870, to consider the third offer, Bismarck strongly urged the acceptance of the candidacy; that its rejection for the third time, early in May, when he was lying ill at Varzin, was a disappointment to him; that he wrote to Gen. Prim, at the end of May, that the candidacy was an excellent thing, which must be kept in view, but that negotiations should not be carried on with the Prussian Government but with Prince Leopold. Sybel leaves it to be inferred that the fourth offer was due to this encouragement, and he indicates that the Prince's acceptance was largely due to Bismarck's arguments. The Rumanian revelations do not in any way contradict Sybel's story. They simply give additional evidence of Bismarck's interest in the candidacy. In March, 1870, Prince Charles of Rumania notes, in his diary, that Bismarck has submitted to King William a memorial urging the acceptance of the candidacy. On the 26th of March, Prince Antony writes: "Bismarck is very ill content with the failure of the Spanish combination." Early in June Prince Charles notes that Leopold is beginning to regard it as his duty to accept the Spanish crown. Prince Antony has informed the Prussian Crown Prince of this change of sentiment, with the suggestion that it be made known to Bismarck. The latter, on receiving this information, has written to Prince Antony urging him to persuade his son to accept. Privy Councillor Bucher and Major von Versen "have brought back" very satisfactory accounts of the prospects of the candidacy in the Spanish Cortes

and in the country. The final offer and acceptance, Delbrück concludes, were obviously the work of these Prussian agents. Writing for Germans, Delbrück does not think it necessary to point out that Lothar Bucher, the ex-revolutionist, was one of Bismarck's most trusted assistants in the Prussian Foreign Office.

Sybel holds strongly to the position that the candidacy was really a family matter, with which Prussia and the Prussian Government, as such, had nothing to do. Delbrück admits that this is technically true, but maintains that the opposite view, the French view, is substantially just. Sybel insists that the matter was never laid before the Prussian ministry; Bismarck was called into the family council not as Prussian Premier, but as King William's personal adviser. Delbrück points out that at the most important meeting of this family council not only Bismarck, but his under-secretary, three other Prussian ministers, and Moltke were present, all of whom favored the acceptance of the candidacy.

As regards Bismarck's motives, Sybel declares himself incompletely informed. He says, however, that Bismarck explained his change of views by pointing out that in 1869 Spain was in a very disturbed condition; that the subsequent suppression of the Carlist and Republican movements had strengthened the Government and created a firmer basis for a new throne. Sybel conjectures that Bismarck anticipated political and commercial advantages from the establishment of a German prince upon the Spanish throne—a conjecture which Prince Antony's letters show to be correct. That Bismarck did not expect that the candidacy would cause war between France and Germany is affirmed by both Sybel and Delbrück. As they both point out, there was really reason to anticipate that Leopold might secure the throne without decided opposition from Napoleon. The Sigmaringen princes were more closely connected with the Bonapartes than with the house of Prussia, and the French Emperor was well-disposed towards them. He had supported the candidacy of Charles for the throne of Rumania. He had indicated no personal opposition to Leopold's candidacy, although he was aware of the negotiations. He had only indicated, through Benedetti, that the French people would resent it. The French people, however, had already resented many things which Napoleon had decided to tolerate. Confronted with the *fait accompli*, he might accept it; the more willingly because the only important rival candidacy, that of the Orleanist Duc de Montpensier, was regarded by him as "anti dynastic." Should he object, however, there need be no trouble. Bismarck's treatment of the whole question as a matter between the Spanish Government and Prince Leopold, in which the Prussian King was interested only as head of the house of Hohenzollern, and in which he had only advice to give, not commands, left the road open, as Delbrück reminds us, to a withdrawal by the Prince himself, in which Prussia would appear as little concerned as in his candidacy.

Further than this Delbrück does not go, and it is hardly to be expected that a good Prussian should go further. Outsiders, however, may naturally inquire whether Bismarck's mind was not probably running beyond this point. It would be absurd to attribute to him any accurate forecast of the extraordinary blunders of which the French Government was afterwards guilty; but it does not seem too much to say that he must have realized that, if France decided to object, the controversy would require careful handling by the French Government, and might be mismanaged. Of Napoleon's ability Bismarck had a low opinion; years before he had confidentially described the French Emperor as "une grande incapacité méconnue." Of Gramont he had frankly remarked in 1866, "He is the greatest blockhead (*Dummkopf*) in Europe." The appointment of Gramont, of course, was made after the Berlin "family council," but it was prior to Bismarck's successful effort to revive the candidacy and to secure Prince Leopold's acceptance of the fourth offer. If, as Bismarck had steadily declared since 1866, he believed war with France to be inevitable; if, as Delbrück insists, and we may readily believe, he apprehended an alliance between France, Austria, and Italy, and the outbreak of war at the time and on the issue which should best suit these Powers, it is not incredible that it seemed to him good policy to create a situation from which Prussia could not well draw disadvantage, and which might cause France to strike prematurely and under circumstances which would alienate the sympathies of Europe. Such a line of reasoning would have required no greater foresight and power of combination than were exhibited by Bismarck in the Schleswig Holstein imbroglio in 1864. If he considered these possibilities, it is most improbable that he discussed them; and it may be set down as certain that he did not unbosom himself to King William. Sybel and Delbrück agree that in the "family council" no mention was made of a possible objection from the French Government.

In describing the events from the 3d to the 15th of July, Sybel maintains that neither Napoleon nor Ollivier desired war; and that Gramont, although the intemperance of his declarations and despatches made the preservation of peace extremely difficult, probably desired at the outset only to inflict upon Prussia a diplomatic defeat. This he really had in his grasp when, in the absence of Prince Leopold, Prince Antony withdrew his son's candidacy. It was, of course, a disappointment that King William had refused to command or even counsel the withdrawal; but the King's complaisance in discussing the matter with Benedetti—a course which Bismarck strongly disapproved—the King's admission that he had given a passive approval to the candidacy, his further admission that he was in communication with Prince Antony, and his statement that if Leopold withdrew he would approve the withdrawal—concessions which caused Bismarck to think of resigning—all this left it open to France to assert and to Europe to believe that Prince Antony's action was really the result of the pressure brought to bear on King William. At this point Gramont made his great blunder. Instead of contenting himself with what he had gained, he undertook to increase his diplomatic triumph over the good-natured and pacific King. He suggested to Werther, the Prussian Ambassador at Paris, that the King should send to the Emperor a letter explaining that he had not imagined that the candidacy would arouse such opposition in France, and he gave Werther a draft of such a letter. Gramont afterwards protested against this being called a "lettre d'excuse"; but he prints the draft in his book, and it is not easy to see how it could be regarded as anything else. He then, with the concurrence of Napoleon—obtained, according to Sybel, only because the Emperor was prostrated by one of the attacks to which he was subject—directed Benedetti to obtain from King William a distinct pledge that he would not permit the candidacy to be renewed. In view of the King's repeated declarations that he could not forbid the candidacy, it seems impossible that Gramont should have expected to obtain such a pledge. He asserted, however, that he did expect it. Meanwhile, the news of these additional demands had produced a decided revulsion in the sentiment of Europe, which up to this point had been almost wholly in favor of France. The English ambassador protested; the Austrian premier, Beust, sent an energetic remonstrance. At this, Gramont himself wavered, and the French cabinet had virtually decided to abandon the demand for guarantees of the future, when the news of Bismarck's action turned the scale for war.

Bismarck, as we have seen, was far from satisfied with King William's diplomacy. He solicited and received a summons to join the King at Ems. Reaching Berlin on the 12th, he was met by the news of the withdrawal of the candidacy. Regarding the episode as closed, he decided to remain in Berlin, at least for the night. On the 13th he received information of the additional satisfaction required by France. He at once explained to the English Ambassador, Lord Loftus, that the action of the French Government clearly showed that the candidacy of Leopold had been merely the pretext for a quarrel; that Prussia must now demand explanation, satisfaction, and guarantees from France. He telegraphed to Werther that his conduct in entertaining Gramont's demand for an apology was not approved, and directed him to take leave of absence on the ground of ill-health. At six in the evening, sitting at dinner with Moltke and Roon, he received a telegram from Ems, announcing the presentation of the French demand that King William should not permit the renewal of the candidacy, and the King's refusal to bind himself "à tout jamais." After this interview, the King had received from Prince Antony the formal notice of the withdrawal of the candidacy. As the King had promised Benedetti to inform him of any such communication, a consultation was held as to whether the French Ambassador should be admitted to another interview. In view of what had passed in the morning, it was decided that the news from Prince Antony should be conveyed by an adjutant, who should inform Benedetti that the King had nothing more to say.

The despatch closed with the suggestion, on the part of the King, that Benedetti's new demand and the King's refusal should be communicated to the Prussian legations and to the press. This suggestion Bismarck proceeded to carry out in the most literal fashion, drafting a report which recited, with perfect accuracy, Benedetti's demand and the King's refusal to grant a further audience. The omission of all the intermediate details contained in the telegrams of course gave Bismarck's abstract a very different tone. There was a suggestion of a more abrupt termination of intercourse than had really occurred. Roon said: "That sounds better." Moltke added: "It sounded before like a signal for parley (*chamade*); now it sounds like a fanfare." Delbrück adds that when, the next morning, King William saw Bismarck's dispatch on the bulletin board, he read it carefully twice, and said: "That means war." Sybel and Delbrück agree in treating the French charge of "forgery" with contempt. Sybel remarks that the details telegraphed from Ems were for Bismarck's information only; that it would have been improper to publish them. Delbrück takes higher ground; he maintains that Bismarck's report gave a truer picture of what had happened

than the longer original telegram. The King and the Ambassador had of course conducted themselves like gentlemen. Champions of opposed causes do not open a conflict to-day, as the Homeric heroes did, with reciprocal discourtesies. In the broader sense, however, Benedetti's famous statement that nobody was insulted at Ems is untrue. The German nation was insulted by the substance of the French demands. The attitude of the French Government throughout the controversy represented the tradition of a French primacy in Europe, and this tradition Germany could no longer accept. Under the form of a question of national etiquette lay, in reality, the question that had been awaiting solution since Sadowa.

On the 13th the French Cabinet was informed of King William's refusal to give the desired pledge; but this refusal had already, so to say, been discounted; and it seems that the Ministers as well as the Emperor were still disposed to accept the situation and terminate the controversy. On the 14th such a course seemed to them impossible. The compulsory furlough given to Werther, the publication of King William's refusal to hold further conference with Benedetti, had abruptly changed the aspect of affairs. It was no longer possible to regard Prussia as having submitted to a diplomatic humiliation. The use which Bismarck had made of Gramont's mistakes had completely turned the tables. To preserve peace, France must now back down, as was clearly indicated in Bismarck's conversation with Lord Loftus. Had the French Ministers already heard of this conversation? Sorel long ago conjectured that they had. Sybel thinks the assumption impossible. Delbrück gives reasons for thinking that the report might have come to them by way of Vienna. With or without this last incentive, the Government resolved upon war, and on the following day war was declared.

Ever since this war the French have been looking for a scapegoat. Sybel's whole narrative seems intended to direct their choice to Gramont. He maintains that Gramont withheld important information from his colleagues and the Emperor; that at one critical moment, at least, he disregarded their decision; that he made false statements to the Deputies. There were moments, Sybel thinks, at which he shrank from the responsibility he was incurring, but the popular passions which he had been largely instrumental in arousing were too strong for him to resist. Gramont started his brief and disastrous diplomatic campaign on the assumption that the Spanish candidacy was the work of Prussia; he concluded it and plunged France into war on the assumption that Austria and Italy, although bound by no formal treaty, would take up arms for France. Both of these assumptions Sybel regards as baseless, and ascribes to Gramont's "constructive imagination."

Delbrück insists that both assumptions were justified. As regards the first point, we cannot but agree with him. As regards the second and more important point, Delbrück not only maintains, as we have seen, that the understanding between the three sovereigns was a complete one, but asserts that, even after the declaration of war, it was in Napoleon's power to convert the informal understanding into a binding treaty. Why, then, was this not done? Bismarck once said that, even after the declaration of war, Prussia could have made peace with France if the Prussian Government had been willing to sacrifice Belgium. In return for this concession, Prussia would have obtained free hand in South Germany. With a million of men under arms, the two Powers could have imposed their will upon Europe. This, Delbrück believes, was really Napoleon's plan, and this explains his postponement of a definite agreement with Austria. He wished to hold himself free to the last possible moment for such an arrangement with Prussia. For all this, however, Delbrück has no other evidence than Bismarck's statement, which does not go nearly so far. Even if Bismarck meant to say that a proposition of this sort was actually made by Napoleon, it does not follow that Napoleon's whole policy was meant to lead up to and culminate in such a proposal. Delbrück's theory would do very well in an historical romance; in the present state of our knowledge it is out of place in an historical essay.

As regards the serious part of Delbrück's criticism, the difference between his views and Sybel's rests mainly on their different interpretations of the material furnished by Beust, Vitzthum, Prince Napoleon, General Lebrun, and others of less note. Lebrun's recent revelations, published since Sybel wrote, tend to support Delbrück's contentions, but they are not conclusive. They are not irreconcilable with Sybel's theory that the Austrian Government, though really resolved upon peace, was temporizing with Napoleon, ready to join him if victory seemed assured, but determined not to be involved with him in a common disaster. As to Italy, both writers agree that Victor Emmanuel wished to support Napoleon, but that his ministers were of a different opinion; and both agree that Italy's action was practically dependent upon Austria's. Delbrück, we think, underrates the influence of the Roman question in preventing concerted action by the three Powers—an influence which Prince Napoleon declares to have been decisive. Delbrück also makes too little of the restraint imposed upon Austria by the menacing attitude of Russia.

In this concluding volume of Sybel's great work, as in the sixth, we miss the certainty of tone which characterized the first five, and which resulted from the use of the Prussian archives—a privilege accorded to him until 1890 and then withdrawn. We find, however, the same breadth of view and felicitous clearness of presentation; and these two last volumes will always have the value of a contemporary account by an historian of the first rank, to whom sources of information were open that were inaccessible to nearly all others. In these volumes, for example, he cites verbal communications from persons of no less consequence than the Crown-Prince Frederick and the Emperor Napoleon.

The Pilgrim Fathers of New England and their Puritan Successors. By John Brown, B.A., D.D. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1895. Pp. v, 368.

ENGLISH writers have naturally essayed the story of Congregational beginnings less frequently than American students; and a volume on this theme by a prominent English Congregationalist therefore appeals to a home public less acquainted with the details of colonial history than are readers on this side of the Atlantic, while its angle of view is likely to be sufficiently unfamiliar to awaken the interest of the American into whose hands it falls, even though the facts that it presents are for the most part well known. Such a volume is that in which Dr. Brown of Bedford traces the Congregational movement down to the union of the four New England colonies in 1643. Its attractiveness has been enhanced by a number of illustrations of scenes and buildings associated with the English experiences of the Plymouth Pilgrims, drawn by Charles Whymper; and the printed sheets imported by the American publishers are prefaced with an introduction by the Rev. Dr. A. E. Dunning of Boston as the volume is put forth in this country.

Dr. Brown's work is an exceedingly readable narrative, written in a style that sometimes savors a little of the lecture-platform, but is never dull. It exhibits, especially in the portion which has to do with experiences in England, wide reading and much skill in the presentation of facts. The chapters which set forth the life that centred about Scrooby and the persons engaged in founding the Pilgrim church are noteworthy, and evidence much acquaintance with the scenes described. The early experiences of the Plymouth colonists, including the not very remarkable adventures of their first exploring parties, are told with fulness from the pages of Mourt's 'Relation' and Bradford's History. Indeed, by far the greater portion of Dr. Brown's book is devoted to the story of Pilgrim life—no less than 225 of the 343 pages of his text being occupied with the narrative of the Scrooby company from its beginnings to De Rasières's visit in 1627.

This apportionment compresses the sections of Dr. Brown's volume which relate to the Puritan colonies into disproportionate narrowness, and these chapters are the least satisfactory in the book, probably because the author is on less familiar ground. A New Englander will be provoked to a smile when Dr. Brown tells him that "no one living now" can read Eliot's Indian Bible, or that the Concord of which Peter Bulkeley was the first minister was "on the banks of the Merrimac." But such slips are not many, and the volume may be commended as a vivacious presentation of the external features of the early Congregational movement.

What the reader misses most in Dr. Brown's pages is a clear presentation of the causes of that movement itself. Congregationalism was something much more definite than "the struggle for spiritual freedom on English soil," though Dr. Brown fails to make it evident that such was the case, and begins his account of the precursors of the Pilgrim Fathers with the weavers condemned by the Council of Oxford in 1165, William of Occam, and Wyclif. The nearest approach to a statement of the religious principles which underlay the Pilgrim enterprise is in his summary of Robinson's controversial volumes in the chapter on Robinson's writings, and in his account of the formation of the Salem church after the story of Plymouth has been fully told. Such an omission is a distinct loss of force to the impression which the narrative makes.

In his preface, Dr. Brown remarks, "Where one has been making notes extending over a lengthened period, it is not always easy to remember the source from which many points of detail were taken." The discriminating reader, without thereby refusing hearty recognition to the substantial merits of the volume under review, will regret the absence of the customary signs of quotation from some passages where they might appropriately have been employed.

Recollections of Lord Coleridge. By W. P. Fishback. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company. 1895.

THE circumstances under which the author of

this volume established an acquaintance with the late Lord Coleridge have never hitherto been clearly understood by the world. Indeed, it is highly probable that the existence of this acquaintance was known to few, and in a short time it might have become impossible to procure sufficient evidence to establish it as an historical event, while its details would have been irretrievably lost. This danger, we can assure our readers, is now averted. Mr. Fishback lays before us an array of facts sufficient to strike scepticism dumb. The acquaintance was brought about by means of a letter of introduction from Mr. Justice Harlan of the United States Supreme Court, to whom Mr. Fishback very properly dedicates this book. The presentation of this letter drew forth a reply from Lord Coleridge which is printed in the text and a facsimile of which appears in the appendix, including the letterhead of crest and motto. This must be accepted as conclusive proof of the existence of the letter, as well as of the invitation to dinner that it contained.

It may well be that future historians would not have hesitated to infer on general principles that such an invitation was accepted; but the array of facts is enough to make it unnecessary to resort to presumptions. The very hour of the dinner is named, and the fact that the Lord Chancellor was late, owing to his having been kept at the House of Lords until the Duke of Argyll yielded the floor, is a most convincing bit of circumstantial evidence. Then it is quite incredible that in a spurious narrative Lord Coleridge should be represented as answering the inquiry—"Was Mr. Arnold true to his teachings as the apostle of the gospel of sweetness and light?"—with "Perfectly and always." Such conversation as this cannot have been invented. We could easily point out a number of other details of most persuasive character, but it would require the patience of a Paley to demonstrate the cogency of these cumulative probabilities. On the whole, we incline to think that when posterity shall undertake to reconstruct our life, the Fishback-Coleridge intimacy will be recognized as one of the best authenticated facts in history.

We cannot let it be supposed that Mr. Fishback dined with Lord Coleridge but once. Thrice, as we reckon, did they dine, and twice take luncheon together. Moreover, the number of notes and letters received by Mr. Fishback from Lord Coleridge must have been at least ten, besides one from his brother-in-law—the letters themselves in great part being produced in evidence. On one or more occasions Mr. Fishback occupied a chair beside Lord Coleridge as he sat on the bench, and by his special invitation. We are bound to add that Mr. Fishback reports some conversations with the Chief Justice which are interesting, and that he has some good stories to tell, new as well as old.

We have perhaps said enough to suggest that entertainment is to be had from this book, and we cannot find it in our heart to speak altogether harshly of any writer who promotes hilarity among mankind. Whatever his weaknesses may be, Mr. Fishback is an intelligent observer, and many of his reflections on ways American and English indicate a broad and genial nature. His style is clear and flowing, his book is charmingly printed, and the Coleridge crest and motto are stamped on its cover.

Early Rhode Island Houses: An Historical and Architectural Study. By Norman M. Isham, A.M., Instructor in Architecture, Brown University, and Albert F. Brown, Architect. Providence: Preston & Rounds. 1895. Small 4to, pp. 100 and 60 plates.

THE preface of this very interesting book closes with an expression of the hope that it will be found to supplement, by "accurate measured drawings," what are properly called the "vague descriptions of too many of our town histories." This it will surely do. It will also serve to supplement and complete the rather numerous books on "old colonial" architecture which have been published within a few years. Those books are almost wholly confined to free-hand drawings of details intended chiefly for daily consumption in the architect's office, and photographic process prints of exteriors. They are also devoted to the more elaborate structures of the period before 1800. The book before us, however, is devoted to serious study of humbler and therefore more purely traditional and, in a sense, autochthonous buildings. It takes up two houses of the period before 1675, five of the next twenty-five years, and four more of the quarter-century before 1725—all in the region of northern Rhode Island; and these it treats in an exhaustive manner with drawings of what exists, drawings of restoration, and descriptive text.

"Northern Rhode Island" is not a large district, and none of the old houses which our authors have discovered there are elaborate, or offer details which the modern architect is likely to convey. Their interest for the student of architecture is in the simplicity and freedom of their design, the traditional and unschooled work of the village carpenter. In this respect they are a most valuable help to an understanding of the natural evolution of architecture, and of the architecture that was so brought into being, whether before or after the fifteenth century. Besides the houses of the Providence region, to which the book is especially devoted, those of Newport are treated in chapter v., and those of "the Narragansett country" in chapter vi. Chapter vii. is given up to construction. In this the analysis of the framing in the old houses is of extraordinary value, and the seven plates which illustrate it, Nos. 54 to 60, are excellent in their intention and almost all that could be asked in execution. This book is probably the most valuable historic architectural treatise that has as yet appeared in America.

The Utopia of Sir Thomas More, in Latin from the edition of March, 1518, and in English from the first edition of Ralph Robynson's translation in 1551, with additional translations. Introduction and notes by J. H. Lupton, B.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895.

Thomas Morus Utopia. Herausgegeben von V. Michelis und T. Ziegler. Berlin: Weidmann. 1895.

THE unfailing interest of Thomas More's brilliant sketch of the ideal state is again proved by the appearance almost simultaneously of an English and a German edition. The former, in a stately volume of three hundred and fifty pages, gives the text from the Basle edition of Frobenius published in March, 1518. The editor explains his choice of this, the third, edition as that one among the very earliest which most nearly represents the author's own wishes. On the other hand, he has taken the earliest edition of Robynson's translation for two apparently very good reasons—one, that it has never before been reprinted, and the other, that, just because it is the earliest, it best gives the flavor of antiquity which is its especial charm. We have here also a short but carefully written introduction, giving a sketch of More's life and of the circumstances under which the 'Utopia' was produced, together with an account of the several editions, and a comparison of the 'Utopia' with other sketches of ideal commonwealths, both earlier and later. The editor comes to a very sensible conclusion in regard to the seriousness of More's intentions. So far as the general idea of bringing out into bold relief many of the political, religious, social, and economic evils of his own time is concerned, the purpose is a perfectly serious one. To suppose, however, that More wished to present a serious solution of these difficulties, such as might be put into execution by practical reformers, is to ignore the character of the man and the real significance of his place in literature. His seriousness is that of the man of imagination, whose vision of the future wanders on in half-playful fancies, which are seen to be prophetic only when they have been realized by the very unimaginative logic of events.

Besides the letters about the 'Utopia,' which were given in translation by Robynson, Mr. Lupton prints and translates three others, one by Erasmus to the printer Frobenius, one by Budæus to Thomas Lupset, a young Englishman, who had published a rather hastily prepared edition of the 'Utopia' in Paris in 1517, and one by Busleyden to More. The text, especially that of the translation, is beautifully printed, and is accompanied by very full and scholarly notes. A glossary of old English words and a thorough index are added to make this the most complete and useful edition of the 'Utopia' now to be had.

Quite different in outward appearance is the modest German edition, a cheap little paper volume containing only the Latin, and that from the earliest edition of 1516, corrected, however, by comparison with that of Frobenius. The editors agree with Mr. Lupton in thinking that this later edition had probably the advantage of More's personal corrections. A careful introduction concerns itself chiefly with the question, how far More was an imitator of Plato, and how far he was an independent and even a distinctly modern man; with a very decided leaning toward the latter view. The text is neatly printed, uniform in its style with the series of "Lateinische Litteraturdenkmäler des xv. and xvi. Jahrhunderts," of which it forms a part.

The Last Cruise of the Miranda. By Henry Collins Walsh. New York: Transatlantic Publishing Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 232. With many illustrations.

IN 1894 Dr. F. A. Cook organized an excursion party to Greenland from New York, purposing to visit the glaciers and Melville Bay, touch at Peary's camp, hunt, study Eskimo, and have a good time generally. The plan was a good one, provided proper attention had been given to details necessary for such a cruise. First of all a suitable vessel was needed. When it is explained that an iron tramp steamer was selected, no one who knows anything about navigation in Arctic waters will be surprised at the subsequent experiences of the party. The *Miranda* left New York July 7 with a large company on board, including several well-known men of science, geologists, zoölogists, literary men, and travellers. They touched at North Sydney and St. John's, Newfoundland, and on the 17th ran into an iceberg, crushing in the bows of the vessel and necessitating a return to St. John's for repairs.

Some of the party decided to confine their explorations to dry land for the rest of the season, but on the 28th of July the *Miranda* with the others made a fresh start for South Greenland. After an unsuccessful attempt to reach Frederikshaab, the expedition brought up at Sukkertoppen, where several days were spent agreeably. In endeavoring to proceed to Disco the *Miranda* ran upon a reef and seriously injured her bottom. By great good luck the American fishing schooner *Rigel* of Gloucester was finally communicated with and induced to give up her voyage, take the party on board, and accompany the unseaworthy steamer to a port of repair. For this service the sum of $4,000 was agreed upon, being a fare of about $53 per head. On the 21st of August the two vessels left Greenland. Two days later the steamer was abandoned in a sinking condition, and with her loss the legal claim of the rescuing fishermen for remuneration also vanished. On the 5th of September the party were landed in North Sydney by Capt. Dixon, who seems to have done all that man could do for his unfortunate passengers. The owners of the *Miranda* stood on their legal rights and declined to pay the salvage, but contributed $250 to a subscription which was made by the party, the total amounting to about half the original contract. Mr. Walsh states:

"This little volume has been issued in the hope that the profits arising from its sale may at least amount to a fair portion of the balance morally, if not legally, due to the Captain and the crew of the *Rigel*."

The party divided at North Sydney, a portion of them leaving Halifax for New York on the steamer *Portia*, and, as if their previous adventures were not enough, off Cuttyhunk in a fog the *Portia* ran down and sank the schooner *Dora French*, by which four lives were lost.

Fourteen of the party, including Professors Brewer of Yale and G. F. Wright of Oberlin, have contributed to the book, which is profusely illustrated. While rather a record of adventure than a contribution to geography, Mr. Walsh's narrative is lively and interesting, and many of the pictures are excellent. In an Arctic library the book's chief use will be to point the very obvious moral implied in the inscription said to have adorned a sawmill, "Don't monkey with the buzz-saw."

From Manassas to Appomattox: Memoirs of the Civil War in America. By James Longstreet, Lieutenant-General Confederate Army. Illustrated. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 8vo, pp. xxii, 690.

Few if any corps commanders on either side in our civil war had so long or so continuous field service as Gen. Longstreet. He was commandant of a brigade in the first battle of Bull Run, and more than half of all who surrendered with Lee at Appomattox were under his orders. With Stonewall Jackson he shared the honor of being Lee's principal subordinate, and for energy in field fighting he was brilliantly conspicuous throughout the war. He served continuously with the Army of Northern Virginia except when sent to reinforce Bragg prior to the battle of Chickamauga, and in that sanguinary engagement he commanded the left wing of the Confederate army, whose fortune it was to break and roll back Rosecrans's right. The winter campaign in East Tennessee against Burnside, in which Knoxville was besieged, was made by Longstreet with a small army detached from Bragg. This was Longstreet's only service as an independent commander; and though unsuccessful, it is doubtful if success in the peculiar task assigned him was possible for any one. The spring of 1864 found him close to the Virginia boundary, and he was recalled to Lee's army in the general concentration of forces preliminary to the great campaigns which were to end the war.

In this long and arduous service Longstreet established a reputation for impetuous courage, united with cool-headed composure and tactical judgment on the field, second to none. His capacity to command as general-in-chief of a large army was not tested fully, and no discussion is more useless than that which deals with the probable success in independent commands of men whose work has been subordinate. When peace came, he established himself as a cotton-factor in New Orleans, and, for a time, business success seemed likely to compensate him for the loss of his military position. In 1867, however, he declared in favor of Southern acceptance of the logical results of the war, including the political enfranchisement of the freedmen. This was followed by ostracism on the part of his old friends, which quickly caused his business ruin. His conscientiousness was proved by the fact that, both then and since, he showed no political aspirations, nor has he sought to make profit by his change of party associations. The modest office of Surveyor of Customs was bestowed upon him by Gen. Grant unasked, moved by his personal generosity.

To the political enmities thus engendered, Gen. Longstreet attributes the attacks upon his military fame which have since been made by officers who served with him in the Confederate army; and the circumstances seem to justify him in doing so. The form of these attacks, however, has generally been that of depreciation. No one has ventured to deny his lion-like courage, his power to discipline his troops and to infuse his own invincible energy into them, or his devotion to the cause he was almost the last to despair of. But they say he was slow in the beginnings of action, that he was stubborn in sticking to his own ideas, and that thus he thwarted his chief and was the proximate cause of disaster on notable occasions, especially at the battle of Gettysburg.

While, therefore, General Longstreet's memoirs cover the whole period of his military career, we find, as we might expect, that his vindication from aspersion becomes the most stimulating part of his book. As to the battle of Seven Pines in front of Richmond, his chief critic was General G. W. Smith, who succeeded to the Confederate command in the interval between the disabling of General Johnston and the appointment of Lee to the vacant place. Longstreet, who commanded the right wing, not only narrates fully the progress of the battle from his standpoint, and argues for the intelligent generalship with which the plans of the General-in-chief were carried out on the right, but he uses his old aggressive tactics, and turns the tables on his critic by asserting that it was the feeble and timid conduct of the left, where Smith commanded in person, that prevented a decisive success for the Confederate arms.

As to Gettysburg, the dispute hinges upon the orders for the second day, when, it is asserted, Lee commanded an attack at sunrise by Longstreet, who did not make it till afternoon. Longstreet peremptorily denies that such an order was issued, asserts that Lee knew that the troops could not possibly reach the field and attack at any such hour, gives evidence that the contingency on which Lee ordered any attack did not occur till late in the forenoon, and that Lee personally and by his staff controlled the preliminary movements, which extended far beyond the time at which it was pretended the attack was to be made. Events on other parts of the field are made to throw light upon and to support his case. His principal critics here have been Gens. Early, Pendleton, and Fitzhugh Lee.

In the West he condemns the generalship of Bragg at and after Chickamauga, and especially the separation of his own troops from Bragg's army when Grant was preparing for the aggressive campaign of Missionary Ridge. The forces with him, he asserts, were too few for a quick and successful *coup de main* against Burnside, yet so many as to imperil by their absence the position of the main army, and so gave to Grant double chances of victory.

As the criticisms upon Longstreet impugn the value of his services to his chief, it was natural that he should give the evidence of Lee's confidence in him as a soldier and his trust in him as a faithful comrade and friend. The frank and free correspondence between them seems to establish this beyond reasonable controversy. It is not too much to say that Lee had fullest faith in Longstreet's ability and character. He listened to his subordinate's suggestions with respect, and continuously intrusted to him large responsibilities in the execution of his plans. When Longstreet had been separated from the Virginia army, Lee welcomed him back to his old place with a cordiality which left no room to doubt the confidence between them. At Appomattox itself Lee delayed his own consent to consider the necessity of surrender till Longstreet was convinced that the last hope was gone.

The memoir is a work without which the literature of the war would be incomplete. The personal views of so prominent a character are part of the evidence which cannot be spared. The revelations of his own character are a great help in judging of every event in which he had a part. His methods of action and of thought, his canons of military judgment, his influence upon officers and men, are all worthy of careful study, because his prominent position made them all factors in the results of the campaigns in which he fought. It is impossible within the limits of this notice to examine all the evidence which the official records contain, and to attempt to judge adequately the controversies between Longstreet and his critics. That will be the work of historians in the future. But it is safe to say that no investigator will fail to reckon the memoir among the most important sources of information on which the history of the Confederacy must be built.

It is evident that Longstreet has not availed himself of literary help as much as in some former papers of his which have been published. His book is not as smooth in style as those papers, but it gains as a personal presentation of himself. His very mannerisms are characteristic and smack of the camp. Blunt, careless, sometimes even egotistic, he "says his say" with a kind of defiant earnestness which commands attention and rouses sympathy. The references in footnotes to the official records are made under the name of 'Rebellion Record,' which is somewhat misleading, since there is a well-known and voluminous private publication with that name, and the author's intention is to refer to the 'Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies,' published by the Government.

Molecules and the Molecular Theory of Matter. By A. D. Risteen. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895. Pp. 223.

Mr. Risteen's object is to give, in elementary form, a complete and connected account of what is known of the constitution of matter. Such a book has long been wanting, for a very good reason—namely, that there are few physicists who are not painfully aware how far they fall short of competence to produce such a treatise. In the main, Mr. Risteen has done very well. He has taken account of almost all the greater contributions, mathematical and experimental; he has so put them together as to render his pages intensely interesting, by virtue of the thread of cunning reasoning and apposite observation that surely leads to the heart of the great puzzles which he follows out; and he argues some points with real power. The work will prove extremely useful to all who wish to know what the scientific theory of molecules is in detail, and what are the grounds upon which it rests.

The great memoir of Helmholtz upon the conservation of force assumes that all material forces are between pairs of particles—in short, are attractions and repulsions. But measurements upon the elasticity of bodies have thrown grave doubts upon that assumption; and some writers upon elasticity profess to demonstrate that the forces between the parts of solids cannot be of that description. In reprinting his memoir, Helmholtz undertook to modify his expressions, so as to give room for the modern doctrine; but such modifications leave his arguments without much force, and deprive the theory itself of the greater part of its significance. It is on account of those observed facts about the elasticity of solids that Kelvin invariably expresses himself with reserve about molecules—saying that he believes that matter "has some kind of grained structure." It is not too much to say that this question is the principal question of to-day in natural philosophy. If central forces will suffice, so that the conservation of energy is to retain its full meaning, then the Boscovitchian conception (it ought not to be called a hypothesis) is the only rational way of thinking. But if central forces will not suffice, we are driven, it would appear, to conceive of matter as continuous, and therefore as a fluid in some respects homogeneous, throughout space. Thus we come to that order of ideas about media for the action of forces, the attraction of force-lines, etc., which have marked the physics of Great Britain since the time of Faraday. Here we find a rational motive for the vortex theory of atoms. Something of this great discussion might well have been allowed to appear in the introductory chapter of a work on the constitution of matter; but Mr. Risteen finds no place between his covers for any portion of it. Though he touches upon crystals, he never speaks of any doubts as to the sufficiency of central forces. He never mentions the name of Boscovitch. He speaks of the vortex theory, but does not show in what its real peculiarities consist, nor where the suggestion really came from.

The kinetical theory of gases, which now begins to take on the highest degree of certitude and something like completeness, is very well elucidated in Mr. Risteen's second chapter; yet we are amazed that the vast researches of Amagat should be passed by without mention (except that one constant is borrowed from him).

In the molecular theory of liquids nothing is said, either *pro* or *con*, in regard to the theorem of the virial of Clausius, which, it seems to us, ought to be the cynosure to guide our speculations upon this subject. In one passage we are said to be ignorant what the quadratic mean of the molecular translational velocities in a liquid may be at a given temperature; in another place it would seem to be assumed that the velocities in liquids and solids are less than in the gases of the same constitution at the same temperature. If the theorem of the virial is true, this question is easily answered; if it is not admitted, the objections to it ought to be stated. A strong attraction between the molecules of a liquid is manifest in its surface-tension, its heat of vaporization, etc. Its definite density is an effect of equilibrium between this attraction and the translational velocities of the molecules. It would thus seem to be evident that the velocities of molecules in the liquid cannot be less than they are in its saturated vapor above it. Mr. Risteen very promisingly commences an explanation of the incompressibility of liquids, by attributing it to the centrifugal force of the molecules. No doubt he is right, as far as he goes; but a more precise elucidation is desirable.

The molecular theory of solids appears to be beyond Mr. Risteen's present powers. At all events, he has not entered into the considerations which are prerequisite to any serious attempt at an outline explanation of the properties of these bodies.

In a chapter on the size of molecules, the author calls attention to the extreme vagueness of the idea of the size of a molecule. One might as well attempt to measure in inches the diameter of a crowd of people before a street show. It has no definite limits. We measure the length of a bar, because if we attempt to compress it we meet with a counter-pressure which, before we have sensibly reduced its length, exceeds any force we can bring to bear upon it. But it is not likely that molecules have this property to anything like the same degree. When we speak of their size we do not know what we mean; and one method of determination might perfectly well give one result, and another a widely different result, and yet both might, in their several senses, be correct. It is, therefore, a very remarkable fact that different calculations of the size of molecules based upon the most widely diverse considerations turn out to agree very well. Nobody ever supposed that in asking how large a molecule was, he was asking anything much more definite than if he had asked what the average size of an ordinary portable object is. The answer in the latter case might be, its size is somewhere from a fraction of an inch to a few yards. The size of molecules seems to be known quite as definitely. The diameter is somewhere about a ten-millionth or hundred-millionth of an inch.

A final chapter is devoted to speculations in regard to the constitution of molecules. Mr. Risteen defends very ingeniously the equation by which the number of "degrees of freedom" of a molecule is supposed to be determined. He has, on the whole, proved that he has the power to produce a treatise upon the subject adequate to the needs of students; and if the weak spots of his first essay receive the necessary attention, we may hope that a perfected edition will meet every desideratum.

Egyptian Decorative Art: A Course of Lectures delivered at the Royal Institution. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., Edwards Professor of Egyptology, University College, London. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. 12mo, pp. ix, 128.

Professor Petrie is the most active popularizer of Egyptological subjects at the present time, and is, in this line, a worthy successor of the late Amelia B. Edwards, for whom his professorial chair is named. He lacks something of the literary charm which belonged to his patron, but the greater stores of his special and detailed knowledge make ample atonement in the mind of those who desire first hand facts more than figures of speech. His own diction, moreover, has often a personal and rugged character, resembling a natural conversational tone, which is not lacking in attractiveness.

Professor Petrie won his spurs as an explorer and excavator rather than as a professor, and has paid special attention to the forms of characters, signs, art-motives, and architectural designs, with a view to discovering their origin and genesis. We are all familiar with most of the artistic forms and devices portrayed by him in this volume, and the charm of his treatment is to be found in the tracing of artistic motives from their historical origination down through their successive stages of development and then into the art of other lands. This last is done to only a limited degree, yet sufficiently to show that a wide, varied, and interesting field is opened to view. The stages of decoration treated are the geometrical, the natural, the structural, and the symbolic. In each case the text is well illustrated with appropriate drawings taken from printed books, public and private collections, and from a fund of personal knowledge which has resulted from long-continued and varied observation at home and afield.

The office of the critic is very circumscribed in connection with the actual contents of such a work as this. It is the fruit of investigation in which the author stands well-nigh alone, and the reader must almost of necessity stand in the place of the learner. Nevertheless, the reader cannot but wish that the author had seen fit to go into greater detail at some points, and one feels sure that far more of fact and information might have been added had the call been made. Much of the information might be found scattered through other works, but that which is new is welcome and valuable. The principal difficulty is that the subject announced in the title is not exhausted, and more remains to be told than here comes to expression. For instance, a most interesting observation upon scarab decoration, made in the first volume of his 'History of Egypt' (p. 119), is not so much as mentioned, though it is one of the most suggestive that have been made in any book in recent times. One may therefore be justified in criticising the author for failing to take his task seriously enough, and for being satisfied to put forth a book that skims the surface, rather than a treatise. At the same time it must be acknowledged that Mr. Petrie was writing for popular reading rather than with the purpose of instructing specialists. Those to whom this is sufficient excuse may read the volume with profit and interest.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ballantine, Prof. W. G. Inductive Logic. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90c.
Baring-Gould, S. Curiosities of Olden Times. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Batten, Dr. J. M. Random Thoughts. Pittsburgh, Pa.: The Author.
Birchenough, Mrs. Disturbing Elements. Macmillan. $1 25
Book-Prices Current. Vol. IX. Dec., '94-Dec., '95. London: Elliot Stock.
Brooks, Sallie P. In Divers Paths. Hartford: Student Publishing Co.
Chambers, G. F. The Story of the Solar System. Appletons. 40c.
Conant, Prof. L. L. The Number Concept: its Origin and Development. Macmillan.
Confessions of a Fool. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Cope, Prof. E. D. The Primary Factors of Organic Evolution. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $2.
Crawford, F. M. A Tale of a Lonely Parish. Macmillan. 50c.

Crawford, F. M. The Novel—What It Is. Macmillan. 25c.
Craddock, Florence N. The Twin Sisters. G. W. Dillingham 50c.
Cunningham, Prof. W. Modern Civilization in Some of its Economic Aspects. London: Methuen & Co.
Defoe, Daniel. Robinson Crusoe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Dickens, Charles. A Tale of Two Cities, and Edwin Drood. Macmillan. $1.
Dombre, Roger. Tante Rabat-Joie. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Ellstaetter, Karl. The Indian Silver Currency: An Historical and Economic Study. Chicago: University Press. $1.25.
Falkner, J. M. The Lost Stradivarius. Appletons. $1.
Fleming, George. For Plain Women Only. Merriam Co. $1.25.
Ferri, Prof. Enrico. Criminal Sociology. Appletons. $1.50.
Flügel-Schmidt-Tanger. A Dictionary of the English and German Languages. 2 vols. English-German; Deutsch-Englisch. Brunswick: George Westermann; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Fothergill, Caroline. The Comedy of Cecilia; or, An Honorable Man. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Garden and Forest. Vol. VIII. 1895. Garden and Forest Publishing Co.
Gladstone, W. E. The Works of Joseph Butler. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Gidley, A. D. Socrates and Athenian Society in his Day. Macmillan. $1.75.
Gounod, C. F. Memoirs of an Artist. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.25.
Harper's Bazar. 1895. Vol. XXVIII. Harpers.
Harper's Monthly. 1895. 2 vols. Harpers.
Harper's Weekly. 1895. Vol. 39. Harpers.
Hicks, De F., and Remsen, H. R. Trinity Verse: A Second Compilation. Hartford, Conn.: Case, Lockwood & Brainard.
Hotchkiss, Louise S. Le Premier Livre de Français. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c
Housman, Laurence. The Were-Wolf. London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Johnson, Capt. T. G. François-Séverin Marceau. 1769–1796. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Kinsley, W. W. Old Faiths and New Facts. Appletons. $1.50.
Molloy, J. F. An Excellent Knave. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50c.
Nichols, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. The Elements of Physics: A College Text-Book. Vol. I. Mechanics and Heat. Macmillan. $1.50.
Nicoll, W. R., and Wise, T. J. Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century: Contributions towards a Literary History of the Period. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $8.
Paul, Prof. Hermann. Deutsches Wörterbuch. Erste Lieferung (A—Gebühr). Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Saltus, Edgar. Mary Magdalen. Lovell, Coryell & Co. 50c.
Schäfer, Prof. E. A., and Thane, Prof. G. D. Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. III.—Part IV. Splanchnology. Longmans, Green & Co $4.50.
Slatin, Pasha, R. C. Fire and Sword in the Soudan: A Personal Narrative of Fighting and Serving the Dervishes. Edward Arnold.
Smith, W. H. The Effects of the Gold Standard; or, Bimetallists' Catechism. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25c.
Sound Currency. New York: Reform Club. $1.
Sully, Prof. James. Studies of Childhood. Appletons. $2.50.
Triggs, O. L. Lydgate's Assembly of the Gods. [English Studies.] Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Vickers, R. H. America Liberata. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 50c.
Wiseman, Cardinal. Fabiola; or, The Church of the Catacombs. Illustrated edition. Benziger Bros.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 20, 1896.

The Week.

THE final vote in the House on the free-coinage issue on Friday was considerably larger than in committee of the whole on the previous day—305 on both sides, as against 270—but equally disastrous to the silverites, who fell considerably short of polling one-third, only 90 out of 305. An analysis of the vote shows how deceptive is the apparent strength of free coinage in the Senate as an index of popular sentiment. The nine States in the Rocky Mountain region and on the Pacific Slope —Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, Utah, Nevada, California, Oregon, and Washington—were solid for free coinage in the Senate save for one nay vote from Oregon; and those nine States have one-fifth of all the Senators. The same nine States were solid on the same side in the House on Friday, but they have altogether only one-twentieth of the Representatives. The utter hopelessness of the silver cause is demonstrated by the fact that the great States east of the Rocky Mountains and north of the Ohio and Potomac, which dominate the popular branch, are already overwhelmingly against it, and growing more pronounced against it in each Congress. Even in the Senate the changes already assured will deprive the silverites of their present narrow majority after the 4th of March, 1897.

Senator Davis of Minnesota has made his speech in favor of the Davis resolution reported by the committee on foreign relations. This resolution has fallen so dead in the country at large that few people now remember its existence. Mr. Davis has drawn attention to the reasons for its early demise and speedy interment. The resolution, of course, had its rise and its very *raison d'être* in the Venezuelan boundary dispute. But as this dispute was over a question of fact, viz., Where did a certain boundary run? and did not necessarily involve the acquisition of new territory by a European Power, still less the introduction of a European system on this continent, the Monroe Doctrine was not concerned in the matter one way or the other. Mr. Olney and the President lugged it in, however. In order to leave themselves a line of retreat, they said that if Venezuela and Great Britain should come to an agreement as to the boundary, of course we should have nothing to say against it. "What's that?" exclaims Davis. "Beg your pardon; that gives away Monroe completely. Venezuela must not be allowed to cede her territory. It is the getting of the territory, and not the method of getting it, that threatens our security." That notion shuts off one method of ending the dispute. What is the alternative? Arbitration, says Davis. But suppose the arbitrators should give away the very same territory that Venezuela offered to give without arbitration. It is still the giving of the territory, and not the method of giving, that threatens our security. So there is logically no way of settling the question. After you have once introduced the Monroe Doctrine where it does not belong, then in order to reach any solution whatever you must go back to the beginning and reëxamine your premises. You pitchforked it in and now you must pitchfork it out. It is gratifying to learn, however, from the author of the Davis resolution that there will be no war.

Congress cannot stop to debate about going to war, but it can spend days in denouncing attempts to save money and put an end to governmental abuses. The agricultural appropriation bill is making slow progress in the House on account of the mad rush of speakers who want to expose Secretary Morton for cutting down their supplies of seeds. Things have reached such a pass that, as one indignant member said, he had but fifteen grape cuttings and twenty-five strawberry plants to distribute among 216,000 constituents. Can the Government long continue or conventions be packed under such a system? The only remedy was pointed out by Mr. Livingston of Georgia. Get a Secretary "in touch with the people"—above all, with the people that plough all the week, then unhitch their mule and ride him ten miles on Saturday night to get their mail in which they find a few papers of Government seeds, and cry out, "I am a citizen of a great country, and I am not forgotten, though never so humble!" There is no answering this, but the trouble is that Mr. Livingston and his kind have so many other awkward and expensive ways of reminding the plain people that they are citizens of a great country. A little while ago he was having us declare war with England for this purpose; and for the same end he says we must build the Nicaragua Canal, spend millions on a navy, and debase the currency. If seeds alone would do it, we might not object; but the entire process of making us citizens of a great country is certain to be so ruinous that we had better draw the line firmly even at worthless and expensive seeds.

The movement for a treaty of arbitration with Great Britain is gaining ground rapidly, and many newspapers which were hot for war on the subject of Venezuela a few weeks ago, are now urging the negotiation of such a treaty. One of the advantages of arbitration, which has not received the attention it deserves, is that it would largely dispense with the need of fleets and fortifications. The only object of battle-ships and heavy guns is fighting. The object of arbitration is to avoid fighting. Fighting is expensive, while arbitration is cheap. It may be assumed that a treaty of arbitration with England would enable us to dispense with 90 per cent. of the forts and fleets that the Jingoes are calling for, because none of them ever talk of war with any other country. We never hear any speeches from Lodge or Frye about war with France or Germany or Russia. If the Jingoes were deprived of the chance of war with England, they would be reduced to silence or compelled to address themselves to the arts of peace. A chance occasion might arise two or three times in a century for trouble with second or third-rate Powers like Spain or Chili, but these would not serve as a basis for a permanent Jingo party, or for extensive seacoast defences and a corresponding increase in the regular army. We are glad to learn that a conference of the friends of arbitration is soon to be held at Washington city, at which the various branch societies will be represented and the work of organization laid out on a large scale.

The *Evening Post* has taken some pains to procure a history of the Venezuelan concessions to American citizens which have cut some figure in the boundary dispute with British Guiana. We are glad to be able to say that at no period in the history of the Manoa Company, or of its successor, the Orinoco Company, so far as these researches go, has the existence of American interests in Venezuela had any influence with our Government in the premises, or any bearing in the dispute. On the contrary, it appears that when Mr. Olney's attention was attracted to those interests by a rather loud-sounding newspaper interview or letter of one of the Manoans, he took pains to let the Government of Venezuela know that such interests could in no way affect the treatment of the boundary question by us. The late Secretary Gresham, we have reason to believe, went a little further and warned certain persons in official life not to connect themselves privately with matters in which the Government might be publicly concerned. While it appears that our Government was entirely clear of influence or bias on this score, it is equally plain that the Venezuelan authorities expected to enlist political influence in this country by grants of land with indefinite boundaries, and that the grantees, construing "the limits of British Guiana" to suit themselves, entered upon the disputed territory; that when the British authorities warned them off, Gen. Guzman

Blanco complained of this act as an assumption of British authority over the territory in question, in violation of the agreement to consider it neutral ground, and ignored completely the fact that the concessionaries had first invaded it and were acting under Venezuelan authority; that Blanco was himself a stockholder of the Manoa Company; that when he found out in 1886 that the Manoans were without influence at Washington, the land grant was cancelled and given to George Turnbull; and that Mr. Turnbull went to work to develop the property or some portion of it. Affairs ran on in this way until last June, when the Turnbull concession was revoked and that of the Manoa Company revived. It was then turned over to a Wisconsin corporation called the Orinoco Company, in which Mr. Donald Grant of Faribault, Minnesota, was the most important partner. The stock of the new company was fixed at $25,000,000, but, aside from this rather imposing capitalization and one or two journeys to Venezuela by the new proprietors, nothing of much interest has been done. It is said that the Government of Venezuela agrees that, in case the disputed territory goes eventually to British Guiana, it will grant territory of equal extent and value to the concessionaries, but in view of the frequent revolutions in that country such a promise cannot be considered a very safe one for the investment of money.

One of the pending proposals of the Senate is to kill all the seals on the Pribyloff Islands, to save them from the pelagic sealers—evidently a reminiscence of the famous policy of the beasts which "committed suicide to save themselves from slaughter." The seals are, however, not to be saved in this way without an attempt to get Great Britain to agree to more stringent regulations. It is difficult to see what Great Britain can do, however, in view of the fact that we have found out, since the Bering Sea arbitration, that a large proportion of the early sealers who made the trouble were Americans. Will not these wicked Americans continue their operations no matter what Great Britain can say or do? We fear they will, and therefore the seals must go. We shall be only too thankful if they go without causing war. We were very near saving these interesting beasts by a slaughter of men which would have beaten that of the pelagic villains hollow in numbers and atrocity.

We are now within four months of the Republican national convention, and the choice of delegates has already begun, "snap" conventions having been held in some Congressional districts of New York, Pennsylvania, and two or three Southern States. The time has therefore arrived when the political arithmeticians begin to construct tables of the probable totals for the various candidates, and the outlook is really becoming sufficiently clear to justify an opinion as to the probable outcome. The most striking feature of the situation is the strength of McKinley, particularly in the West. The Chicago *Tribune* and some other leading Republican newspapers in that section have made canvasses in several important States which seem to leave no doubt that the Ohio candidate has, at present, more support than all his rivals together. In Indiana he seems likely to secure two-thirds of the delegation; in Illinois, 98 out of 151 editors of Republican organs throughout the State, including the country weeklies, which usually reflect correctly local sentiment, are for him against the field; in Wisconsin, out of 53 well-known Republicans in different parts of the State questioned by the Milwaukee *Sentinel*, 34 are for McKinley, as against 10 for other candidates and 9 who express no preference; in Michigan, Republican editors in 34 counties report him first choice in 22; in Missouri out of 57 Republican editors 51 favor him. A curious and somewhat unexpected feature of the canvass is the fact that McKinley is stronger in the agricultural States of the West than in the manufacturing States of the East. This is due in part, of course, to the facts that New England has a candidate in Reed, and that the New York and Pennsylvania delegations are going to St. Louis nominally for Morton and Quay respectively; but even as second choice the Ohio aspirant is less of a favorite in the East than might have been expected.

McKinley's prominence as the representative of a high tariff gives him a tremendous advantage over his rivals in "the sinews of war." Since slavery was abolished, and a small class of rich planters in the South ceased to have an immense pecuniary interest in the control of the Government, we have never seen a time when so much capital saw its own advantage in the election to the Presidency of one man as the protected interests have to-day in the elevation of McKinley. His managers consequently can spend money with profusion in all of the many ways that contribute to the control of caucuses and conventions, and to the holding in line of delegates at St. Louis. This last is a matter of great importance as regards delegates from the South, who oftentimes can be bought more than once. In any such contest the representative of the protected interests is pretty sure to come out ahead. Already the Reed men complain that some of the delegates from Louisiana whom ex-Gov. Kellogg supposed that he had "fixed" for the Speaker, are out for McKinley. The latter has still another advantage over his rivals in the fact that he is now out of office, and can be "all things to all men," without being compelled to make choice between claimants for the privileges that the Speaker of the House dispenses, or to vote either for or against the silverites, as the Iowa Senator had to do the other day, or to decide whether he will stand with the boss or with the people, as the Governor of New York will soon be required to do. As regards silver especially, this helps McKinley in the silver States, which have delegates enough to be worth considering.

There is no question whatever of the truth and accuracy of the *Tribune's* statement of Platt's Greater New York plans. No other scheme of political rascality ever planned against the people of this city equals this. Lauterbach was so delighted with it when Platt unfolded it to him that he could not keep still about it, but at once told the Republican Boys of it. It means political places and plunder to an extent never dreamed of before, and for that reason not only the Republican politicians of this city, but those of all parts of the State, will be in favor of it. This is the danger which confronts the city. Platt's power over the Legislature is absolute. He holds up before all the Republican members and politicians from the rural districts the prospect of rule by Republican commissions of the great cities of New York and Brooklyn for an indefinite period, and they cannot resist its attraction. Then he proposes to create, with his liquor-tax bill, a State machine with "places" for hundreds of men, with control of the vast liquor interests of the whole State, and with the large cities taxed for the benefit of the rural sections. In the presence of all this gain for the rural sections, the "hayseed" legislator does not "stand dumb," but becomes vociferous with enthusiasm for Platt.

It must be realized by all opponents of Platt's designs that he is by far the most powerful boss this State has ever seen. Tammany bosses have had merely local power. They have had no strength behind them outside this city. Platt has the State behind him, with a large Republican majority, for it is in the rural sections that his machine is most powerful. For the first time now he has full control of the city machine, and his control of the Legislature is making it possible for him to plunder the cities for the benefit of the country. There has been much talk about Republican opposition to him in Brooklyn, but it is suspected that he has been able to overcome this during the past week. In fact, a boss with such a magnificent programme of plunder as he is unfolding is invincible in his own party. No politician can hold out long before so dazzling a vision. If the programme is to be carried out, if all the plunder is to be gathered into the hands of the boss for distribution, the first thought of every practical politician is not to be "left" when the distribution begins. It behooves all inhabitants of the two cities who do not wish to have their power to govern themselves filched from them, to wake up to the danger

which menaces them and prepare at once to ward it off.

The proposal to abolish the institution of a Congressional and legislative chaplain of course encounters the opposition of conservatives who always stand for the maintenance of old traditions, but it is really not so radical a suggestion and not so unlikely to be accepted as was the idea of abolishing Fast Day in Massachusetts when it was first brought forward a few years ago. Indeed, it is entirely in keeping with the whole tendency of the age towards the disappearance of the public prayer. Col. T. W. Higginson, in the *Christian Register*, notes the revolution that has come about within his recollection in the matter of saying grace at the table, or "asking the blessing," as it is commonly called in New England, and having family prayers. In his boyhood there was scarcely a family in the First Parish of Cambridge which did not observe each of these customs; he thinks that twenty would be a large estimate of the number which still keep up the practice. At a public dinner over which Col. Higginson presided last winter, he asked "one of the most eminent of Unitarian clergymen," who sat near him, whether he had better invite anybody to say grace, and was promptly informed that it was ceasing to be customary, and advised against it. Last summer "another eminent Unitarian minister" dined with him, and the host, as a matter of courtesy to him, requested him to ask a blessing. "He did so; but it seemed as if he did not expect it, and I thought it would be better not to take the thing for granted again." Col. Higginson adds that in a somewhat frequent stay at private houses on lecturing trips he has been very much struck with the almost entire disappearance of these external signs of devoutness among Unitarians, and their diminution among orthodox Christians.

Mr. Chamberlain's dispatch of February 4 to the High Commissioner for South Africa, reference to which has been made in telegrams, and which has played an important part in the Parliamentary debates on the Transvaal question, was published in full in the London papers of February 8. It is certainly an extraordinary document, and that it should have wakened the Calvinistic wrath of President Krüger is not wonderful. It consists of two parts, the first being a long explanation of the attitude of the Colonial Office towards the Jameson raid, which Mr. Chamberlain easily shows to have been at once correct and vigorous. But he thereupon, directly after declaring that the South African Republic is "a free and independent government as regards all its internal affairs," goes on to suggest a number of sweeping changes in the Transvaal constitution and laws. These relate not only to naturalization and the franchise, but to the conduct of the finances and to taxation; to the hardships of the working classes; the "resentment" caused by monopolies; the "grievances" in connection with the "labor question"; and, to crown all, Mr. Chamberlain rather imperiously advises Krüger to give the Rand district at once "a modified local autonomy." This unprecedented interference with "a free and independent government" Mr. Chamberlain defended in the Commons as the untrammelled methods of a fresh and direct mind applied to diplomacy, going straight to the point without regard to musty conventions. However, if President Krüger was offended, he would withdraw his remarks. No thing could be handsomer. Meanwhile, it will be gratifying to the bewildered friends of Chamberlain, the ex-social-reformer, to find him enthusiastic in enforcing a social programme in the Transvaal, no matter how England may suffer from his neglect, and to learn that he is strong for home rule in the Rand, whatever be the fate of Ireland.

An interesting discussion is in progress in England as to the exact time at which a man can be said to become a candidate for office. The question has arisen at the trial of election petitions under the corrupt-practices act, which makes certain the unseating of any candidate who can be shown to have used influence of any kind to promote his own election. In one case the Justice conducting the inquiry held that "no definite period could be stated as to when an election began." In another, the Justice held that the election began "when it was first known that the candidate had announced his intention to present himself as a candidate at the next ensuing election." In another, the Justice held that "an election begins as soon as a candidate begins to hold meetings." A correspondent of the London *Times*, citing these somewhat conflicting rulings, asks if any gentleman is at liberty, in every possible way, and for any length of time before the actual day of issuing an election address, to "nurse" a constituency with a view to having a field well prepared when he takes the field formally later. There have been many decisions under the English act which have unseated members of Parliament for "nursing" which was followed by a candidacy later, but in all instances a connecting link has been established between the preliminary work and the subsequent campaign. In this country the "nursing" begins very early, and is at once universally recognized as the preparatory step to a candidacy, prompting some such general inquiry as "What's his game?" or "What is the old man running for now?"

There is a doleful account in the *Contemporary Review*, from Mr. Eubule Evans, of the existing condition of the government in Germany as the result of the great military triumph of 1870. Editors guilty of *lèse-majesté* are no longer allowed out on bail pending their trial. They are brought up for trial in prison dress, in heelless slippers, to prevent their running away, and with metal numbers on their breasts. *Lèse-majesté*, or *Majestätsbeleidigung*, is a queer thing. A man in Cologne last October was discussing the American Constitution. He had just returned from this country, and was eloquent in praise of our system of government, and then was going on to discuss the Kaiser, and said: "As for the Kaiser"—when he suddenly realized his danger, and stopped short. But he was overheard and denounced to the police, arrested, tried, and sentenced to three months' imprisonment for what he was evidently going to say. At Danzig, a man was called on to appraise a plaster bust of the Empress. He said it was not worth a mark. *Majestätsbeleidigung*. He was tried but acquitted. Last summer, at Bonn, a man in a pleasure party said: "What a fool that Kaiser is!" He was overheard. *Majestätsbeleidigung*. He was arrested and taken to the police station, but was able to show that he meant a man named "Kaiser."

A common mode of concealing *Majestätsbeleidigung* in conversation from the servants is to allude to the Kaiser as "Herr Müller." Speech was, in fact, freer under Louis the Great in France two hundred years ago than it is in Germany to-day under William the Wise. And it must be remembered that a great people have been brought into this condition through war. The tremendous military successes of 1866 and 1870 have turned the state into an army, turned a large portion of the talent of the country into the invention of quicker modes of killing people and destroying property, have made the writers and thinkers and debaters seem paltry fellows, who ought not to be listened to, and have converted a rather light-headed young man, who in a private station would be an unsuccessful "crank," into a terrible "war-lord," who has to be protected from even a breath of obloquy by all the terrors of penal justice. If we became a warlike military nation we should lay in a supply of *Majestätsbeleidigung* much quicker than the Germans. We should go twice as crazy over victories, because we train ourselves in excitability; and we should lock up or expel from the country people who differed from us or criticised our madness far more readily than the Germans, for a similar reason. We should soon have a young man like Mr. Roosevelt for a "war-lord," and he would keep us fighting continually and lock us up whenever we said we did not want to be killed. "Dogs," he would say to us, as Frederick the Great said to his soldiers when they shrank from a desperate charge, "do you want to live always?"

THE VENEZUELAN SURPRISE.

THE speeches in Parliament, combined with Mr. Olney's application for British assistance for our commission, show that after much trouble we have at last got back to the position in which we stood before Mr. Olney wrote his despatch on the 20th of July last—or, if any one prefers it, in which we stood before the President wrote his message on the 17th of December. A gentlemanly note, such as Mr. Bayard wrote the other day to Lord Salisbury, would have undoubtedly secured the information we are now asking for, without the alarm and loss which have since intervened. In fact, if, as we suggested in December, the President had taken the threat out of the message by a letter of pacific instruction to the newly appointed commission, the trouble might have been allayed at once.

The speeches in Parliament show clearly that there is a strong desire on both sides not to quarrel with the United States on any subject, and least of all on the Monroe Doctrine. They show, also, the great surprise which both sides have felt on hearing that the Monroe Doctrine was involved in the Venezuelan dispute. But their surprise was probably no greater than ours here. It must be remembered that the appeals of the Venezuelans to us to take part in the controversy began in 1870 and continued with little intermission down to last year. Six American secretaries answered these appeals over a period of twenty-five years, both through correspondence with Great Britain and with Venezuela, and not one of them ever suggested that Great Britain was infringing on the Monroe Doctrine. Every one of them took up the attitude of the common friend of two quarrelling Powers. The discovery that Great Britain was threatening Venezuela with a violation of the Doctrine was made suddenly by Secretary Olney immediately after his accession to office. The American public had no idea of what was impending. It is true that for nearly a year Lodge, Chandler, Frye, the *Tribune's* Old Pensioner, and one or two others, had been engaged in a sort of antiphonal caterwauling about Venezuela, but as they caterwauled in just the same way about the Nicaraguan affair and the *Alliança* incident, the general impression was that they were merely preparing the country for a Jingo Presidential canvass. Few or none imagined that the State Department was taking them seriously. Senator Lodge and the Pensioner tried to give an air of seriousness to their labors by frequently describing the true Anglo-Venezuelan boundary line in print, and the exact nature and extent of Great Britain's encroachments, but nobody paid them much attention. If Senator Lodge knew as much about the matter as he said he did, it was to him, and not to Great Britain, that the Commission should have addressed itself for "documentary proof, historical narrative, unpublished archives, and other evidence." But nobody supposed that the State Department was paying any more heed to him than were other sensible people.

The whole affair having now got back to the region of civility and friendliness, it will do immense good if it brings home to our public the uselessness and unseemliness of what the Pensioner used to call a "vigorous foreign policy"—that is, the plan of addressing violent, menacing, if not ruffianly, despatches to foreign Powers. There is nothing in the field of international politics better established than the readiness of European Powers to put up with anything from us except direct and palpable insult or seizure of ships or territory. A quarrel with us is something from which they all shrink, because it promises no advantage and plenty of expensive fighting. Everything which has happened since Monroe's day, except the invasion of Mexico during the civil war, proves this. The stories the news agencies invent every now and then of a determination of Great Britain to assume a bellicose attitude towards us, by purchasing Cuba from Spain, or seizing Hawaii from the missionaries, are childishly silly. There is nothing which practical men in Europe view with more wonderment than our naval preparations and our apparent desire to fight somebody, because the ocean which surrounds us is in itself worth four of the largest fleets and four of the largest armies in the world. We cannot, in fact, have a quarrel except by undertaking war as an educational agency. Consequently there is no nation which needs less to vapor and threaten or crow in its diplomatic correspondence.

Our State Department might safely and ought always to illustrate to the world the majesty of moderation, the dignity of good manners. The great difficulty in the way of such a consummation is the press, which with few exceptions is apt to call for violent language in terms which shake the nerves of secretaries of state. Worse than this, it does its best to prevent the settlement of any international dispute on terms which will not hurt the foreigner's self-respect by always representing, when he meets us half way, that it was our "vigor"—that is, our insolence, abusiveness, and brutality—that brought him to terms. It is at this devil's work at this moment, by proclaiming that it was Mr. Cleveland's coarse threat which has "brought England to her knees," that it is our swagger which has drawn forth the pacific and friendly language of both the Ministry and Opposition in England, and the civil treatment accorded to our Commission; that, in short, in international affairs the ruffianly way is the more excellent way. It is impossible, when one reads this stuff, to avoid the conclusion that the widespread desire for war, the existence of which there is no denying — war with somebody, but especially with England—is largely newspaper work; and we know of nothing which reflects or has reflected more discredit on our civilization—not slavery, not lynching, not corruption, not lawlessness. We do not believe there is anything which has during the last century done so much to discourage the believers in human progress as the revelation that "Time's noblest offspring" was as full of desire to kill and wreck, for the fun of the thing, as the savage races on the site of whose corn-patches and torture-stakes we are erecting churches and colleges.

THE FUNCTION OF DISCUSSION.

Now that the Venezuela question has, after fearful uproar, passed into the field which it should never have left, that of investigation of facts, it is time to ask who is hereafter to discuss these differences with foreign nations. There can be no doubt that our government is framed on the assumption that it will be carried on by discussion—that is, by the practice of oral or written persuasion. The President is elected by a majority vote, after prolonged discussion. Both houses of Congress are supposed to resolve and enact after discussion. The regulation of discussion has become an important art, known as parliamentary procedure, in which every American youth is proud to be versed. The duty of hearing both sides has become an elementary principle of public morality. We take pains to teach our young men in colleges the art of debate—that is, the art of producing the two views which may be taken of nearly every social and political problem. All this, too, is done not as a means of sharpening the wits, like the controversies of the Schoolmen, but as a means of preparation for action of some kind. To discussion which does not pretend to prepare for action, we give the name of "academic," and everybody who wishes to be considered practical, or a man of business, declines to engage in it. And in discussing as a preparation for action, we are following an unbroken tradition of the human race since governments were first founded. The Greeks and Romans debated on public affairs much as we do, and even the Oriental despots were apt to have an inner council, whose advice they sought, which contained men who would produce the cons as well as the pros of any undertaking on which the sovereign was inclined to enter. That very ancient and much quoted saying, that "in the multitude of counsellors there is safety," does not mean that everything that a large number of men hurrah for is sure to be wise, but that what many men have decided on, after discussion from different points of view, is likely to be a good thing to do.

The thing which our Government seemed to consider wise in December last, a challenge to a first-class Power to fight over the untraced boundary of a semi-barbarous state in a tropical wilderness, was the third most solemn and serious proposal ever made in the name of the

American people. The first was the Declaration of Independence. The second was the opening of the war for the subjugation of the South in 1861. The two former were the result of great and protracted debate. The war of independence was prepared for by about ten years' discussion; that of 1861 by about thirty years' discussion. The challenge of last December received no discussion at all. The framers of the Constitution copied many things from the European monarchies, and in some particulars made the President more powerful than the King of England. But one power possessed by all European monarchs they denied him—that of declaring war. This was something they refused to trust to any one man's judgment or caprice. They gave it to the Legislature, with the evident design of making war a debatable subject—that is, of insuring public deliberation on it before it took place. To give a power to a legislature means that it shall be exercised only through public discussion, for in no other way can a legislature act.

But, oddly enough, although the framers of the Constitution made the change, it seems never to have been fully accepted mentally by the American public. It held on, and holds on to this day, to the old monarchical idea that when the King decides to go to war, it is no business of his subjects whether he is right or wrong. All they have to do is to "stand behind him" when he is defying the foe, and to follow him to the field when hostilities have begun. In all our recent disputes with foreigners, Congress and the politicians and the press have acted on this view. It found full expression in the Chilian trouble, in the Bering Sea dispute, and the other day in the Venezuelan affair. We were all expected either to keep silent when these controversies were being carried on, no matter what might be our opinion of their merits, or to take sides as vehemently as we could with our own Government. The Executive was to be allowed to occupy whatever positions it pleased, provided they were likely to promote hostilities, and our business was simply to help it to defend them. During the Chilian trouble the press, both daily and monthly, teemed with curious and absolutely novel doctrines of law and ethics, concocted solely as weapons of war. In the pending Venezuelan trouble, too, although we have seen hundreds if not thousands of newspaper comments, we cannot recall more than three or four which admitted that there was any question about the right or wrong of the matter, or that Great Britain had a leg to stand on. In fact, the vast majority of the newspapers contented themselves with roundly abusing people who thought the President ought not to fight England on a week's notice.

It is plain to be seen that under this system the relegation of the war-making power to Congress does us no good whatever. For all practical purposes the Constitution might as well have empowered the President to declare war for such reasons as might seem good to him, and to procure from Congress as much money as he might think necessary for the expenses of the fight. But a state of things which would entail no great inconvenience on the community under Edward III. or Henry V., when the nation was made up of small farmers, and had neither commerce nor credit, has very serious inconvenience in modern times, when every great nation has vast dealings with all others, and when, instead of hoarding gold, it relies on its credit to supply it with funds for emergencies. To such a nation no event is so grave as a war with a Power of nearly its own strength. Nothing can occur in its daily life needing so much debate. Its readiness for the contest, and the possible consequences of defeat, are among the most serious concerns of a civilized community. Instead of "standing behind" a man who proposes such a thing, and egging him on, the place of the patriot is in front of him, so as to demand a full account of his reasons. The more Congress, too, refuses or fails to discuss the situation, the more incumbent on the press is it to step into the gap and take up the neglected work of the Legislature; but it seems to be the last thing our press thinks of. What it has for the most part done during the late excitement is to "holler" that everything that anybody did which made for war was wise and good, and that whatever anybody did that made for peace was asinine, or corrupt, or English. This may be true, but such decisions should be reached through discussion—that is, after hearing what was to be said for peace. No man who advocates peace is, *ipso facto*, foolish. Peace is so earnestly desired by the bulk of men that there must always be some excuse for it which will bear stating.

A SPECIMEN SPANISH-AMERICAN REPUBLIC.

At the close of last year appeared a work, 'Il Guatamala,' by Tommaso Caivano, a Florentine lawyer who has spent many years in Central and South America, and has written several works which have had a wide circulation among Spanish-Americans. We count it timely that by the publication of this latest volume, Sig. Caivano enables us to see exactly what a Spanish-American republic is like to-day. Recent experience shows that we may be plunged without warning into difficulties, perhaps even into war, through entanglements with one or other of the sanguinary governments to the south of us; it is fortunate, therefore, that we should have put within our reach, by an intelligent and impartial foreigner, information which strips off illusions. During the past few months we have heard a great deal of effusive praise of our noble fellow-republicans in Venezuela and in other parts of Latin America, and of condemnation for British monarchists. Let us see what one of these republics really is.

After giving a rapid history of Guatemala from the time of its conquest down to last summer, Sig. Caivano describes very clearly the various elements of population by which the destiny of the country has been determined. These elements are three in number, viz.: (1) the creoles, or pure-blooded descendants of the Spanish settlers, who now form only about 5 per cent. of the whole; (2) the *ladinos* or *mestizos*, half-breeds, sprung from the intermingling of the Spaniards and Indians, and numbering about 15 per cent.; (3) the Indians, virtually serfs, who make up the remaining 80 per cent. In 1821 Guatemala declared herself independent of Spain, and called herself a republic. With Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica she formed a confederation whose character can be sufficiently inferred from the fact that she and her confederates fought 143 battles with one another in the course of twenty years. Then the league was dissolved. From 1842 to 1871 the government was in the hands of the creoles, who succeeded not only in maintaining order, but in engrafting on the country some of the rudiments of civilization. But in 1871 the *ladinos*, or half-breeds, stirred up a revolution which resulted in the overthrow of the creoles, and the establishment in power of the mongrel race which still dominates Guatemala.

The champion of this race was Rufino Barrios, who soon made himself President, and remained tyrant of Guatemala, until killed by a beneficent bullet in 1885, in a fight with the Salvadorians. The atrocities committed by this human tiger equal any recorded of ancient Roman despots, or of Renaissance Eccelinos and Viscontis, or of modern Turks. He proposed to wipe out the creoles, who alone had given Guatemala a veneer of law and decency. He had hundreds of them arrested and cast into loathsome dungeons, where they were daily given fifty or a hundred lashes, until some died and others, mutilated for life, by confessing imaginary plots, implicated new victims. For his afternoon amusement, he caused many of his enemies to be publicly shot in the principal square of the capital; in three days, seventeen persons were thus destroyed. Not content with wreaking his ferocity on men, he had the wives and daughters of his enemies exposed stark naked in cages. He revived the old Spanish *mandamientos*, or decrees, which reduced the Indian population to slavery. Needless to say, he levied taxes and emptied the treasury for his personal enriching. Such was the "panther of San Marcos," as the Guatemalese nicknamed him from his native village.

His nephew, Reina Barrios, the present President, began life as a street-sweeper; then was promoted by his uncle to superintend the flagellation of prisoners; then,

on the death of Rufino Barrios, fled the country, and was leading a dissolute life in what Sig. Caivano euphemistically calls an *appartement meublé* at Saratoga, when he was called back in 1892 to govern Guatemala. He is not charged with such inhuman crimes as his uncle, possibly because the latter's purging was so thorough as to render the creoles henceforth too weak to be persecuted; but his tyranny has been equally absolute. He makes and breaks the laws at will; he controls taxation; he grants and revokes concessions to monopolists; he sets aside the decisions of the courts. Every department of government, the judiciary, the bureaus of administration and police, are but organized blackmailing agencies; but the suitor who would be sure of satisfaction must bargain with the President himself. What a contemptible creature that President is, with his mixture of braggart and coward, Sig. Caivano describes with vivid strokes. The spectacle of the General-in-Chief of Guatemala needing a chair to mount his horse before reviewing his tatterdemalion army would draw a smile from even the fiercest Jingo.

Sig. Caivano closes his book with an account of the great "public works" which President Barrios and his satellites have been engaged in for several years in the hope of luring foreign capitalists to put more millions within their grasp. They promise before 1898 to complete a railroad between the capital and Puerto Barrios, on the Gulf of Mexico, which will bring the city of Guatemala within easy reach of tourists from the United States and Europe; but the line of this road has been surveyed through an almost impassable mountainous region, 150 miles across, which must not only make its construction enormously expensive (to the grief of the foreigners who are to provide the funds), but also preclude it from earning running expenses, should it ever be finished. At the capital, Guatemala, a city of 70,000 inhabitants, there is projected a park 368 hectares (about 1,000 acres) in extent, with artificial lakes, grottoes, and fountains, besides drives and walks, shrubberies, gardens, and a race-course; the whole connected with the town by a magnificent boulevard two miles and three-quarters long. In the city itself a grand hôtel, with 300 splendid suites of rooms, a theatre, baths, etc., etc., is to make the astonished millionaire tourists of the United States and Europe forget Paris and New York. The ulterior motive of these grandiose schemers is to establish a gambling hell which shall eclipse that of Monte Carlo.

Sig. Caivano ironically contrasts this project, designed to dazzle foreign lenders of money, with the squalor and filth of Guatemala itself—a town which has no sewers nor drainage and very few cesspools; which depends solely upon thousands of *zopilotes*, or buzzards, to rid it of the carrion, garbage, and ordure heaped in the streets and courtyards; a town in which typhus fever and smallpox are endemic, and where assassins and robbers make going out after dark unsafe; a town where most of the houses are only one story high, and correspondingly primitive in their internal arrangements. This is the place which Barrios plans to transform into a resort for the rich, the fastidious, and the dissipated pleasure-seekers of two continents!

We have left no space for speaking of the other subjects which Sig. Caivano treats of, such as the beauty of the scenery, the manners and customs of the people, the difficulties of travel, the oppression of the Indians, etc., etc. He is an observant traveller and an entertaining writer; but at the present crisis his great merit, as we have remarked, lies in his furnishing us with a truthful picture of a Spanish-American government. Volumes of Jingo rhodomontade over "our sister republics" are powerless against a page of his facts. His book, which has recently been issued in Italian and in Spanish, ought to be translated into English, and widely read by those of our people who want to know what sort of cattle our Government is asked by the perverters of the Monroe Doctrine to go to war for.

THE REAL CONQUESTS OF SCIENCE.

THE extraordinary rapidity with which the Röntgen discovery has been taken up in a thousand laboratories all over the world, and eagerly tested in its various applications and possibilities, is one of the most striking things about it. It has clearly set the scientific as well as the popular imagination on fire. The routine work of hundreds of trained observers and experimenters has been dropped, and they are giving their days and nights to ardent exploration of the apparently illimitable new province opened before them in industry and medicine, as well as in higher physical theory.

By the very existence of so great a body of scientific minute-men, ready for skilled service in any quarter on short notice, we are enabled to measure the assured march and achievements of science. Its thorough organization and its successful use of the coöperative method now give to every new discovery the certainty of speedy investigation by expert hands, unlooked-for extensions, and the widest application. This goes far to make up for the dying out of great all-round naturalists. One of the addresses before the Ipswich meeting of the British Association lamented the disappearance of the type of scientific mind like Darwin's or Dana's, which, in addition to special researches and distinction in some branch or branches, possesses wide-ranging knowledge and enormous power of generalization. But many smaller minds intelligently coöperating can do the work of one great mind. It is as if the brain-cells were simply scattered through many heads, instead of being housed in a single skull. In this way science holds her attainments and makes the future secure. The present revelation of the powerful and flexible instrument which she has at her disposal in the shape of trained investigators in all civilized lands, waiting only for a hint in order to surprise the world with new secrets of nature, must dispel all doubts of the permanency of scientific enthusiasm and of the services of science to mankind.

But vast as the practical benefits of the Röntgen photography promise to be, we are inclined to rate their indirect and what may be called their theoretic benefits higher. We mean their effect on the general attitude towards science and scientific methods. Utilitarian science is enormously valuable, is indispensable, but the scientific temper—the fronting of the universe with the calmness, the sobriety, the honesty of a scientific experimenter—is the great thing to aim at, and the utility of science is most useful when it promotes this. Leslie Stephen says with great truth and force:

> "We may denounce, and very rightly, those coarse forms of utilitarianism which imply an excessive love of mere material advantages; but it is not to be forgotten that the prestige acquired by modern science depends in great measure upon its application to purposes of direct utility. Railways and telegraphs are not everything. Most true! but the prospect of bringing the ordinary creeds of mankind into harmony with scientific conclusions depends, in no small degree, upon the general respect for men of science; and that respect, again, depends materially upon the fact that men of science can point to such tangible results as railroads and telegraphs. We need not fear to admit that, if there is a greater chance now than formerly of the ablest intellects acquiring a definite supremacy, and resisting the constant tendency of mankind to lapse into superstition, it is in great degree because such conquests over the material world can be appreciated even by the ignorant, and reflect credit upon that system of thought with which they are associated."

It is this increasing power of science over the general imagination, this unperceived but sweeping change in the mental attitude of whole nations wrought by it, which makes it the great solvent and conqueror that it is. Its kingdom cometh without observation. There are no violent cataclysms, no fierce struggles, no one deadly contest from which dates a new way of looking at the world. By insensible gradations, by subconscious mental processes, the old passes away and the new is ushered in. Historians note with surprise, at one interval after another, that persistent superstitions lose their power—now the belief in witchcraft, now in the royal touch. Definite causes for their abandonment cannot be assigned; they seem silently to drop to the bottom of the stream of thought, by their own weight. All we know is, that one generation trembles before them, the next one flouts them. Such subtle changes it is the peculiar province of science to bring about; and the secondary effects in this direction of every great quickening of the life and imagination of science, like the happy accident of Prof. Röntgen, are certain to be great.

Dr. Johnson used to maintain in his

fine regal way that the study of external nature could never be "the great and frequent business of the human mind." The "moral and religious discrimination of right and wrong" was the great affair; and he had characteristic words of contempt for those troublesome "innovators" of his own day who thought that the growth of plants or the motions of the stars had anything to do with education. Futile and barren enough has that position been made by the flight of a hundred years. The discriminators between right and wrong are just about where they were in Johnson's time—except as social evolution and scientific advance have opened up entire kingdoms of morals then unknown. But the "innovators" have gone on watching plant and star, interrogating the heavens above and the earth beneath, until the whole material condition and mental outlook of the race has been changed.

We are far from asserting that all is now clear sailing. The stubborn power of ignorance to wrest every new scientific scripture to its own destruction is already beginning to display itself in connection with the wonderful Röntgen discovery. Quack doctors are quick to say, "Aha, this shows that our electric rings and mesmeric belts and psychic brushes and combs are just what we claim them to be." The mysterious cathode rays, invisible but powerful, will doubtless renew the faith of many a despairing brother who carries a potato in his pocket for rheumatism. What the theological apologists will argue from the apparent need of readjusting the theory of light, those of our readers who are skilled in their methods of reasoning can guess. The Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch, the reasonableness of prayer for rain, the duty of instantly subscribing both to the creed and for the religious weekly of the able editor making the argument, will be among the very least of the things conclusively proved by the new photography. But even this folly, with which the gods themselves contend in vain, must yield in the end to the slow attrition of time, to the steady blowing of the wind by which science at last clears the densest minds of fog.

CONDÉ AND THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES.

PARIS, January 29, 1896.

THE Duke d'Aumale has brought to the end he had marked for himself the 'History of the Princes de Condé.' He can say now his "Exegi monumentum." The last volume of his great work is quite worthy of the great hero whose actions he has taken so much trouble to describe minutely, and whom he represents spending the last years of a troubled life in the calm of Chantilly. It will interest all those who have visited Chantilly to read the pages descriptive of the life of the Prince de Condé ("le héros," as he was called by Mme. de Sévigné) in his splendid retreat.

There is a chapter which gives quite unknown details about Condé's conduct during the period of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Speaking of this year 1685, which was marked by several considerable events in the life of Condé (the death of Cardinal de Retz, to whom Condé had become attached, the death of La Rochefoucauld, the death of Guitant, his great friend), the Duke d'Aumale adds:

"Why must this year also have been one of the shameful dates in the history of France and have witnessed a real mutilation of our country? The work of Henri IV. and of Richelieu was sacrificed to the scruples of a narrow and blind conscience, to the abstract conception of a power without limits, to the passion for uniformity which (even to our day) has always been confounded with unity by French minds; source of errors and of faults! Certain modern schools have preserved the brutal traditions of Louvois, the pitiless leveller. How many industries ceased to flourish! Some disappeared for ever; and it is by hundreds of thousands that we must reckon the Frenchmen, and some of the best among them, who were ruined, dispersed, destroyed! There are wounds which never heal."

The Duke d'Aumale found in his rich archives the letters of two regular correspondents of the Prince de Condé, who gave him exact accounts of what was going on, one in the west of France, the other in the south. Already in 1682—three years, therefore, before the final revocation of the Edict of Toleration—the intendants in the west were trying to put an end to the Reformed churches. M. de Morin, one of the correspondents, who writes from Poitou, tells of nothing but of churches shut, ministers arrested, women thrown into prison. Already all the inhabitants of Sables d'Olonne have emigrated; others are hindered by force from emigrating, and obliged to undergo conversion. Condé had among his friends a M. de Lussan, who had been wounded by his side in the wars; a brave officer, but an intolerant Catholic. Lussan is delighted when the dragoons are sent against the Protestants and lodged in their houses, "where they are the masters as in time of war." He writes to Condé in 1683: "Now is the time to finish these wretches and to destroy completely these Huguenots and their religion; the ministers think of nothing but flight, and their churches will be razed to the ground." From Languedoc Mlle. de Portès, a relation of Condé, writes to him that she is alarmed—the Huguenots are preparing for a struggle. But she is soon reassured; the times are past when Rohan conducted a long war in that province. Mlle. de Portès announces in later letters that Vivarais, one of the old strongholds of the Protestants, has made a complete submission.

The Edict of Revocation is proclaimed; its effects are terrific. Gourville, the old and sceptical friend of Condé, writes to him: "The Huguenots of Montpellier and of the diocese have been converted in a body; in three weeks there will not be a single Huguenot in Languedoc." The Prince receives similar news from Alais, from the Cévennes, from Sancerre, once an impregnable citadel of the Reformation. The Bishop of Autun writes to Condé that in Burgundy the conversions take place without the help of the dragoons; there is, however, here and there, some resistance. "No progress has been made with M. de Jaucourt (the Jaucourts have remained Protestants to this day), nor with Madame de Saint André Montbrun. This lady has declared that, at the age of seventy-two, people cannot change their religion." From Rouen, Condé received many letters from a certain Father Tixier, a Benedictine charged with the mission of caring for the last of the Longuevilles, who had lost his reason and who was living in the Abbey of Saint-Georges at Bocherville, near Rouen. Condé was the uncle and guardian of this unfortunate young man. The letters which Father Tixier wrote regularly to Condé are, says the Duke d'Aumale, "more striking in their severe simplicity than the passionate accounts of the Protestants. Full of facts, free from declamation, they form a crushing indictment against the revocation of the Edict of Nantes." Father Tixier is perfectly sincere and truthful. He writes, for instance, that a poor shopkeeper of Rouen, who had to quarter and feed in his house four cuirassiers in order that the fear of ruin might induce him to be converted, said: "My life, as well as my fortune, belongs to the King; my conscience belongs to God." Father Tixier says also: "The new converts are greater Huguenots than they were before." Many poor people, frightened at first, became converted, but, after a while, torn with remorse, they forsook the mass and returned to the *prêche;* then they were proclaimed *relaps* and prosecuted, and if, on their death bed, they refused the sacraments, their property was confiscated.

It is easy to imagine what effect such incidents produced on the mind of Condé; he could not forget that his ancestors had been, in the heroic times of the Reformation, the great military leaders of the Huguenots, and that some of them had died for their cause on the battlefield. His father, to be sure, had been brought up a Catholic, and, after having for a time given some hopes to the Protestants, had finally turned against them with all the violence of a convert, had become their avowed enemy, the personal adversary of the Duke de Rohan, the last great military leader of the Huguenots. But Condé had never espoused the fervor of his father; he had been notorious in his youth for his infidelity; he had surrounded himself in his earlier years with men who were called *libertins.* Many of these had died in the wars; when Condé came back to Chantilly he kept in his household those who had survived. He had around him a number of gentlemen and domestics who were Protestants, and they lived in harmony and on a footing of perfect equality with the Jesuits whom Condé's father had established in Chantilly. The Edict of Revocation, therefore, touched Condé personally. He was eminently tolerant, whether deriving his tolerance from old traditions or from his philosophical views. He had studied Spinoza, he was a philosopher; he could not bring himself to obey the tyrannical proscriptions of the edict. He remained passive, and took no measures against the Protestants established for a long time in the barony of Montmorency, nor against those of Villiers-le-Bel and Écouen. An old servant at Chantilly, named Lafont, could not be induced to change his religion. He was at the time with his family at Verneuil. We read in a letter addressed to the Prince: "They put the grenadiers in his house; so he determined to follow M. de Verneuil to the chapel. He knelt before the altar; the curate read him the formula of what he had to believe; he rose without saying a word. The grenadiers left his house, and he returned to Chantilly." This conversion seemed a little summary, but Condé, judging that Lafont had conformed to the edict, ordered that he should be let alone.

We find, in the Duke d'Aumale's book, many dramatic episodes of the terrible persecution. We see, for instance, how much interest Condé took in the case of an old client of his house, M. de Morin, the son of a president of the Parlement of Guyenne, and of his brother, a councillor of the *chambre de l'Édit* at the same Parlement. The Councillor, having re-

solved not to renounce his religion, he hid himself in Paris; his wife found an asylum in the château of Chantilly. Morin had a child, whom he thought well hidden with him; but his son was taken from him, as the edict did not allow the obstinate Huguenots to keep their children. With much difficulty, Morin succeeded in having his child placed in the house of his tutor, M. de Mondion. He himself departed for Neuchâtel, where he was recommended by Condé to the authorities.

"Let us not forget," says the Duke d'Aumale, "that when Condé gave to Morin and to others the means of crossing the frontier of the kingdom, when he assured them by his recommendations an asylum in foreign parts as well as a livelihood, he performed an act of courageous humanity, an infraction of the orders of the King, which he was accustomed to respect so scrupulously; for the severest punishments were decreed against Huguenots who should attempt to fly, or those who should favor their flight. It was later that the King relaxed his severity on this point and tolerated the departure of so many unfortunates for whom the kingdom had been transformed into a prison; and then began the fatal exodus which deprived the country of so many good citizens, and filled foreign countries with irreconcilable enemies of France."

Morin did not remain long at Neuchâtel; he left for Holland, where the French Protestants had begun to group themselves round the Prince of Orange. They recognized as a sort of a chief a son of La Force, the marquis who had, many years before, followed Condé in exile and had never returned to France. In Holland, Morin continued to receive a pension from Condé.

Louis XIV. allowed only one Huguenot to leave France with a passport; it was the Marquis de Ruvigny, who had long been the deputy-general of the Reformed churches of France at the court, a sort of ambassador near the King. Ruvigny had played a great part in the times of the troubles, and was personally liked by the King, but he refused to conform to the Edict of Revocation. Before leaving France, Ruvigny wished to give to Condé a public mark of his deference and of the gratitude of the Protestants who had experienced his kindness and his tolerance. He asked permission to stop on his way to exile at Chantilly with his family, and he spent there a day and a night. Ruvigny recommended the Huguenots to Condé before departing. He was to see him no more; Condé was old, broken by the gout, and already thinking of putting "an interval between life and death," and meditating how he should make his own conversion before dying. He had never been in the habit of receiving the communion, he was what we to-day should call a free-thinker. The Jesuits who lived in his house had been carefully chosen among the most cultured and refined men of the order; they were treated as friends by Condé—they were not his spiritual guides. Nothing can be more interesting, for those who wish to penetrate the depths of the human soul, than the final chapter in which the Duke d'Aumale tells us in what manner Condé prepared himself for his latter end: what thoughts engaged him, what were his preoccupations before leaving the stage which he had filled with so much glory, and on which he had led such a checkered life.

Correspondence.

JEFFERSON'S DRAFTS OF THE KENTUCKY RESOLUTIONS OF 1798.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a certain absurdity in imagining that anything material on the doctrine of nullification can still be added to the elaborate discussions of nearly one hundred years, after the entire disappearance of the question as one of practical value in our politics. Yet in the whole of these discussions, both political and historical, no mention has been made of Jefferson's first or rough draft of the Kentucky Resolutions, though it throws important light on the completed fair copy so frequently quoted, and also on the resolutions as adopted by the Kentucky Legislature. There is a story to the effect that a minister troubled his deacons by unguarded speeches, and was accordingly waited on by them, with the request that he would be more careful. "Oh, brethren," he replied, "if you only knew what I didn't say!" What Jefferson said in his first draft and omitted in his second seems to me important if not essential.

In the first clause, after the claim—

"That to this compact each state acceded as a state, and is an integral party, its co-states forming, as to itself, the other party"—

Jefferson wrote the following clause, which he struck out in the rough draft:

"That the constitutional form of action for this commonwealth as a party with respect to any other party is by it's organized powers & not by it's citizens in a body."

Equally illustrating Jefferson's temporary want of faith in the people was an alteration in the eighth section; and how far his cooler judgment toned down the threat is most interesting in the comparison:

[ERASED CLAUSE.]

"But that however confident at other times this commonwealth would have been in the deliberate judgment of the co-states and that but one opinion would be entertained on the unjustifiable character of the acts herein specified, yet it cannot be insensible that circumstances do exist, & that passions are at this time afloat which may give a bias to the judgment to be pronounced on this subject, that times of passion are peculiarly those when precedents of wrong are yielded to with the least caution, when encroachments of powers are most usually made & principles are least watched. That whether the coincidence of the occasion & the encroachment in the present case has been from accident or design, the right of the commonwealth to the government of itself in cases not [*illegible*] parted with, is too vitally important to be yielded from temporary or secondary considerations: that a fixed determination therefore to retain it, requires us in candor and without reserve to declare & to warn our co-states that considering the said acts to be so palpably against the constitution as to amount to an undisguised declaration that that compact is not meant to be the measure of the powers of the general government, but that it is to proceed in the exercise over these states of any & all powers whatever, considering this as seizing the rights of the states & consolidating them in the hands of the general government, with power to bind the states (not merely in the cases made federal [*casus federis*] but) in all cases whatsoever by laws not made with their consent, but by other states against their consent; considering all the consequences as nothing in comparison with that of yielding the form of government we have chosen & of living under one [*struck out*] deriving it's powers from it's own will and not from our authority, this commonwealth, as an integral party, does in that case protest against such opinions and exercises of undelegated & unauthorized power, and does declare that recurring to it's natural right of judging & acting for itself, it will be constrained to take care of itself, & to provide by measures of it's own that no power not plainly & intentionally delegated by the constitution to the general government, shall be exercised within the territory of this commonwealth."

[SUBSTITUTE CLAUSE.]

"But that they [the co states] will concur with this comm. in considering the said acts so palpably against the const. as to amount to an undisguised declatn. that that compact is not meant to be the measure of the powers of the genl. govmt., but that it will proceed in the exercise over these states of all powers whatsoever, that they will view this as seizing the rights of the states & consolidating them in the hands of the genl govt. with power assumed to bind the states (not merely in the cases made federal) but in all cases whatsoever, by laws made not with their consent but by others against their consent, that this would be to surrender the form of govmt. we have chosen & to live under one deriving it's powers from it's own will and not from our authority, and that the co-states recurring to their natural right in cases not made federal will concur in declaring these acts void and of no force, & will each take measures of it's own providing that neither these acts nor any others of the government not plainly and intentionally authorized by the country to the genl. govmt. shall be exercised within their respective territories."

These are the only material differences between the rough draft and the fair copy; but while on this subject, I wish to call attention to one hitherto unnoted fact. In the two Jefferson drafts the words "nullification" and "nullify" each occur once, close together, being the earliest-known use of the words in the political sense in which they were afterwards employed. The resolutions as voted by the Kentucky Legislature omitted these words, and only by the use of the word "nullification" in the supplementary resolutions of 1799 did that word pass into political literature. Many historians (Henry Adams, 'History of U. S.' i., 205; Schouler, i., 424; McMaster, ii., 422; and Hildreth, v., 275) state that this was a tempering of Jefferson's extreme plan of action by the more moderate legislative body, and Von Holst (i., 149) goes even further, stating:

"That Jefferson was not only an advocate, but the father, of the doctrine of nullification, is thus well established. It may be that Nicholas secured his assent to the striking out of these sentences, but no fact has as yet been discovered in support of this assumption. Still less is there any positive ground for the allegation that Jefferson had begun to doubt the position he had assumed. Various passages in his later letters point decidedly to the very opposite conclusion."

How far the "fair copy" on which these various writers based their statements was fair evidence always seemed to me questionable, since the mere existence of the paper in the Jefferson manuscripts was proof positive that it was not the copy given by Jefferson to Nicholas. Fortunately I have discovered a brief note from Jefferson to Nicholas, written after the resolutions had been put into his hands, to the following effect:

"The more I have reflected on the phrase in the paper you shewed me, the more strongly I think it should be altered. Suppose you were instead of the invitation to cooperate in the annulment of the acts, to make it an invitation 'to concur with this commonwealth in declaring, as it does hereby declare, that the said acts are, and were ab initio, null, void and of no force, or effect.' I should like it better. Health, happiness, and Adieu."

As the word "annulment" occurs nowhere in the Jefferson drafts, it is obvious that the striking out of the word "nullification" was done at Jefferson's request, and from the manner in which Nicholas utilized the suggested change, the inference is strong that the copy of the resolutions he had received from their author was radically different from the fair copy which has been so often quoted as representing Jefferson's final opinion.

Paul Leicester Ford.

THE FACULTY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF HALLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The notice of the last livraison of Pauly's 'Real-Encyklopädie' in a recent number of the *Nation* assigns its editor-in-chief, Prof. Georg Wissowa, to the University of Marburg. It may be of interest to some of your readers to know that this eminent scholar and interesting lecturer has succeeded the late Prof. Keil at the University of Halle-Wittenberg, entering upon his duties last October. His accession to the faculty of Halle makes its corps of classical instructors again one of the strongest in Germany. The transfer of Prof. Blass from Kiel, a few years ago, and this latest appointment shows that it is the intention of the Prussian Ministry of Instruction to maintain at Halle the noble traditions that have made it one of the most notable centres of classical scholarship in Germany. Blass, Dittenberger, and Wissowa in classical philology, Robert in archæology, Pischel in Sanskrit, and Eduard Meyer in ancient history, not to speak of the able younger men, are names that are sure to allure an increasing number of American students, especially those who wish to avoid the crowds of Americans, too often on pleasure rather than on study bent, who throng the lecture-halls and the *pensions* of the larger cities. Edward Capps.

Chicago, February 10, 1896.

THE FIRST UNITARIAN CHURCH IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to question a statement in the sketch of Dr. Furness in your issue of February 6, in which his church in Philadelphia, dating from 1796, is spoken of as "the first organized as such [Unitarian] in the United States." In the Unitarian church at Northumberland, Pa., of which I was for four years the pastor, there is a mural tablet to Dr. Priestley which states that the church was founded by him in 1794. The only point in question, for the settlement of which I believe no documents are extant, is whether it was organized "*as a Unitarian Church*." But when we remember that Priestley had already adopted the name, and that he was refused recognition by the other clergymen of Northumberland and the neighborhood, there would seem to be little room for doubt that the church he founded there in 1794 was a Unitarian church in name as well as in fact.

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

Eastport, Me.

[Our correspondent's inference seems to be valid. It is certainly an interesting fact that, whether in Northumberland or in Philadelphia, the first Unitarian church organized as such in America was organized by Dr. Priestley, the leading English Unitarian of the eighteenth century.—Ed. Nation.]

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL IN ROME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me, through your columns, to correct an error that may otherwise lead to misapprehensions touching the resources of the new American School in Rome. In my just-printed annual report, for the sake of expressing my appreciation of the School and of commending it to the public-spirited as deserving the most liberal pecuniary support, I referred to its organization and projected work. In reproducing, however, certain statements from a document issued by the Archæological Institute of America, I inadvertently credited the Institute with two or three appropriations to the School in Rome when they had really been made to the School in Athens. I find no excuse for the oversight except that of inevitable haste at the time I wrote, and the fact that the school last named in the original document before the statements quoted was "the newly founded American School of Classical Studies in Rome." While I much regret the slip, it is with some sense of relief that I remember that this correction is likely to reach many hundreds more than the error, and that to all of these it will carry one more endorsement and commendation of a most worthy enterprise projected for the improvement of American scholarship.—Yours respectfully,

William F. Warren.

Boston University, February 12, 1896.

"HIRED MAN."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Little as the fact of rendering service is thought to be derogatory, we often find it needful, in order that our fellow-sovereigns may live in perfect charity with us, to be particular how we style a person by whom service is rendered. Americans at large acquiescing, the *servant-man*, accompanied by his old-fashioned *master*, if he has not indeed gone the way of the dodo and the dinotherium, has, at least, retired on indefinite leave of absence, his substitute in office being the *hired man*.

Of this expression, a strange seeming one, its meaning considered, what is the history? Ordinarily, I believe, it is regarded as a euphemism; and such it now is, unquestionably. It appears, however, to have been, with us, originally, som thing quite different. Our cis-atlantic forefathers, even in the days when they were British subjects, had their *hired men;* and the following passage, extracted from a dissertation written in Pennsylvania in 1751, shows who were formerly thus designated:

"Why, then, will America purchase slaves? Because slaves may be kept as long as a man pleases, or has occasion for their labour; while *hired men* are continually leaving their master (often in the midst of his business) and setting up for themselves."

Male slaves being *unhired men*, the term *hired men*, if we bear in mind the circumstances under which it was employed, was strictly appropriate as distinguishing labourers or domestics who were not slaves. *Servant-men*, in its stead, since the appellation would have comprehended *bondmen*, would have failed in preciseness of description.

Was it the custom, prior to the War of Independence, to speak of *hired women*, *hired boys*, and *hired maids* or *girls*, as well as of *hired men?* Presumably it was. The point could be ascertained by turning over old records.

Our colonial grandsires of course stressed the first syllable in *hired man*, while we make the phrase, in its altered acceptation, a spondee. And in so doing we observe analogy. Witness, for instance, *black-sheep*, 'reprobate,' like which we should, moreover, supplying a hyphen, write *hired-man*.

The quotation given above is taken from the volume of the *Annual Register* for 1760.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, February 5, 1896.

HEINE'S SOLITUDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your mention, among the autograph letters in the British Museum, of Washington's letter to the Earl of Buchan—it is in the first case to the left, as you enter from the Grenville Library—reminds me of another letter in the same collection written by Heine from Boulogne, under date of July 15, 1834; it is characteristic: "Depuis 10 jours je suis ici, jouissant d'une parfaite solitude, car je suis entourré de la mer, de bois, et d'Anglais, qui sont aussi muet que le bois—je ne veux pas dire aussi *hölzern*"—Yours very truly,

Robert H. Marr.

New Orleans, February 11, 1896.

Notes.

White's 'Natural History of Selborne' is to be edited, with an introduction and notes, by Prof. Edward S. Morse, for Ginn & Co.'s "Classics for Children" series.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have nearly ready a translation, by Will S. Monroe, of Comenius's 'School of Infancy,' with portrait, introduction, notes, and bibliography.

Macmillan & Co. announce 'Art and Humanity in Homer,' by Prof. Wm. Cranston Lawton; a translation, by Dr. Alexander Bruce, of Thoma's 'Text-book of General Pathology and Pathological Anatomy'; and a collection of the traditional hymns of the Ancient Gaelic Church in Scotland, by Alexander Carmichael

Henry Holt & Co. announce for speedy issue 'On Parody,' an essay on the art, with humorous selections from its masters, beginning with the Greeks and Romans, by Arthur Shadwell Martin.

Roberts Bros. have ready for immediate issue No. 3 of Prof. Todd's "Columbian Knowledge Series," entitled 'A Hand-book of Arctic Discoveries,' by Gen. A. W. Greely, U. S. Army, a compact volume, exhibiting such accomplished results as may answer the inquiries of the busy man who often wishes to know what, when, and where rather than how. Maps and bibliographies have not been neglected.

The first century of the French Institute is to be commemorated by Count de Franqueville, a member of that body, in two quarto volumes of elegant manufacture, 'Le Premier Siècle de l'Institut de France: 25 Octobre 1795–1895' (Paris: J. Rothschild; New York: Lemcke & Büchner). The history and biography of the Institute and its titulary members form one division; in the second a like service is performed for the "membres libres," the foreign and non-resident associates, correspondents, etc., and it will contain lists of foundations, prizes, and the like. Rubricated initials and an abundance of photographic illustrations in the text adorn and elucidate the narrative.

The panorama of the year is unrolled as usual in the bound volume of *Harper's Weekly* for 1895. The war between China and Japan determines the illustrations at the beginning; the menace of war on account of Venezuela, at the end. Between these events comes the unlucky death of Secretary Gresham, whose portrait is succeeded by that of Secretary Olney, President Cleveland's *âme damnée* so far as we can now judge. This change of officers is certainly the most momentous event recorded in the *Weekly*, beside which the reversal of the income-tax decision counts for the merest trifle. There is a page of portraits of new

United States Senators, a choice assortment. For the rest, we pass in review the Lexow Committee, the Brooklyn strike, the grand combination Astor-Lenox-Tilden library of New York, the Boston Public and the Congressional Libraries with their respective decorations, the city shows, the yacht races, the Atlanta Exposition. Mr. Weyman's 'Red Cockade' is the chief serial, but the illustrations to Mr. Bangs's 'House-boat on the Styx' can be studied only here at their original scale and with full enjoyment of Mr. Newell's cleverness.

The twenty-eighth volume of *Harper's Bazar* furnishes data enough, with its bewildering array of feminine costumes, for the expert in such things to calculate the curve which sleeves and skirts are now following. From such mysteries we refrain, to note only the less technical contents: serial fiction provided by Maarten Maartens, Mrs. Rebecca Harding Davis, and Mr. Howells; notes on contemporary music; reproductions of contemporary art, with an occasional harking back to Gainsborough or Sir Joshua for types of female loveliness; "T. W. H.'s" column, "Women and Men," running through the year and covering things literary and moral in Mr. Higginson's well known style.

Mr. William Woodville Rockhill, the newly appointed First Assistant Secretary of State and one of the most distinguished of living Asiatic travellers, has given us an account of his second journey to Thibet, in the form of a 'Diary of a Journey through Mongolia and Tibet,' published by the Smithsonian Institution. The bulky volume will be of much value and interest to specialists, as the author, who speaks both Chinese and Thibetan, had great advantages over any rivals in the same region, and knew how to make the most of them. The public, however, will find the mass of uncouth names and minute geographical information rather formidable, and be more inclined to admire than to read. Although Mr. Rockhill did not succeed in following out his original plan of pushing through to India, but, like so many others, was forced to turn back, he went over much new ground, and has added materially to our knowledge of one of the least explored countries in the world.

'The Fifth Army Corps,' by Lieut.-Col. W. H. Powell, 11th U. S. Infantry (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is a book sure to be very attractive to the veterans of the civil war who were members of that corps organization in the Army of the Potomac. For the general reader, who naturally thinks that in a stout octavo he should find a complete history of the campaigns mentioned, it has the defect of being limited to the standpoint of a minor fraction of the army in Virginia. A more serious fault is that the author, in his laudation of McClellan as a commander, pays no attention to the definite criticisms of that general's campaigns which are based on the fuller knowledge gained since 1862, and especially upon the established fact that his army was greatly superior in numbers and equipment to the Confederates. He also shows a confusion of ideas with regard to the relations of the President, the Cabinet, and Congress to the army which is simply astonishing.

The importance of the aid of photography in modern science-teaching is admirably illustrated in 'An Atlas of the Fertilization and Karyokinesis of the Ovum,' by Edmund B. Wilson, Ph.D., with the coöperation of Edward Leaming, M.D. (New York: For the Columbia University Press by Macmillan & Co.). Subjects beyond the reach of any but the most expert microscopists and the best of apparatus are shown as they appeared in the most perfect results of long continued observations and in the most successful of many attempts at representation. The atlas exhibits forty stages, in maturation, fertilization, and cleavage, to the Blastula of sixteen cells, photographed directly from sections of minute eggs. The figures set forth the phenomena exactly as seen by original investigators, and are sufficiently numerous to trace the courses of reasoning by which accepted conclusions have been attained. The many diagrammatic figures corresponding to the phototypes reduce necessary textual explanations to the smallest compass. The technical terms are clearly defined. In the second part—that is, the Atlas proper—the natural order has been followed, but in the general introduction the sequence is fertilization, cleavage, maturation, and "fertilization, the cycle completed." This arrangement presents no difficulty for an embryologist, but in the case of a student beginning the study it leads to confusion which has no compensating excuse for its existence. It is a slight blemish in a work which in general is well adapted to the purpose for which it was constructed. The Atlas is worthy of a good reception.

To persons desiring a moderately comprehensive knowledge of animal life below the vertebrates, to teachers of high or grammar schools, or of such courses in zoölogy as do not include exhaustive special investigations, and to students under such instructors, Arthur E. Shipley's 'Zoölogy of the Invertebrata' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) has much to recommend it. The material has been carefully selected, the arrangement is good, the text is clear and concise, and the abundant illustrations are of excellent quality. The author has laid particular stress on morphology, rather than on histology, embryology, or natural history. He has chosen an example of each of the larger groups, one typifying the whole group, for dissection, illustration, and discussion, and also has given special prominence to intermediate forms which by their affinities are placed between the larger groups. Absence of bibliographical references, commonly so numerous, and of the multitudinous footnotes ordinarily complicating the text and perplexing the inexperienced student, renders the matter more easy to grasp, and really makes the pages more attractive for the classes it is intended to reach. A work better suited to the needs of those for whom it was prepared is not easily found.

We are in the midst of an active period of production of German dictionaries. The fourth edition of Flügel's 'Universal English-German and German-English Dictionary' is only four years old, but already we have a namesake rival, Flügel-Schmidt-Tanger's 'Dictionary of the English and German Language for Home and School,' "with special reference" to the foregoing (Brunswick: George Westermann; New York: Lemcke & Büchner). The superficial differences are Flügel's three volumes as against the triumvirate's two, and fine and open type respectively. In this latter particular the newcomer should be decidedly welcomed. The gain in space lies in the English-German portion, and as this will be much less used than the German-English by an English-speaking buyer, he will be apt to prefer the triumvirate's one volume to Flügel's two. It is but fair to add, however, that the literary features of Flügel's English-German section, as shown in the illustrative quotations from a wide range of English sources, are wholly wanting in the newer work. Between the German-English portions it is hard to choose, and we can only counsel the procuring of both if one's means permit. Neither deals at all in etymologies.

Whatever be here the choice, the more scholarly and philological dictionary-seeker will, on examination, decidedly wish to own also the new 'Deutsches Wörterbuch' of Prof. Hermann Paul, of which the first instalment (A—Gebühr) is to hand (Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Lemcke & Büchner). Its plan is sufficiently novel. It does not aim to furnish an exhaustive vocabulary or a complete series of definitions. It deals with the speech of the present day, and with the older only by way of comparison, to show the significant departures from classic usage in the eighteenth century and from the Biblical. Hence the references are principally to Goethe, Klopstock, Lessing, Luther, Pestalozzi, and Wieland. Take the word *billig* for an example of the author's treatment. He notes its MHG form of *billîch*, and the prolongation of the ending *ch* into the seventeenth century; its root *bil-;* its synonymy with *recht*, but with an aspect not towards statutes but towards natural perception of right; its sense of 'cheap' ('not dearer than it should be'), originating in the last century. In this brief exposition there is a single (proverbial) illustration. *Ein* is discussed in two pages. The work will be complete in October. It is, as German books go, clearly printed in a handsome Gothic letter, but it would have been an immense condescension to a foreigner if the phrases and examples had been picked out (as in Heyne) in Roman characters. It will, however, find a ready welcome as it is.

Velhagen & Klassig, well known for their excellent series of popular illustrated books, have undertaken one of artists' monographs, the purpose of which is to give in popular form a scholarly history of classic and modern art. The series is under the direction of Prof. H. Knackfuss, author of the excellent 'Deutsche Kunstgeschichte' published by the same firm, and he has written many of the monographs himself. Thus far the series contains volumes on Raphael, Rubens, Rembrandt, Michelangelo, Dürer, Velasquez, Menzel, Teniers, A. v. Werner, Knaus, Murillo. They are all printed on good paper, handsomely bound, and, although arranged in a series, each volume is complete in itself. The price ranges from two to three marks, but a *Prachtausgabe*, limited to 100 copies and numbered, has been provided at twenty marks per volume. The volumes on Menzel, by Knackfuss, and on Werner, by Adolf Rosenberg, lie before us, and are indeed very attractive. They contain about 130 pages each, and the former has 141 reproductions from paintings and drawings, while the latter is ornamented with 125. Those from paintings cannot fail to be pleasing to every eye; those from drawings and from studies have a special value for artists.

Signor Angelo Lupatelli's 'Storia della Pittura in Perugia' (Foligno: F. Campitelli) will be of service to such students as have no access to libraries stocked with the numberless publications, old and new, on Italian art. Signor Lupatelli has compiled from good sources, and with a certain intelligence; but neither in his bibliography nor in his text do we find mention of Morelli's writings, so epoch-making in the study of Umbrian art. 'Le Petit Guide de Pérouse,' by the same author, can be safely recommended.

The *Observer* (Portland, Conn.: Bigelow) has been enlarged, and bids fair to be a very popular as well as valuable magazine for outdoor

recreation and education. The department of birds is under the care of Mr. John H. Sage, and will have series of articles by Florence A. Merriam and Olive Thorne Miller. The department of microscopy will be conducted by Miss M. A. Booth; that of astronomy by Miss Mary Proctor, daughter of the lately deceased astronomer; and that of botany by Miss C. A. Shepard. There will also be series of articles by Dr. Henry C. McCook, Anna Botsford Comstock, Elizabeth G. Britton, and Dr. Alfred C. Stokes. These are all experienced writers, and confidence may be felt in both their science and their English. It is to be hoped that it is not the editorial hand that is responsible for the announcement that practical microscopy "will take a high stand, worth more than double the price of the *Observer*."

An illustrated account of a recent visit to the Faroes opens an unusually interesting number of the *Geographical Journal* for January. This is followed by Capt. Vaughan's narrative of his journeys in central Persia, and a discussion by Col. Holdich of the origin of the Kafir of the Hindu-Kush. This interesting race, whose independence is now threatened by Afghanistan, claims to be of Greek descent, and their appearance is of a distinct Aryan type, with low forehead, prominent aquiline features, and a relatively fair complexion. While the most natural hypothesis is that they are the "modern representatives of a very mixed race, chiefly of Tajak origin," yet some curious facts are given which seem to show their connection with the legendary subjugation of India by Dionysus mentioned by Arrian. Some yet undeciphered inscriptions found in their valley "recall a Greek alphabet of archaic type," and a hymn to their war-god, of which a translation is given, is a Bacchic hymn, wanting only the "accessories of vine-leaves and ivy to make it entirely classical." A very creditable piece of exploration in the Canadian Rockies by a party of Yale students is described by one of their number, Mr. W. D. Wilcox. It is accompanied by two contour maps and some reproductions of photographs of Lake Louise and the neighboring mountains. A useful sketch map of British Guiana is given, so shaded as to show at a glance the territory not in dispute and the extreme claims of both Venezuela and Great Britain. The *Journal* for April, 1895, we will remind our readers, contains an admirably clear map of the whole region, indicating plainly the Schomburgk line, the gold districts, the various stations, settlements, and trails.

Among the articles of general interest in the *Annales de Géographie* for January is an account of the trade of Tripoli with the Sudan. There are three principal routes across the desert, and the caravans, starting generally in the autumn, carry out cloths, hardware, glass, arms, ammunition, sugar, and essences. They bring back gold, from Bornu and Damergu, ostrich feathers, skins, ivory, gum, wax, and civet. The caravan-men are either part owners of the goods, or more frequently are hired by the merchants, receiving in payment a part of the proceeds. The attempts of the French and English to divert this trade to Algeria and the Niger have so far proved unsuccessful. Following this is a study of the little-known region to the west of the Nile affected by the Franco-Congo treaty of 1894, and a summing up of the results of the war between China and Japan. The writer believes that the harder terms of the first treaty of peace would have been in the end better for China, which has apparently sunk again into the lethargy that must end in the fall of the empire.

Since we noticed the forcible and not too amiable onslaught of M. Espinas on Rousseau's social "system" in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* of October 15 and November 15, 1895, we ought sooner to have called at least equal attention to the editorial reply of M. Éd. Dreyfus-Brisac in the number for December 15. It is a warm defence of Rousseau's veracity as well as of his consistency, and is fairly conclusive on the main point at which M. Espinas is controverted, namely, the divergences between the rough draft of the 'Contrat Social' and its definitive form in print. Indeed, M. Espinas is exposed to the charge of very careless if not grossly unfair comparison and use of these documents, and is roundly scored by M. Dreyfus-Brisac. The discussion over the "system" is perhaps not ended, but the question has, in our opinion, very little interest for the present generation. It were much to be wished that what is admirable, charming, and salutary in Rousseau's writings might be enjoyed without reference to his philosophy or his reputation.

M. Anatole France's recent address before the Association Générale des Étudiants deserves mention as being graced with one of the most beautiful tributes to Science that ever came from the lips of a man of letters. Some of the sentences are apothegms: "Elle soutient notre curiosité; nous devons l'en aimer. Elle ne l'épuise pas; nous devons l'en aimer encore." "Elle fait leur [men's] vie moins brève, plus sûre, plus abondante et plus variée. *Elle les abrite pour penser*." Such homage, coming from the opposite camp, is beneficial at a time when so many minds the civilized world over are kept at a tension in adjusting the rival claims of the sciences and the letters.

Hitherto only the leisurely traveller through Italy has been acquainted with one of the most lovable creations of Italian genius, Moretto's Virgin, the most motherly of Madonnas, in the mountain shrine of Paitone, near Brescia. But recently this masterpiece has been photographed by Alinari Bros., who at the same time made reproductions of all Moretto's pictures at Brescia. This town, so rich in works by this master of delicate feeling and exquisite tone, is rich also in works by his splendid rival Romanino, and in the gallery are a number of fine canvases by the best known member of this school, the great portrait-painter Moroni. Among the other paintings at Brescia photographed by Alinari is the "Annunciation" by the rare and precious Jacopo Bellini, fascinating "Nativities" by Lotto and Savoldo, a "Salvator Mundi" by the young Raphael, and a fine head by his Urbinate master Timoteo Viti.

The students of the Slade School of Art, Oxford, England, are shortly to issue a new quarterly, the *Quarto*. By permission of Mr. Leopold de Rothschild, a photogravure reproduction of "A Holy Family," by Andrea del Sarto, will serve as frontispiece to the first number. A tempting feature of this new art magazine is to be a "collector's edition" of twenty copies, on Japanese paper and bound in vellum. With each of these copies there will be distributed, in addition to an original etching by Mr. Wm. Strang, "a small original autograph sketch, . . . no two alike," by one of the contributors. Among these appear the names of the late Lord Leighton, Mr. Geo. Fred. Watts, and Mr. Joseph Pennell.

It was not to be expected that the late Dr. William H. Furness of Philadelphia would fail to have a place in Mr. F. Gutekunst's photographic gallery of celebrities. The "imperial panel," in fact, of this eminent preacher is among the most successful of the long array, and has the merit of being nearly if not quite "untouched." Thus all the fine lines of the skin combine with the usual marks, not only of age but of geniality and benevolence, to produce a speaking likeness which will be cherished by a large circle of Dr. Furness's friends and admirers.

—'American Book-Prices Current,' compiled from auctioneers' catalogues by Luther S. Livingston, and published by Dodd, Mead & Co., wisely adopts the form and style of the British 'Book-Prices Current,' of which the ninth volume is before us (London: Elliot Stock & Co.). In both these indispensable works the arrangement is by sales, preceded by a tabular list; the entries are progressively numbered (6,025 in the American, 6,748—a falling off—in the British); an index groups the scattered authors or anonymous works; and a preface reviews the features of the year's sales as to rarity, prices, etc. There is much food here for study and international comparison, the principle of inclusion (a pound value as a customary minimum) being about the same in both cases. We have roughly computed the number of separate entries in some two dozen instances, showing the respective American and British transactions in Almanacs, 10, 2, Bibles (printed), 78, 61; Boccaccio, 6, 10; Cervantes, 13, 16; Dibdin, 23, 6; Balzac, 8, 1. American interest in Borrow surpasses British, 5, 2; as in Browning, 30, 10, Dickens, 49, 34, Tennyson, 38, 23, Thackeray, 36, 21, and Walton, 31, 17. Even Cruikshank stands 32, 39, but Bewick only 5, 23. Bacon items are American 3, British 11. Matthew Arnold is tied, 4, 4. With American authors the disparity is great indeed: Audubon, 7, 1; Emerson, 31, 1; Hawthorne, 39, 1; Holmes, 26, 1; Longfellow (and this is singular), 49, 2 only; Lowell, 24, 0; and Whittier, 46, 1. But the rage for first editions has been catered to by Mr. Livingston in admitting sales below the five-dollar mark. It will be seen that with our American collectors the order of favoritism is Longfellow, Whittier, Hawthorne, Emerson, Holmes, Lowell. We should notice that the 'American Book-Prices Current' is handsomely printed from type in a limited edition of 400 copies, which must surely appreciate.

—At the suggestion of Dr. S. A. Green, and as an addendum to his 'List of Early American Imprints belonging to the Library of the Massachusetts Historical Society' recently noticed by us, Nathaniel Paine has prepared 'A List of Early American Imprints, 1640-1700, belonging to the Library of the American Antiquarian Society,' and printed two hundred copies. The books falling within the scope of this bibliography number three hundred, of which one-half, approximately, were already catalogued in the three hundred titles printed in Dr. Green's list, and are therefore not repeated here, only a mere reference to the fuller title being given. We thus have in the two works a list of four hundred and fifty separate issues of the early American presses, and, as not more than twenty-five were printed outside of Cambridge and Boston, a long step has been made towards a complete list of Massachusetts incunabula. Mr. Paine, indeed, goes so far as to say that "the two lists probably contain the titles of nearly all the known publications, now extant, issued from the press in British North America from 1640 to 1700 inclusive." In this we can hardly agree, for Haven's very imperfect list gives 607 titles for this period, and while copies of a

few of these are unknown, they are balanced five times over by the new discoveries of Mr. Hildeburn in Pennsylvania and New York imprints. Indeed, the Prince and Lewis collections of the Boston Public Library alone give nearly 100 additional titles, and the Lenox Library and the Historical Society of Pennsylvania could also supply many additions. Probably there are actually extant, at the present writing, about 1,000 issues of the Massachusetts press before 1701, and these are not more than two thirds of the actual issues. These facts, however, do not lessen the value of the present work. As in Dr. Green's list, the larger part of the titles fall among almanacs, laws, and the typical New England theologico-political tracts, the most interesting being a copy of 'Gospel Ordinance Revived' (which played so curious a part in the attempt carried on by the Mathers to restrict the freedom of the press), with several of the broadside "Advertisements" and "Depositions" relating to the contest bound in; a copy of Cotton Mather's curious 'Rules for the Society of Negroes,' 1693, which ranks second in date of our slave literature; and a copy of the Bay Psalm Book, the earliest book of the Massachusetts press. The work has been carefully done, and is a most acceptable addition to the subject.

—When the ravages of the "downy mildew" were checked for the first time in American vineyards by means of the "Bordeaux mixture," spraying was hailed by orchardists and planters as a deliverer and a panacea. After wasting much hard work in spraying the right bugs at the wrong time, the farmers have thrown down the nozzle to learn from scientists and college men something about bugs and the fungous diseases of plants. Economic Entomology has come into existence to cope with the annual destroyers of one-tenth of all our agricultural products. "Watch and spray" is now the facetious war-cry of farmers and fruit-growers. The practical advice offered by the experiment stations to farmers is scattered in the deciduous literature of bulletins and newspapers. All this material has been sifted by a competent specialist in combination with his own experiments, and the result is a book of 400 pages of practical things arranged in the helpful form of a pocket dictionary, 'The Spraying of Plants,' by E. G. Lodeman, Instructor in Horticulture in Cornell University (Macmillan). It tells what to spray, when, and why. It can be consulted under vines and fig-trees, and offending objects can be compared with pictures. Nor are prescriptions lacking, together with seductive cuts of wonderful nozzles, pumps, and spraying paraphernalia. The familiar old cut of the codlin moth that has for half a century been an object of odious interest, at last gives way to a new engraving that is positively artistic by comparison, and of greater scientific accuracy. The early history of spraying is detailed in the painstaking manner of the investigator and contributor to science. These 238 pages of history and principles may be useful to those farmers only who are troubled with insomnia (if there be any such), and in future editions this matter could, as far as the farmer is concerned, be compressed into 200 less pages; but of the value of the specific directions for spraying cultivated plants there can be no doubt. It is a remarkable adaptation of science. There is nothing else on the subject so new, complete, accurate, and available.

—In 1870, at the age of thirty-five, Mr. Alfred Austin published a book entitled 'The Poetry of the Period,' consisting of eight articles which had previously appeared in the *Temple Bar* magazine. The first of them is concerned with Mr. Austin's immediate predecessor in the office of Poet Laureate of England. Mr. Austin sets out with the announcement that he intends to expound, with a confidence not the growth of yesterday, but of long, deliberate, and ever-deepening conviction, the opinion that Tennyson has no sound pretensions to be called a great poet, and will of a certainty not be esteemed such by an unbiassed posterity. He thinks it is high time that somebody should speak out; the conventional sense of the majority so overpowers the critical sense of the discriminating minority that, as a rule, no one ever expends his energy in the attempt to reverse an opinion which has once got itself accepted by a preponderance of voices. So has it been with Tennyson. His fame has steadily increased precisely as his genuine poetical power has steadily waned. Mr. Austin's proposition is, that Tennyson is not a great poet, unquestionably not a poet of the first rank, all but unquestionably not a poet of the second rank, and probably—though no contemporary perhaps can settle that—not even at the head of poets of the third rank, among whom he must ultimately take his place. Posterity will not hear him, save in little snatches or breaks of voice, as it still hears Cowley or Falconer. It will not allow the "Talking Oak" or "Locksley Hall" to die, but "In Memoriam" will assuredly be handed over to the dust. In the whole range of his poetry there is not to be found even a solitary instance of a sublime thought sublimely expressed. He is the poet crossed by the man of scientific thought and intelligence, and producing a species of metrical emulsion. Browning does not find more favor in Mr. Austin's eyes than Tennyson. The assertion that Browning is our great modern seer is the most astounding and ludicrous pretension ever put forward in literature. A passage from "Sordello" is pronounced to be not only not poetry, but detestable gibberish even as prose. Browning is the real *M. Jourdain*, who has been writing prose all his life without knowing it He has no voice, and yet he wants to sing; he is not a poet, and yet he would fain write poetry. These choice specimens of Mr. Austin's critical acumen must suffice for the present purpose, but his whole volume may be profitably studied by the brood of youngsters who are deluging us with a shower of little four-by-six magazines in which every precious contribution of a hundred words is signed with its author's name. Mr. Austin, they will find, is just as "smart," and epigrammatic, and "fearless," and self-confident as they are.

—Were we to watch the labor of Sisyphus, we should probably be much interested the first time we saw him roll the stone up the slope, and grieve with him as it dashed down just before reaching the top. We should admire the perseverance with which he ran after it, and again puffed and tugged and pushed towards the goal. But, after watching several of these failures, we should conclude either that Sisyphus had undertaken the impossible, or that he lacked the necessary strength and skill. A similar conclusion forces itself upon us as we review, year after year, the efforts of one scholar after another to translate the 'Divine Comedy' into English verse, and we believe that in this case failure must be charged to the task itself, and not to the incompetence of those who undertake it. The latest of these, Mr. George Musgrave, has produced a version of the "Inferno" in Spenserian metre (Macmillan) which deserves the commendation due to good but futile intentions—and no more. Mr. Musgrave declares that the nine line stanza of the 'Faërie Queene' is the nearest equivalent to Dante's *terza rima;* a little while ago Mr. Lancelot Shadwell assured us that the metre of Marvell's great Horatian ode would alone serve; and before him how many others have taken different roads to failure! Dante's verse, we need hardly say, flows like a mighty unhindered river; to imagine that any stanzaic divisions can represent it, is like imagining that a canal, cut up into sections by regularly recurring locks, can represent the freedom, the sweep and variety and life of the river. Inevitably, therefore, before we have read a dozen of Mr. Musgrave's stanzas, we are obliged to admit that they do not reproduce, even faintly, the metrical effect made by Dante, and further testing merely confirms the suspicion that this version, so far as its form goes, has no justification as a possible equivalent of the 'Divine Comedy.' But perhaps, we think, Mr. Musgrave may have made a good English poem, whatever may be its inferiority to the Italian. We read again, with this in view, and again are disappointed. The "linked sweetness, long drawn out" of this stanza as used by Spenser nowhere appears; nor is there aught to suggest that Byron, Shelley, and Keats could, each in a different way, get many fine qualities out of it. To Mr. Musgrave's touch it is an instrument which is neither sweet, nor sonorous, nor fluent, nor emphatic. So we are driven to consider the translation simply as a *tour de force*, and from this standpoint it has its interest. That any one should be able, in a given number of syllables, to give the English equivalents of a given number of Italian words, is, however inadequate the general result may be, a scholarly pastime which may amuse the looker on. But after a while the elisions and inversions of syntax, the strange words, and the unlimited license in rhymes tire us. What pleasure can any one get from such rhymes as "Italy," "lie," "I," and "wistfully"? What profit from having *conosciuto* translated "agnised," because Mr. Musgrave could not make "recognized" fit his metre? Doubtless, he had satisfaction in wrestling with difficulties which are indeed insuperable; but the best that can be said of his achievement is that we wonder that he has done as well as he has, and this is very far from saying that he has produced a work worth reading as a specimen of English poetry, or worth studying as means to a better knowledge of Dante.

—The second and concluding volume of Dr. Karl Heinemann's 'Goethe' (Leipzig: Seemann) begins with the publication of the first collective edition of the poet's works in 1787-'90, and ends with his death, March 26, 1832, thus comprising the best forty-five years of his life. His sojourn in Italy from 1786 to 1788 had released him from the petty and prosy routine of official duties at Weimar, and, through the study of the antique, had perfected his taste by purging his mind from the last dregs of the storm-and-stress period and the morbid sentimentality of Wertherism, which could be only a passing episode in the development of a nature so robust. Dr. Heinemann gives an excellent appreciation of these influences as traceable in Goethe's writings, followed by a chapter entitled "House and Hearth," in which his relations to Christiane Vulpius are explained and extenuated, but by no means approved. At that time concubinacy was neither foreign nor offensive to the "best society" in Weimar and

elsewhere in Germany. The unwonted clamor and malicious gossip excited by Goethe's similar transgression were due less to the moral sensitiveness than to the wounded vanity of the noble ladies of Weimar, and particularly to the fierce jealousy of Frau von Stein, who even wrote a play called "Dido" for the purpose of venting her wrath upon her former lover, and calumniating the "low creature" by whom she had been supplanted. According to our author, Goethe's reasons for not marrying Christiane at once were a deep-rooted aversion to the "fetters of matrimony," a strong antipathy to the outward forms of the Christian Church, and a "Julianic hatred" of the current teachings and tendencies of the Christian religion. In his own bitter experience he was made to feel the full force of the doctrine of retribution taught in Wilhelm Meister's *Lehrjahre*: "Denn alle Schuld rächt sich auf Erden." A valuable contribution to the literary history of the time is the section of 150 pages devoted to Schiller and other friends and contemporaries of Goethe. In the succeeding chapters we have a full account of Goethe's poetic productivity during the danger and distress caused by the French invasion, his rather questionable patriotism in the war of emancipation, and his later scientific researches. Although the reader may not always accept the author's conclusions, he will find in this biography a complete and impartial presentation of facts and citation of sources, upon which to base an independent judgment. It is written in an attractive style that renders it entertaining as well as instructive reading. The present volume contains more than a hundred illustrations and an excellent general index.

PURCELL'S CARDINAL MANNING.

Life of Cardinal Manning, Archbishop of Westminster. By Edmund Sheridan Purcell, Member of the Roman Academy of Letters. In two volumes. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

So far was Cardinal Manning from seeking to prevent the writing of his Life by taking that of Mr. Purcell that he chose him as his biographer, and put in his hands a mass of diaries, notes, and correspondence, of portentous bulk, and, moreover, poured himself out very freely in conversation, construing his own acts and those of his contemporaries in a manner satisfactory to himself. But seldom has a biography added to death a terror of such magnitude as Mr. Purcell's book will prove to persons of distinction who are contemplating some biographical extension of their high repute. The wiser of them will at once resolve that they will trust no one, however loyal and friendly he may vaunt himself, to do the difficult work, and go about to do it with their own hands. For Mr. Purcell's book could hardly be more damaging to Cardinal Manning's reputation if it had been written by one of the many who distrusted him or hated him when he was alive and would like to damn his memory. Froude's treatment of Carlyle was eulogistic in comparison with Mr. Purcell's of his distinguished friend. It is true that he says many fine things about him, from first to last, but they make no such impression on the reader as the scores and hundreds of derogatory and minimizing things. So often those glide swiftly into these that we get into the way of expecting something bad whenever there is something good.

The excuses are, perhaps, more damaging than the direct assaults. The writer is not by any means unconscious of the line that he is taking or of the impression he is likely to create. Over and over again he announces his determination to tell the simple truth. Had not Manning approved this method, and the Pope also, instancing the New Testament frankness about Judas Iscariot as an example of it? Manning had not the art of making friends, but he had a few, and his executors have already denounced Mr. Purcell's book and pledged themselves to procure a worthier biography. The attempt, however, is not promising, in view of the fact that Mr. Purcell has been extremely careful to justify his inferences by direct quotations from Manning's journals and letters. At the same time it is true that he has not been content to let these speak for themselves, but has been careful to bring out their significance; and where Manning's recollections were at variance with the facts of his career, the difference is pointed out. Nor can it be denied that he seems to take a certain pleasure in putting Manning in an evil light. His damnatory clauses are innumerable, and while some of them are frank enough, others are insinuated in a manner hard to understand in a biographer discharging a friendly office. For example, we read (vol. i., p. 294): "The judicious and venerable Archdeacon of Chichester had no sympathy with Ward or his book"; and, in a foot-note, that Ward said, "When I hear men called judicious I suspect them, but when they are called judicious and venerable they are scoundrels." Prudence, caution, tact, are the qualities which Mr. Purcell attributes to Manning with an iteration that is wearisome, with others lower in the moral scale.

His own character cannot be admirable if he had any idea at the outset how his biography would turn out and yet accepted the commission to write it from Manning's hands. We are bound to believe that, with all the documents in his possession, he became fascinated by the doubtful elements in Manning's character, and found himself impelled to make them as prominent in his book as he found them in the Cardinal's life. A different explanation suggests itself in the first volume, which deals exclusively with the Anglican period, while the second deals exclusively with the Roman. It is that Mr. Purcell is painting-in a dark Anglican background for his picture of Manning's Roman virtues. This seems the more likely when, in 1847, Manning has a long sickness and takes to morbid self-examination, and imagines himself revolting from the secular ambitions which had recently possessed his soul. Moreover, Mr. Purcell writes as if he underwent some serious spiritual change, and we think we know what he is after—one of those contrasts of youthful levity and later saintliness in which the hagiography of the Roman Church so much abounds. But this promise to the eye is broken to our hope as we go on. Manning is much the same person after his recovery as before, and those aspects of his character which are most painful in his Anglican career are emphasized in the Roman Catholic churchman in a much grosser fashion.

Manning did not distinguish himself at Harrow, and hardly more at Oxford, except as a debater at the Union, where his successes stirred in him visions of a seat in Parliament and a political career. Destined for the Church by his father, he was not in the least attracted to it. A few years later, when the Tractarian Movement had begun, it might have been different. He had to do something for a living, his father's fortune having been suddenly wrecked, and he went into the Colonial Office. As compared with his irksome duties there, the Church soon came to look inviting, the more naturally because the melancholy of a lover's disappointment persuaded him that he was getting more religious. Mr. Purcell's first difference with him is in regard to the relative amount of *Dichtung und Wahrheit* in his account of his motives for entering the ministry. The question is one that frequently recurs, and might much oftener if Manning had not deleted large portions of his diaries before handing them over. Notwithstanding this precaution, Mr. Purcell finds them much closer to the facts than Manning's idealizing notes and recollections in the last years of his life.

After a few months of theological study, Manning went to Lavington in Sussex as a curate of the Rev. John Sargent, and shortly married his daughter and succeeded him as rector of the parish. There he remained until he left the English Church in 1851, in 1841 being made Archdeacon of Chichester. By his marriage, says Mr. Purcell, "the designs of Providence in regard to the future Cardinal of the Holy Roman Church seemed to have been frustrated. But Providence has a long arm, and God in his wisdom took to himself in the fourth year of her marriage the wife of Henry Edward Manning, the cardinal priest to be." In all Manning's diaries and correspondence there is but one allusion to his marriage, and that, written in 1880, is a purely formal one. His love and sorrow were both very great, but "so effectually was the story of his marriage suppressed that on his death Catholics, with one or two exceptions, as well as the general public, knew nothing about his married life." The motive for this suppression was the fear of "an unpleasant impression derogatory to his high ecclesiastical dignity and position."

The interesting thing about Manning's secession from the English Church is that it was not an incident of the Tractarian Movement. It is astonishing how little that affected him. There are few traces of it in his letters when it was at the flood from 1833 to 1838. His original bent was strongly evangelical, and the Low Churchmen counted him as one of them against all comers. His first essay in controversy, 'The Rule of Faith' (1838), was about equally severe on popular Protestantism and Romanism, while avoiding the extremes of both the High-and-Dry and the Tractarian parties. But the Protestantism of his reproof was the loose jointed contemporary Dissent, not the historic movement of Luther. For some years his valiant stand for this marked him off from the Tractarians more definitely than anything else. They were always girding at the Reformation, he defending it. In his 'Rule of Faith,' Papal infallibility got some hard knocks. It is one of Mr. Purcell's innumerable insinuations that Manning's new departure reflected the temper of his new Bishop, Otter, in whose name the waggish found an omen of his opinions, "neither fish, flesh, nor fowl." The maledictions of the Low Church press and clergy made it easier for Manning to respond to the approaches of the Tractarians, who were disposed to make the most of his inclination to their side. But through all the inconsistencies of his Anglican career runs like a thread of steel his opposition to the encroachment of the civil power upon the Church, culminating in his opposition to the Gorham decision, which was his excuse, if not his reason, for secession. This opposition made him prominent in 1838, soon after his 'Rule of Faith,' and, while commending him to the Tractarians, condoned to some extent his late offence against the Evangelicals. A little later he went to Italy with

Gladstone, and found the sordidness of Roman worship as little attractive as Newman found it on his first visit. With serious breaks, Manning's friendship with Gladstone was the most lasting of his life, and Mr. Purcell's exhibition of their various relations is one of the most interesting features of his book. It is an exhibition much more creditable to the statesman than to the priest. In Rome they met Wiseman, and walked with him, Wiseman as little dreaming that Manning was the young Protestant who had recently impugned his veracity as that they would, in succession, be archbishops and cardinals of the reconstructed Roman hierarchy in England.

Great was the mortality of Manning's bishops, and, when Shuttleworth succeeded Otter, he at first looked upon Manning as "a Romanizer in disguise." Manning hastened to disabuse him, and succeeded so well that he was made Archdeacon of Chichester. Mrs. Shuttleworth seems to have been a kind of Mrs. Proudy, and "stormed like a fury" over the appointment, but to her also Manning soon made himself *persona grata*. "Manning was the last man to forget that he was now himself a Church dignitary, and bound as such to show reserve and moderation in his religious opinions." The publication of 'Tract 90' had got the Tractarians into deeper water than Manning dared attempt, such was "his habit, in part natural, in part acquired, of never committing himself, if he could help it, to an unpopular movement, or of taking his stand on the side of a falling cause." In a charge of 1841, and more positively in 1842, when the Tractarians were in worse repute, he cleared himself of all complicity with their Romanizing tendencies. "The blessed results of the Reformation" were the staple of his cry. He had dodged the test question of Isaac Williams's election as professor of poetry, but the misfortunes of the Tractarians demanded a more positive opposition if he was not going to be tainted with their ill odor. Hence his 'No Popery' sermon at Oxford on Guy Fawkes Day, 1843. Newman had already resigned St. Mary's and gone to Littlemore, and there Manning called on him the day after his ultra-Protestant manifesto. Newman, who could not reconcile this with Manning's steady approximations to him since 1838 in private correspondence, was "not at home," and such is the irony of circumstance that J. A. Froude brought Manning this rebuff, and, to soothe his feelings, walked half way back to Oxford with him before he discovered that he was without a hat. Mr. Purcell's imputation of the meanest motives to Manning at this juncture will seem excessive to many of his readers, seeing that at this time his faith in the English Church as Protestant and yet Catholic had not begun to fail.

Manning's own account of the years 1843 to 1846 is "Declension—secularity, vanity and anger." Full of ecclesiastical ambition, what he did not want was offered him, and what he wished, the preachership of Lincoln's Inn, he could not get, though he had Gladstone to manage his canvass. From secular ambition he reacted to morbid self-examination, from which "a judicious spiritual director would have saved him," says Mr. Purcell. This became more intense in the course of a dreadful sickness and slow recovery in 1847. With remarkable inconsistency his biographer dates from this sickness a higher spiritual life, and then goes on to show by his correspondence with Robert Wilberforce that from this time forward he was a Roman Catholic in his mind and heart, while still he was stoutly insisting in public that the Anglican had all the notes of a true church. It is strange that what has been so often charged against Newman in this respect, and proved untrue, should be proved against Manning, against whom it has never until now been charged. The Gorham judgment, which permitted an Anglican priest to deny the doctrine of baptismal regeneration, has always been assigned as the cause of Manning's change of base. According to Mr. Purcell, it was simply the last straw that broke the back of his prolonged duplicity. From this point of view we understand Manning's intense engrossment in Roman worship when he was abroad in 1848, and why he knelt in the street to Pius IX.—an act which was the germ of much ecclesiastical good fortune. Gladstone was completely deceived by the reticence of his friend, and imagined the Gorham judgment to be the true cause of his secession to the Roman camp. Meantime, says Mr. Purcell, his "touching, beautiful little sermons . . . did not express, and were not meant to express, his own belief. . . . Such exhortations were formal utterances which he considered it his duty as their spiritual director to address to his penitents."

The Gorham decision was fulminated in March, 1850, and in March, 1851, Manning entered the Roman Church, and in ten weeks, by the special grace of Cardinal Wiseman, he was again a priest. The old ambition soon awoke again, and with more violence than ever, but for several years he found himself, as he expressed it, "in the shallows," his founding of the Oblates of St. Charles at Bayswater being his most important work. But his intimacy with Cardinal Wiseman and Pius IX. steadily increased, and at the Papal court he had an invaluable friend in Mgr. Talbot, the Pope's private chamberlain. The atmosphere of these chapters is as hot and stifling as that of party politics. From the start, Manning was a *Roman* Catholic, not an English one, not a Gallic one, and before long a fight arose between him and the old English Catholics and Gallicans who were jealous of his growing influence. The first battle was over Wiseman's coadjutor, Errington, who had to be got rid of or he might come in for the succession. A more instructive chapter in ecclesiastical politics it would be hard to find than that relating to this business, or one more disabusive of the illusion that the Roman family is a happy one. Mr. Purcell does not hesitate to ascribe the victory to Manning's "somewhat unscrupulous methods"; but Pius IX. called it "a *coup d'état* of the Lord God." Mgr. Talbot could see the divine and human side at once. When the next battle was on, and the victory was Manning's succession to Wiseman as archbishop, Talbot, in a letter boasting of his successful working of the Pope, adds, "Nevertheless I believe your appointment was specially directed by the Holy Ghost." Manning was sometimes awkward in availing himself of the privileges of his intimacy with the Pope, and Mgr. Talbot found it necessary to instruct him that neither a solemn secret nor an oath was binding when the Pope was concerned.

Manning's relations to Newman are explicated at great length, and no doubt is left upon the reader's mind that in their bitter controversy Manning was "the worser spirit, color'd ill." In the letter which brought their correspondence to an end, Newman wrote, "I do not know whether I am on my head or heels when I have active relations with you." It is simply impossible to understand Manning's interpretation of Newman's wishes when the cardinalate was offered him. It has every appearance of an attempt to hinder his advancement by downright dishonesty, but probably his wish was father to his thought—a common trick with men of his imperious will. Quoting entire Manning's eulogy on Newman, Mr. Purcell pronounces its claim of life-long friendship radically false. "Instead of friendship, there was life-long opposition." They had different ideals of Catholic development in England: Manning was fierce for the dogma of infallibility, Newman against it; but the trouble at bottom was that Newman found Manning "difficult to understand," his professions being contradicted by his acts.

In the Vatican council of 1870, Manning's part was so important that the Italians named him "Il Diavolo del Concilio." No other individual did so much to bring about the declaration of infallibility. It was not all that he wanted, his appetite for infallibility being almost as ravenous as W. G. Ward's, who wanted a papal bull for breakfast every morning with his *Times*. The decree was not a day too soon. The day following came the declaration of war between Germany and France. If Manning had not succeeded in averting diplomatic intervention, this event would have found the dogma still undeclared, and its indefinite postponement might have been for ever.

Mr. Purcell's volumes count 1,534 pages, and it is only a meagre summary of their contents that can be given in a brief review. There are great deductions from the reader's pleasure in them in the continual turning of Mr. Purcell's narrative upon itself, and in the absolute lack of any charm in Manning's diary and letters. He is better in his notes, in which, with intense self-consciousness, he poses as he would like to stand in history. His sympathy with the laboring poor, if not always well directed, is the most agreeable aspect of his life. For all his caution he was capable of extreme haste and rashness. If Mr. Purcell wishes us to admire his character, his laborious work cannot be considered a success. His praise, which sometimes is mere fustian, is perfunctory and unreal in comparison with his direct and carefully insinuated blame. The general impression that frees itself from the multitude of details is that of a man of hard and brilliant intellect, without imagination or insight, of great ambition and unbending will, sensitive to public opinion, loving the winning side, extremely engaging in his voice and manner, lively in conversation, eloquent in public speech, without spontaneous affection and making few friends, treating some of the best of these unhandsomely, using others and then forgetting them alive or dead, arriving at length at an almost complete personal isolation, living in a world of tradition and logomachy unvisited by any breezes of the modern spirit; a figure dignified and imposing but most melancholy on its lonely height. There are modifications of this general impression, but they do not seriously affect its impact on the reader's mind.

Vera Barantzova. From the Russian of Sonya Kovalevsky. With an Introduction and a Memoir of the Author by Sergius Stepniak and William Westall. London: Ward & Downey. 1895. Pp. 281.

THIS novel of the gifted mathematician, Sonya Kovalevsky, which has been awaited with great interest by English-speaking people, will not disappoint expectation. It is hardly to be called a novel; it is rather a swift, incisive, dramatic sketch of Russian life at the moment of the emancipation of the serfs, and during

(and at the end of) the period of political calm which followed the Polish insurrection, Karakasoff's attempt to assassinate the Czar, and the banishment of Tchernyshevsky. The central figure of the scene, Vera Barantzova, was the youngest daughter in a family belonging to the nobility, and living with luxury and freedom from care upon a large estate; the emancipation of the serfs not only brought it to the verge of ruin financially, but turned its members into disappointed and irritable beings, with whom it was no pleasure to live. Vera was left wholly to herself, and grew up quite untamed and untrained, but with the seeds planted for a future life of devotion by the one book which was her constant study—the lives of the martyrs. Finally a university professor, forced to return to his estate for political reasons, took her education in charge, and taught her not only the learning of books, but also that it was not necessary to go to the ancient Romans or to China to find martyrs in holy causes.

With this preparation, a woman like Vera, with all the beauty and fiery spirit for which the Barantzova family had long been famous, and in a country which makes such strong claim upon its noble women for a life of forgetfulness of private weal and woe, was sure of the fate of many another Russian patriot. We shall not follow out the train of events which end with her departure for Siberia, not as a prisoner, but as the wife of the convicted leader of a little band of Nihilists. The reader has come to be fully in sympathy with Vera's last words:

"I saw my future life before me as on a map. I should live among the exiles, comfort and console them, and minister to their needs, and become the intermediary of their correspondence. . . . How strangely, and yet how simply, it has all come about! I am so happy, dear, so happy."

The simplicity of the *mise en scène*, the swiftness with which events move onward to the inevitable end, the single-mindedness of the heroine, combine to produce an effect of great truthfulness and power, and one cannot but lament the loss of a great novelist as well as a brilliant mathematician in the early death of Sonya Kovalevsky.

The novel is preceded by an account of the author, by Stepniak, which offers nothing new to those who have already read her Life, recently reviewed in these columns. But the present condition of discussion in regard to her is interesting. None of the great Russian writers have been more generally admired or more sincerely mourned in their native land. After her death Russian literature was flooded with articles on her life, her personality, and her work, both as scientist and authoress. Very soon the radical opinions which she had held became known; her name became a watchword for the Liberal party, and an expression of sympathy with her work was equivalent to a declaration of liberal aspirations. So roundabout a way of proclaiming opinions, strange as it may appear in the countries of free speech, is merely a natural device in Russia, but in this instance it became a matter of such moment that, as we are told, the Government has deemed it expedient to issue a secret order to the press forbidding any further mention of Mme. Kovalevsky's name.

Twelve Hundred Miles in a Waggon. By Alice Blanche Balfour. With illustrations by the Author. New York: Edward Arnold. 1895. Pp. xix, 265. 8vo.

THIS sprightly narrative of a "trek" through the territories of the British South Africa Company has a peculiar interest, for several reasons. The writer is the sister of the leader of the House of Commons and prospective prime minister of Great Britain. The mode of travelling, by ox-wagon, is fast disappearing before the steady advance of the railway; and the regions visited are just now dividing the attention of the civilized world with Armenia and Venezuela. Its literary merit consists in the simple and unpretentious way in which Miss Balfour tells her story. Avoiding all labored descriptions of scenery, and discussions of political, social, and ethnographical topics, she wisely confines herself to narrating the ordinary incidents of a singularly uneventful journey. Although she has no startling experiences with lions or Matabele, nor any mishap beyond the occasional breaking of a wagon pole, yet it would be difficult to find a more graphic account of life in an ox-wagon on the high veldt.

Cape Town was reached in April, 1894, and the next few weeks were spent in making various excursions by rail. One was to Basutoland, a Crown colony in which white settlement is prohibited. The natives are very numerous and apparently prosperous, many being "extremely rich" in cattle. Their land is suffering from the water-courses, which cut deep ravines (called dongas) in the soil. They intersect the plains in every direction and are rapidly increasing in size and number. The planting of trees would check them, but the natives dislike trees because of their attraction to doves and pigeons, who "congregate and multiply so enormously wherever there is any wood, that they almost destroy the neighboring crops." At Johannesburg Miss Balfour found there were "two absorbing topics of interest—gold-mining and politics." The latter, indeed, was then the most prominent, "the ever-smouldering irritation of the English at the inequality of treatment they suffer under the Boers being ready to burst into a blaze at the prospect of the commandeering for the war with the natives." The inability of this singular people to accommodate themselves to new ideas and circumstances is illustrated by the fact that many of them refuse to destroy locusts, "on the ground that, like the plagues of Egypt, they are the direct visitation of God." A resolution against their destruction, "on account of religious scruples," was carried in the Volksraad of the Orange Free State at the time of Miss Balfour's visit.

The wagons were taken at the terminus of the railroad which is to connect Cape Town with Mashonaland, and the route lay through Khama's town to Bulawayo, the Chartered Company's headquarters. "I have Sir John Willoughby's room," writes Miss Balfour.

"This is a true and faithful description of it. It has mud walls, mud floor, thatched roof with no ceiling, doors made of two packing-case lids, and an unglazed window with shutter of rough boards. Furniture: a bedstead, one box upside down, some wooden shelves, a small strip of matting, an empty whiskey bottle doing duty as a candlestick, and (oh, luxury!) a table. Dr. Jameson's room, occupied by Mrs. Grey, is much the same, only it has a six-inch-square looking-glass as well."

From Salisbury, the farthest northern point of the journey, the travellers turned eastward and reached the sea at Beira. Here a steamer was taken for Dar es Salaam, the capital of German East Africa.

"The town is a remarkable production to be the work of only three years, but somehow it looks more like a German watering-place than anything else; and in the European quarter there is hardly any sign of trade or business going on. One cannot help contrasting it with such a place as Bulawayo, where you have a few mud huts, a few iron roofs, officials in shirt-sleeves, and a general air of bustle and 'go-aheadness.' Here, on the contrary, are many large buildings, concrete roads, ornamental gardens, officers in spotless uniforms, much clicking of heels and bowing, but nothing else. . . . It was also a shock to our English ideas to see numbers of native women working on the roads, and being driven to their work by a white man carrying a large raw-hide whip. I became daily more astonished at the number of convicts or prisoners. Everywhere you came upon gangs of four to eight—often women—chained together by the necks and hounded along by a black policeman or soldier. I should think there were fewer prisoners in all the Chartered Company's territories than in this one little town."

After this it will not be difficult to understand why Germany makes so little progress in Africa.

The attractions of the book, which is an admirable specimen of typography, are increased by numerous illustrations, from sketches by the author. There is an outline map to show the route, but no index.

The First Chapter of Norwegian Immigration, 1821-1840: Its Causes and Results. With an Introduction on the Services Rendered by the Scandinavians to the World and to America. By Rasmus B. Anderson, LL.D. Madison, Wis.: The Author. 1895.

THIS book was written to chronicle the first six Norwegian settlements in the United States. There is not a page in it but will be read with avidity by a certain class. Threescore pioneers, some of whom came on the first vessel, are here shown in "counterfeit presentments," while not one likeness of any *Mayflower* passenger has survived. Many Norse readers will be attracted by local and personal details far back of their own memories, and will ascertain genealogical minutiæ otherwise beyond their reach. Each of the eight prominent leaders—each a man *sui generis*—is honored with a monograph. All who are interested in the American types of Scandinavian Christianity will here read concerning its vicissitudes what they would be sorry to miss. The introductory chapter would not have been inserted save by way of catering to Scandinavian race-pride. That section is a notable specimen of holding a button so near the eye that it hides the sun. As Douglas Campbell proves that we owe everything to Scotch-Irish or Scotch or Dutch—just as many before him had made the same claim for the English Puritan—and as Pascal traced all the world's culture to Rome, Athens, and Jerusalem, so Mr. Anderson's great first cause in world-history is the old Norse Viking or Berserker. Too many are now captivated by such a hemming into one single race of the legacies to which all races have contributed. This chapter accordingly befits the lecture-platform, where it has no doubt done yeoman service, rather than a sober history.

But to the general reader Prof. Anderson's book will be of interest and value for its accounts of the Norwegian settlements above enumerated, which were all that existed within the United States in 1840—a date up to which, according to the Census Commissioner, the Scandinavian immigration was "of no importance." To elucidate the genesis and exodus of these colonies—the first in Western New York (Orleans County), the second and third in Illinois (La Salle County and Chicago), and the other three in southeastern Wisconsin—is the chronicler's end and aim. He felt that in these "seeds and weak beginnings" there lay visible in minia-

ture to a prophetic eye the occult forces which within seventy years have brought into our country a million and a quarter (p. 40) of immigrants from a region whose largest census never amounted to eight millions This Scandinavian upheaval has been far more extensive in Norway than in Denmark or even in Sweden. Partly on this account, but still more as being himself the son of an early Norwegian emigrant, Prof. Anderson has limited himself to Norwegian settlements. Regarding these there is much of pith and validity in his book. Through his position as United States Minister to Denmark, through travel in Norway, through conversations with eight survivors of the pioneers on the first ship and correspondence with others, through personal familiarity with the colonial sites, through knowledge of whatever had been written on his theme—and thanks to Norwegian as half his own vernacular—he had become preëminently fitted for his task. Rather it is plain on every page that it was for him no task, but a labor of love.

The reasons for Scandinavian emigration are singularly similar to those which brought the first Puritans, Quakers, and Huguenots across the Atlantic, and so the children of all these religionists can claim descent from the noble army of martyrs. Though aware that history repeats itself, we read with surprise of a Norwegian imprisoned from 1804 to 1814 for "advocating the right of laymen to preach" (p. 48); of "people who had no voice in selecting their own pastors" (p. 303); of Quaker children baptized by force, and of yet more harsh persecutions (pp. 50, etc.). At length several Norwegian dissenters resolved on a new departure. They clubbed together, and, getting a favorable report from prospectors they had sent to America, in 1825 bought a sloop of forty-five tons, for which and a ballast of iron they paid $1,800. Their leader was the man at whose house the first Quaker meeting had been held. On this small craft fifty-two persons were crowded, only two of them seamen. They embarked and were driven south to the Azores, picking up a pipe of wine on the way. On the ninth of October, 1825, after a passage of fourteen weeks, they arrived in New York, and were welcomed by Quakers. Through Quaker kindness, transportation at six dollars a head was paid for them on the canal, opened that same year, to Rochester, as well as cheap lands on long credit in that neighborhood. These colonists bettered their condition, but kept the noiseless tenor of their way, and it was eleven years before any other emigrant ship followed on their track. The notices of the first Norwegian arrival in contemporary American newspapers, among them the New York *Evening Post* (p. 76), oddly enough Prof. Anderson found of service in determining several points in his narrative. But in 1835, when the first of their number returned to Norway, he was received by the simple folk as one alive from the dead. He spoke of high wages to men whose yearly wage, in addition to food and clothing, was five dollars; of land for all land-lovers to those who despaired of such a boon where no more than one acre in 121 is arable, and where primogeniture doubled hopelessness. A stampede filling two brigs at once ensued. Good mechanics gladly bound themselves to pay two years' service for the ocean transit.

Before the second party arrived it was learned that in Illinois better land could be had for ten shillings, and often for four, than had cost five dollars in Kendall where the pioneers had settled. Hence the newcomers and some of the old ones swarmed to La Salle. Thence, many of them, and other new arrivals, in hopes to escape the "chills" and afterward cholera epidemic in 1849–50, set their faces towards Wisconsin. By 1840 three Norwegian hamlets had there been formed, which in half a century have grown to a population of 65,696 surviving Norwegian immigrants in 1890. In 1895 the combined number of native Norwegians and Swedes, according to the State census, was 106,468. But in 1890 the native Swedes numbered 20,157, so that the total of Norwegian-born Wisconsians cannot be more than 86,311, even if there has been no increase whatever of native-born Swedes. The census, however, of Norwegians in Wisconsin, as given by our author, is 130,737 (p. 42). By this number he cannot mean the total of Wisconsin Norwegians and their children, for he sets that multitude down as no less than 596,131 in 1894. Both statements are specimens of those exaggerations to which Norsemen, in extolling their own people, are rather prone. In point of fact, between 1880 and 1890 the Wisconsin percentage of increase in Swedish immigrants was 248 per cent., and that of Norwegians was less than 14 per cent. The truth is that the census of native Norwegians in that State has reached its maximum. Immigrants long ago passed it by for Minnesota, and then for the Dakotas, where farms could be secured at cheaper rates. Such a trans-Wisconsin movement has been most prevalent among Norwegians because more of them proportionally are tillers of the soil than can be found among any other nationalities. Hence, their percentage is small in New York and Illinois, where they first planted, and smaller in Wisconsin than in newer States beyond. In 1890, Wisconsin native Norwegians were one twenty-fifth of the population; in the Dakotas they were one eleventh. The quality of Norwegian immigrants is on the whole so excellent that their quantity cannot be too great. We see them to be so good that we would gladly believe them as multitudinous as Prof. Anderson reckons them. In our judgment they will become so.

The Natural History of Plants: Their Forms, Growth, Reproduction, and Distribution. From the German of Anton Kerner von Marilaun, Professor of Botany in the University of Vienna, by F. W. Oliver, M.A., Quain Professor of Botany in University College, London, with the assistance of Marion Busk, B.Sc., and Mary Ewart, B.Sc. Half volumes 3 and 4. Henry Holt & Co. 1895.

WHEN we noticed the first two half-volumes a short time ago, we hardly dared to hope for the immediate completion of this translation. We feared that its publication would drag, and that interest in the first parts would flag before the second and concluding portions should appear. In this we have been happily disappointed. The final volume is now in hand, and its character makes it in every way a fitting companion to the first. The author evidently planned at the outset to take every attractive feature of plants of all grades, and place these attractive features in the very best light. For this purpose he has skilfully employed a brilliant style of exposition, and he has not hesitated to use illustrations in black and in color with the freest hand. The purpose has been attained. He has succeeded in constructing a popular work on the phenomena of vegetation which is practically without any rival. The German edition has been accepted from the first as a useful treatise for the instruction of the public; in fact, some of its illustrations have been taken bodily from the volumes by museum curators, to enrich exhibition cases designed for the people. With two exceptions, the full-page colored plates leave little to be desired, and might well find a place in every public museum in which botany has a share. Most of the minor engravings are unexceptionable. They are clear, and are almost wholly free from distracting details which render worthless so many illustrations in popular works on natural history. Prof. Kerner's style in German is seldom obscure—it is what one might fairly call easy reading; but it is no disparagement to him and his style to state that the translation is clearer than the original throughout. Many a long sentence in the original has been broken into small and readily handled fragments, with strict regard to English and not to German usage and idiom. We repeat what was said in the notice of the earlier volumes, that the translators have been unusually successful in every part of their task.

In the first two issues, the author was engaged chiefly with the study of the structure of the plant and its adaptation to its surroundings. In this concluding volume he considers the plant from the point of view of its relations to others. Therefore he begins with a full and absorbingly interesting account of reproduction in the vegetable kingdom, and then passes to an examination of species. Under this head he takes up in succession the nature of species and alterations in the form of species, opening up the grave questions of inheritance, mutilation, and the genesis of new forms. This prepares the way for the subject of derivation of existing species and their relations to one another. At this most natural point the author deals, in a manner partly original and wholly suggestive, with the classification of plants of all degrees. After this comes the distribution of species by offshoots, by fruits and seeds, and there follows then an examination of the limits of distribution. Just here special stress is laid on the possibility of defining plant communities and floras, which, having been done to the author's satisfaction, leaves the matter of floras themselves to be dealt with on a climatic and genetic basis. On this basis he defines thirty-five floras, of which we, in our geographical limits, have the following: Canadian and Columbian, just south of the Arctic flora; Mississippi, Missouri, Pacific, Texas, Mexican, and Antilles. But our author would willingly admit, no doubt, that these divisions are rather arbitrary and provisional, being, in fact, mere makeshifts. As he says, "There is nothing for it, therefore, for the present but to grope along with the help of the little that has been ascertained."

The closing chapter, on the extinction of species, is one of the most suggestive in the whole work. It attacks certain problems which belong partly to the domain of geology and partly to the field of biology, making allowable use of facts which have been acquired by the observation of glacial advance and recession. It would be most unfair to omit speaking of the excellent glossary and the copious index. With these the work becomes a most convenient and trustworthy treasury of material for teachers of elementary botany, and a handbook for ready reference by all who desire to know something about vegetation. A very learned teacher of botany used to tell his classes that he did not want the old saying to be applicable to them, namely, that "one-half the world does not know how the other half lives." With this book, there is no excuse for even busy

people to be ignorant of how the other half, the plant-half, lives.

Records of the Clan and Name of Fergusson, Ferguson, and Fergus. Edited for the Clan Fergus(s)on Society by James Ferguson and Robert Menzies Fergusson. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1895.

THE aim of the editors of this sumptuous volume is best stated in their own words. "As originally contemplated," they say in their prefatory note, "the publication did not propose to supply a full and detailed history of the various families of the name, but rather to place on record materials yet preserved in the recollection of individuals, or in MSS., which might otherwise disappear; to collect scattered notices of the name, and to give a general view of the fortunes of the clan in different districts of Scotland and elsewhere." Unexpected abundance of material has carried the undertaking beyond the limits at first intended; but it may be said at once that the result is a book which, notwithstanding some obvious defects, is likely to be of permanent value to both the historian and the genealogist.

It is with Fergus Mor MacEarca, who came to Scotland from Ireland in the year 498, rather than with the mythical King Fergus, that the clan and name of Ferguson are to be connected. Throughout the early history of Scotland and the Scottish church the name, under one form or another, is of frequent occurrence. But the early families scattered widely over Scotland, and between these families "no definite link of proved relationship can be established," although "interesting traditions and customs suggest that all may originally have come from a common source." Tradition assigns to the Fergusons a prominent part in the battle of Bannockburn, and connects the Athole clan with the fortunes of Robert Bruce. Athole was the chief seat of the Highland Fergusons, who were described in 1587 as an "unruly clan"; they were probably among the followers of Montrose, and "formed the original nucleus" of the Cavalier army; later they were involved in the struggles of 1745.

The absence of assured historical connection between the various families of Fergusons in the early period is probably the reason which led the editors to group the members of the clan by districts; and they have been successful in bringing together a large amount of interesting and valuable material, drawn partly from official records, partly from family papers and personal recollections. Perhaps this arrangement is the best that could have been adopted under the circumstances; but in this case, at least, the arrangement emphasizes the diversity of origin at the same time that it increases the difficulty of tracing such connection as actually exists between Fergusons of different districts. Fortunately for those who will use the book, there is a good index. In the accounts of the more prominent members of the clan the note of praise is of course not wanting, and repetitions are inevitable; but the grouping of material is on the whole orderly, and personal claims to distinction are not unduly pressed. Considerable, but hardly disproportionate, space is naturally given to those bearers of the Ferguson name who have become widely known: Adam Ferguson, professor of natural philosophy at Edinburgh, secretary to the commission sent out in 1778 to negotiate with the American colonies, and who dropped the second *s* from his name "on the ground that it was unnecessary, and therefore unworthy of a philosopher"; Sir Adam Ferguson, eldest son of the professor, dubbed by Scott "the merry Knight," and Col. James Ferguson, with whom Scott drank "rather a cheerful glass"; Robert Ferguson, the physician; James Ferguson, Lord Pitfour, one of the most popular lawyers of his day; Robert Ferguson, the poet; James Ferguson, the astronomer, and James Fergusson, the architect. Scott, as is well known, was on intimate terms with several of the Fergusons, especially those at Huntlyburn; and their intercourse is the subject of several interesting contributions.

A chapter is devoted to Fergusons in Ireland, another to Fergusons in England, and a third to those in Holland, Poland, and Ceylon. There are several references to Fergusons in America, but apparently no attempt was made to trace in detail the history of the clan representatives in this country. The father of Dr. Robert Ferguson was born in America, where his father had settled, and was with the British army until 1782, being for a time "clerk of issues" in the commissary department. Captain James Ferguson was in command of a frigate of thirty-two guns during the early part of the Revolutionary War, and was especially commended by Lord Howe for his "ability testified in the direction of many difficult and fatiguing services" in the operations about New York. There is an interesting account of the services of Col. W. O. Ferguson in South America under Gen. Bolivar. In the case of James Frederick Ferguson, the Irish antiquary, son of Jacques Frédéric (not Jaques Frederic, as at p. 470) Jaquemain, it would seem to have been worth while to mention the fact of his birth in South Carolina, as well as his great work of indexing the Irish Exchequer records.

About fifty pages are devoted to a bibliography of writings by and about Fergusons, prepared, the editors say, "after a careful examination of the catalogues of the leading libraries, and in several cases with the personal assistance of the authors." It is to be regretted that the work at this point could not have been better done: the editors were plainly on unfamiliar ground, and the result is a list whose accuracy cannot be depended on. We note a few instances only. "Seven editions" of Adam Ferguson's 'Essay on the History of Civil Society' are spoken of (p. 518); an eighth edition was published in Philadelphia in 1819; there are also translations in French and German. In the body of the work (p. 145), this book is said to have been published in 1766; the bibliography gives the date as 1767. Brewster's edition of James Ferguson's 'Astronomy explained upon Sir Isaac Newton's Principles' is omitted. There was another edition of Robert M. Ferguson's 'Electricity' in 1873. Rev. David Fergusson's 'Answer to Ane Epistle' was reprinted in 1860 by the Bannatyne Club; but the fact is not noted, although the volume containing the reprint is duly entered. The titles of early printed books are not always accurately given: it is a bibliographical commonplace that if the original spelling and punctuation are to be followed at all, they should be followed consistently and exactly. A curious instance of abbreviated title occurs in the body of the work (p. 310), where what appears to be the full title of David Fergusson's 'Epithalamium Mysticum Solomonis Regis sive Analysis,' etc., is given, but with the words "Solomonis Regis" omitted; in the bibliography the name appears as Ferguson, and the title is given as 'Analysis Critico-Practica Cantici Canticorum.' In some cases it is to be feared that titles have been taken bodily, without verification, from "the catalogues of leading libraries": on page 542, for example, is the entry, 'On the Antiquity of the Kilie, or Boomerang. (In V. 19.) 1841.' What "in V. 19" means does not appear from anything in the text; "catalogues of leading libraries" indicate a reference to the publications of the Royal Irish Academy, which are noted in connection with another title on the succeeding page.

There is a valuable chapter on Ferguson heraldry. The colored heraldic plates are extremely well done. The full-page illustrations, most of them from portraits, are creditable; but the smaller ones are as a rule inferior.

Essays in Taxation. By Edwin R. A. Seligman. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. x, 434.

DURING the past five years, Prof. Seligman has been publishing in various economic periodicals articles upon taxation, especially upon American taxation, whose solidity, vigor, and accuracy have challenged admiration. A number of these articles, revised and brought down to date, are now reprinted in a handsome volume. The chapters are entitled: The Development of Taxation, the General Property Tax, the Single Tax, Double Taxation, the Inheritance Tax, the Taxation of Corporations (three chapters), the Classification of Public Revenues, Recent Reforms in Taxation, the Betterment Tax, Recent European Literature in Taxation, and American Reports on Taxation. These thirteen essays, though nominally disconnected, are so uniform in treatment and so interpenetrated by well-matured convictions, that they may almost be said to constitute a treatise on taxation. They do not form, to be sure, a comprehensive treatise, since many subjects of prime importance—*e. g.*, customs duties and other indirect taxes upon business and consumption, the income tax, progressive taxation, the shifting of taxes, tax administration, and the relation of various taxes to one another—receive but incidental discussion. Indeed, to speak in terms of our own tax system, the whole subject of federal taxation is almost ignored. Within their field, however, the 'Essays' are far superior to the tax-commission reports which, in their original or in some vamped form, have served heretofore as our chief sources of information — and misinformation — concerning taxation in American States and cities.

Throughout Prof. Seligman's book his wide acquaintance with the literature of finance is evident. He knows the Germans, but he is not their slave. Their influence never misleads him, as it did Bastable, into the use of un-English terms like "subject of taxation" and "object of taxation" for tax-bearer and thing taxed, nor yet into elucidating the expression "political sciences" by a parenthesized "(*Staatswissenschaften*)." Mr. Seligman, on the contrary, has really mastered Wagner and Cohn and Schäffle. His grasp upon the economic and upon the legal principles exhibited in the field of taxation is strengthened thereby, while he still exercises independent judgment, and does not mistake analogies from Continental conditions for descriptions of American or even of English taxation. Against such misapprehensions there could, indeed, be no better bar than the frequent investigations which he has made into the history of our own taxes. The facts thus brought out give the reader greater confidence in the author's conclusions than could even the most rigid deduction from such unverified assumptions as lie at the basis of much "economic thought."

The introductory essay emphasizes "the slow and laborious growth of standards of justice in taxation, and the attempt on the part of the community as a whole to realize this justice." This growth involves a progressive recognition of ability to pay and of benefit received as bases, each in its place, for the distribution of taxation. It involves also a gradual transition, due to the development of novel sorts of intangible property, from position to acquisition—that is, from property to income—as the only adequate index of ability to pay. In the second essay the history of the general property tax is sketched. That history in Rome, France, Germany, England, and America is the same:

"As soon as the idea of direct taxation has forced itself into recognition, it assumes the practical shape of the land tax. This soon develops into the tax on general property, which [meaning property, not the tax] long remains the index of ability to pay. But as soon as the mass of property splits up, the property tax becomes an anachronism. The various kinds of personalty escape, until finally the general property tax completes the cycle of its development and reverts to its original form in the real property tax."

England, and Continental Europe generally, long ago recognized the injustice of the general property tax as the sole or even the chief means of raising revenue, and frankly turned it into a land tax, supplemented by taxes on persons, on business, on house-rent, on incomes, etc. Only in the advanced democracies does the old property tax still survive, in Switzerland, Australia, and the United States. In these countries, too, its imperfections have finally been realized, and each is gradually developing the supplementary taxes most obviously workable under its conditions—the United States first introducing corporation taxes, and afterwards adding the inheritance taxes with which the Australian colonies began, while the Swiss cantons first of all developed the income tax, a late-comer in Australia, and are now beginning to follow our example in taxing corporations. To this same question of the taxation of corporations more than a quarter of Prof. Seligman's book is devoted, and nowhere, so far as we know, are the economic aspects of this complicated and difficult subject treated with such fulness of knowledge and such keenness of analysis as here. On the law of corporation taxes an enormous amount has been written; but, after all, it is the economic rather than the legal factor which must ultimately determine their fate.

Not the least interesting chapter is that on recent reforms in taxation, especially in English, Dutch, and Prussian taxation. Alike in Sir William Harcourt's famous "democratic budget" of 1894, in the reforms of Mr. N. G. Pierson and in those of Dr. Miquel, "the same tendency is unmistakable, the trend to greater justice in taxation." The Prussian reform of 1891-1893 is further notable for bringing about a segregation of source between state and local revenues—a policy earnestly recommended to our own commonwealths.

We pass to mention a few points from which it is possible to dissent. Unquestionably some personal property escapes taxation for want of uniformity in the laws determining its *situs*. Pending interstate agreement upon this point, "it may be possible," says Prof. Seligman (p. 114), "to reach intangible personalty through some form of national taxation, the general Government then to apportion the proceeds to the States." Not only is this remedy, as Prof. Seligman recognizes, impracticable, in view of the last income-tax decision, but to many people it will seem distinctly worse than the disease. We hope never again to see the States the fiscal beneficiaries, even in appearance, of the federal Treasury. Again, we cannot help thinking Prof. Seligman ill-advised in his use of the assertion that the "single tax" cannot raise wages. If real wages, and not mere money wages, are intended, the assertion may very plausibly be disputed; at any rate, his cogent and convincing arguments against the single tax do not need the assertion even if it is true, while they suffer from it if it be false. Finally, in the highly technical chapter entitled "The Classification of Public Revenues," the discussion with Bastable runs into a style which reminds us of the beginnings of a German "Professorenzank," a kind of squabble which we may well leave to the universities of the Fatherland. In spite of occasional blemishes, however, Prof. Seligman's book is capable of holding its own with the best writing on taxation in the better known languages—a book, too, which legislator and citizen alike may read with alternate complacency and mortification, but with uniform profit.

Labor in its Relations to Law. By F. J. Stimson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THIS little book consists of four lectures delivered at the Plymouth School of Ethics, and it is quite probable that the character of the audience addressed had its influence on the treatment. Presumptively Mr. Stimson's hearers were neither economists nor lawyers, and the task of instruction and conversion must have been far from easy; but it has been performed with great skill and judgment. Some unpalatable truths had to be administered, but they have been so dexterously concealed in a vehicle of persuasive argument as to leave no bitter taste behind. By frankly professing sympathy with laborers, Mr. Stimson disarms opposition, and, having complied with the first maxim of the forum—to create a favorable impression towards the speaker in the minds of his hearers—he leads them gently away from the lotos groves of sentimentalism to the sober realms of reason and common sense.

Occasionally, however, Mr. Stimson is himself quite too mild. The barbarous legislation which prohibits the inmates of prisons from productive labor draws from him only the feeble complaint that "our sentimental altruism" should not carry us so far as to object to the employment of our criminals in healthy outside work. Why should it carry us so far as to object to their employment in healthy inside work? And why should Mr. Stimson particularly recommend their employment in enterprises which private capital avoids as unremunerative? Must not the convicts be somehow supported? And if they are not to be supported by their own labor, must it not be by the labor of free citizens? Here was an opportunity missed to administer a wholesome corrective to our sentimental altruism.

The statement of the law relating to the contracts between master and servant, and to such special episodes as strikes and boycotts, is very lucid and succinct. In fact, the book will serve very well as a manual of what is called labor legislation. The policy of many of these laws is well meant, and receives suitable commendation from Mr. Stimson, while the futility and unconstitutionality of a considerable class of statutes are plainly exposed. He looks forward to the attainment of peace in the industrial world, or at least of progress toward peace, through the development of the trade-unions. Doubtless the members of these unions, if they combine with their masters, can secure many things for both parties, but the fate of the outside laborers, who are, even in England, probably nine-tenths of the whole number, deserves some consideration. A combination of this kind may create an invincible monopoly, which is something that no believer in freedom can look forward to with gladness.

Socrates, and Athenian Society in his Day: A Biographical Sketch. By A. D. Godley, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1896. Pp. vi, 232.

THIS book is not intended, its author tells us, "for classical scholars or professed Platonists, but rather for the large and increasing class of students who do not wish to be debarred altogether from an acquaintance with Greek literature by their ignorance of the Greek language." In other words, it is another of the many attempts to begin an acquaintance with those productions which are preëminently the masterpieces of form and beauty, by casting away the beautiful form itself; to learn what the Greeks said, leaving out how they said it—that is, to learn Greek without Greek.

Mr. Godley proposes to effect this object by a series of passages translated chiefly from Plato, partly from Aristophanes and Xenophon, accompanied by some account from other sources of the position of Athens and the Athenians during the life-time of Socrates. His versions are spirited and accurate, and may be compared with those of Jowett, not at all to the advantage of the latter; which is remarkable in the work of an Oxonian. The principle of selection is not so commendable. There is far too much space given to the myths; the Atlantis and the story of Er, however striking in themselves and necessary for a knowledge of Plato, take up much space in a Life of Socrates which had far better be given to the 'Crito,' the 'Phædrus,' and the 'Theætetus.' It may not be easy to decide the exact ratio of Plato's intimacy with Socrates to that of Xenophon; but Mr. Godley seems yet in the fetters of the English traditional belief that because Plato's Socrates has much greater literary charm and richness of thought than Xenophon's, therefore it is more correct as a picture.

The material of the book has been so long before the world, and been so thoroughly thrashed over, that there is not much chance for original research; but the author has made one discovery, namely, that the attack on Socrates in the "Clouds" is just such scandal as arises in any small town, *e. g.*, Tennyson's Lincolnshire village. Considering the position Athens occupied in the civilized world in 423 B. C., and the crowds that were likely to assemble at the city Dionysia, all eager to see the comedies to which the truce was admitting them for the first time in eight years, such a reduction of Athens to the level of Chichester or Medicine Lodge is indeed novel. There are some points in Athenian society which all classical scholars know can never be explained to readers of English; and Mr. Godley's reserved paraphrases are as unsuccessful as his predecessors'. We also are favored with the repetition of the favorite English blunder, as follows: "In a large society, abstention from politics is a matter of choice. No one is seriously blamed for being what Americans call a 'Mugwump.'" A Mugwump, Mr. Godley is respectfully informed, is anything but an abstinent from politics.

The book is extremely elegant in all points of outward dress, and is generally correct in printing; but on page 198 there is a bad misprint of *labens* for *labem* in the quotation of Virgil's 'Æneid,' vi., 746.

Old Chester: Etched and described by H. Hovell Crickmore. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. Pp. 133.

THE city of Chester, with its well-preserved ancient walls, its interesting cathedral, and its admirable old houses, is one of the most attractive places in England to American travellers. It is proportionally attractive to Englishmen, and has been the subject of many publications, some of them of value. The present work is a chatty and discursive account of old buildings and of the two neighboring country houses, Eaton Hall and Hawarden Castle, the seats of the Duke of Westminster and Mr. Gladstone, respectively. It is illustrated by eleven etchings and twenty reproduced pen-drawings, not very masterly considered as renderings of architecture, although two or three of the etchings are much superior (in this respect and also in value as a record) to the other etchings and the pen-drawings. The chapter on "Bridge St. and Lower Bridge St." shows evidence of a considerable personal knowledge of the old houses which are as yet unmarred by restoration, and the few words given to the cathedral and to St. John's Church are much to the purpose and argue a lively sense of essential differences in architecture. Much the greater part of the text is given to a semi-jocose treatment of the legends and partly historical traditions connected with the buildings of the city and the city itself. The constant use of exclamation marks, combined with the little exclamatory clauses, "Oh, dear!" "Ah well!" and the rest, emphasizes the extremely modern language employed in many of the pages. Popular slang and funny writing need the exclamation points, as also do the bits of sentiment which are freely applied to the sad records of the past, and both are used in this presentation of ancient adventures and ancient miseries to modern readers. In spite of much bad taste, the book is readable and an aid to the understanding of history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderegg Prof. Frederick, and Roe, Prof. E. A. Trigonometry for Schools and Colleges. Boston: Ginn & Co. 80c.
Austin, Alfred. England's Darling. Macmillan. $1.25.
Berenson, Bernhard. The Florentine Painters of the Renaissance. With an Index to their Works. Putnams. $1.
Davis, Mrs. Rebecca Harding. Doctor Warrick's Daughters. Harpers. $1.50.
Eckenstein, Lina. Woman under Monasticism. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $4.
Field, Edward. Tax Lists of the Town of Providence, 1686-1689. Providence: Howard W. Preston.
Gibbon, Edward. Mahomet. New York: Peter Eckler. 25c.
Gilbert, Lee. Jack Hartnett. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Hubbard, Elbert. The Song of Songs: A Reprint and a Study. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Printing Shop.
Jacobs, Joseph. Jewish Ideals, and Other Essays. Macmillan. $2.50.
King, Dr. C. R. Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. III. 1799-1801. Putnams.
La Nouvelle Femme. G. W. Dillingham. 75c
Lee, Vernon. Renaissance Fancies and Studies. Putnams. $1.25.
Mahaffy, J. P. The Empire of the Ptolemies. Macmillan. $3.50.
March, Thomas. The History of the Paris Commune of 1871. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Ecclesiasticus. [The Modern Reader's Bible.] Macmillan. 50c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 27, 1896.

The Week.

THE resolutions adopted at the meeting in this city last week to promote international arbitration do not commit anybody to any particular *modus operandi*, but merely to "some wise method of arbitration." By avoiding the plan, which is favored by some, of a permanent high court of arbitration, the coöperation may be secured of all persons who favor the settlement of international disputes by peaceful means, leaving the method to future negotiations and adjustment. There are serious obstacles to a permanent high court of arbitration, the chief of which is, that a court must act under rules, and that rules for its guidance cannot be fixed in advance of the disputes which have to be adjusted. For example, the rules applicable to the Geneva arbitration (*Alabama* claims) would not have answered for the Paris arbitration on the Bering Sea question, while neither of these would have fitted the Venezuelan boundary dispute. Therefore the only practicable and safe approach to an agreement for arbitration as a rule of national life is to treat each case as it arises. The important thing is to get the nation, and eventually the world, into a habit of mind —that of regarding international differences as things to be settled in some other way than by fighting. Fortunately much has been done to bring us to that state of mind by the two great examples mentioned—those of Geneva and of Paris. The former especially was an affair of immense importance, settling, as it did, a most irritating question at a cost of only two or three days' expenses of a modern war.

The meeting on Washington's Birthday in Independence Hall, for the same object, was a great success, and its tone and spirit, together with the influence of many similar meetings held on the same day in different cities, will contribute much towards making the projected arbitration convention at Washington a true demonstration of national sentiment. Kipling's recent story, "How the Ship Found Herself," makes the first use of the steamer's true voice to exclaim, "What a fool I have been!" That is practically the confession which this country is making, by the mouth of these eminent jurists, clergymen, educators, and military men, who unite in a public protest against the needlessness and barbarity of a resort to war to settle international disputes, and in a demand for a "permanent system of judicial arbitration" between America and England. Bishop Potter justly said that the miserable Venezuelan imbroglio would be worth all it cost if it led to "a truly great and widespread movement for some common basis of understanding and action that shall minimize to the utmost possible extent the possibilities—between the two peoples that more than any other in all the world hold in their hands the future of a higher civilization—of the madness, the savagery, the brutality of war." President Cleveland's expression of his "hearty sympathy with any movement that tends to the establishment of peaceful agencies for the adjustment of international disputes," was certainly all that could have been expected, and we are not disposed to scrutinize too narrowly the phraseology by which this distinguished convert gives in his adhesion.

A very striking and encouraging evidence of a healthy change in public sentiment in this State towards war was seen in the action of the Assembly at Albany on Monday evening. A resolution was pending before it urging Congress to increase the navy, construct elaborate coast defences, form a closer alliance with other republics on this continent, and "acquire Cuba, preferably by purchase." When this came up for consideration, Mr. Kempner offered as a substitute a series of resolutions saying that the true grandeur of nations lay in the arts of civilization rather than in the wasteful, bitter violence of war, declaring that the Legislature earnestly desires Congress and the President to make permanent provisions for some wise method of international arbitration, and requesting the Governor to forward a copy of the resolutions to the Governors of other States in the Union asking them to coöperate in the movement for a national conference upon the subject at Washington. This substitute was adopted with only one dissenting vote, that of the author of the first resolution. Members of both parties thus went upon the record against Jingoism, and their action gives unmistakable evidence that the "war party" in this State is a very insignificant minority.

During the past week a plan of settlement of the Venezuelan controversy, called "the Smalley plan," has made its appearance in the columns of the London *Times*, Mr. Smalley being the New York correspondent of that paper. That the *Times* should have a plan of its own naturally irritates other papers, especially the *Chronicle*. Moreover, the *Times* correspondent, probably shrinking from this resentment, says the plan is not his, but one prepared by the American Government for submission at the proper time. But our State Department, doubtless foreseeing the consequences of an admission that it has told more to the *Times* than to the *Chronicle*, the *Globe*, or the *St. James's*, stoutly maintains that Mr. Smalley is in error, and that it has neither prepared nor proposed any plan. There is only one way out of this imbroglio, and that is the communication to more newspapers—say twelve—of the real secret of the negotiations. Delays are proverbially dangerous. In the multitude of newspapers there is safety, and no plan which has only one newspaper behind it can command the confidence of a great people.

The venerable Jules Simon has a striking letter on arbitration in the February *Cosmopolis*. He says that war was never so likely as at the present moment, and yet never so impossible—never so likely, on account of the many *casus belli* piling up in various parts of the world; never so impossible, on account of the fearful nature of any great war and of its inevitable results. The improvements in the art of war are such as to make it as fatal to victors as to vanquished, to neutrals as to belligerents. The dread of war's enormous catastrophes no doubt stays many a rash hand, and is, in a sense, of itself a guarantee of peace. But, as M. Simon says, is living in this state of armed apprehension a tolerable way for civilized nations to live? If all profess, as all do, a love of peace and a horror of war, why not take prompt steps to make peace all but certain? That is the question which the advocates of international arbitration are asking to-day with redoubled emphasis, and the only answer they get from the Jingoes is that war is a glorious spectacle, and a sport worthy to be named even above the prize-fighting which they love and praise almost equally. There can be no doubt that in this country, as in England and France, the mass of the people are ready to accept arbitration more swiftly and completely than are their rulers. In this situation, as M. Simon asserts, "If diplomacy stumbles at technicalities in the presence of such perils, let public opinion force its hand."

The laurels gathered by Mr. Hannis Taylor in the field of diplomacy have not attracted general admiration heretofore, and his latest exploit will not add much to his fame or that of the United States. A Spanish naval officer read a paper before the Geographical Society of Madrid, in which he expressed certain opinions, sufficiently absurd, no doubt, of this country and its inhabitants. Among other things he had observed here was a company of young ladies drilling for military service, from which he drew the inference that the future defenders of the republic were to be of the female sex—the men, perhaps, supporting themselves by needlework or taking in washing. He

had probably seen some school-girls practising the Delsarte system, and reached that extraordinary conclusion. No matter how he came by them, his comments are not more extraordinary than some that we are accustomed to see in the gravest French publications. Minister Taylor was ruffled by this communication to the Madrid geographers, and addressed a note to the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs. There are various accounts in the newspapers of the import and tenor of this note. It is not important to anybody except Mr. Taylor himself what he said, but that he should have taken any notice at all of a paper read at a private gathering ought to be mortifying to American pride, and would be were we not so accustomed to the *gaucheries* of our representatives abroad and so hardened by them. It appears that Capt. Concas, the offender of Taylor, was not attached in an official capacity to the Spanish visitors to the Columbian Exposition.

Senator Morgan "went gunning" for Spain in the Senate on Thursday, in company with Lodge of Massachusetts. After they had finished there was not much to choose between them and Capt. Concas on the score of good manners. Morgan said that Spain was daily committing outrages on humanity itself by its treatment of prisoners taken in Cuba. "Spain fills to repletion her prison in Africa," he said, "with persons captured out of the army of the rebels. . . . Spain inflicts upon them penalties, under the name of law, which their crimes would not deserve even if they were individuals engaged separate and apart, or in little squads, in insurrection against the Government of Spain." Morgan wanted to have belligerent rights accorded to them by our Government. Lodge went farther. "I should like to see some more positive action taken than that," he said. What more positive action could we take unless we should interfere in Cuban affairs by force—that is, make war against Spain? We refer to these speeches merely to point out the insignificance of the offence which called out Mr. Taylor's note to the Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs in comparison with the affronts publicly put upon a friendly government by some of the highest officials of our own.

All expectation of passing the tariff bill in the Senate has been abandoned, and it is now said that the free-coinage bill that was sent by the Senate to the House (as a substitute for the bond bill of the latter) will not receive the compliment of a conference committee. This is a satisfactory disposition of both measures. Senator Smith said the other day, with keen discernment and retrospection, that the best thing Congress could do would be to adjourn. This sentiment was heartily applauded by the country, but since Congress will not take the hint and adjourn immediately, the next best thing is for the House to reject all the Senate bills and the Senate to reject all the House bills except the regular appropriations. The special appropriations, of which there is a formidable mass looming up, such as bills for new battle-ships, coast fortifications, the Nicaragua Canal, the Pittsburgh and Lake Erie ship-canal, etc., ought to be solemnly knocked in the head as fast as they show themselves. It would be a saving of time if all these measures were given the *coup de grâce* in the House first, but the probability is that they will first see the light in the Senate as amendments to ordinary appropriation bills, in which case we hope that Speaker Reed will have a long knife whetted and ready for each of them.

Against the protests of the chairman of the House committee on agriculture, and apparently in defiance of a rule of the House which provides that no amendment to an appropriation bill shall change existing law, the agricultural bill was passed last week, with a clause making it manda tory upon Secretary Morton to buy and distribute $150,000 worth of seeds. The existing statute requires that such seeds must be "rare and uncommon," but this is now explicitly repealed—whether legally or not, it may yet be for the Attorney-General and the courts to decide. But there was at least debate enough to make the unblushing nature of the performance perfectly clear. The arguments for the Government's going into the seed business were just three. Secretary Morton is against silver, and we'll make him distribute seeds whether he wants to or not, law or no law. Secondly, Wall Street and the gold-bugs have corrupted this Congress and bought so many favors from it that we must make a show of doing something for the farmer, whether it is what he wants or not. Thirdly, those seeds are ours, and we are going to have them allotted to us personally; and no usurper shall be allowed to override the majestic and inalienable privilege of every Congressman to have thirteen packages of turnip seed go with his seat. In the name of Jehovah and the Continental Congress, seeds!

The discussion in the House last week over the question of the proper pay of five Indian inspectors concerned a petty matter, so far as the amount of money at issue went, but it involved the whole matter of economy in appropriations. The point was whether the salary of these five men should be made a few hundred dollars apiece larger than it has been, but the chairman of the appropriations committee and other prominent Republicans treated it as a test of party policy on the question of economy. Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio, for example, said:

"I stand here for one to make a record that will show to mankind that in this year, in the great depression of business, in a time when everybody is suffering, and appeals are coming to Congress from every direction, I will not vote to increase salaries at a ratio of 25 per cent., or nearly that amount, in an appropriation. I warn you, gentlemen of the House of Representatives on both sides, that the people of this country have their eye on this particular Congress, and one of the things they are looking to is to see whether we are willing to create new offices and give exaggerated salaries to existing officers."

Despite such appeals, however, enough Republicans joined with the Democrats to carry the increase. The Democrats, of course, think it "good politics" to have another "billion-dollar Congress" for a campaign argument against the Republicans, if they can get it, and there are a good many Republicans who do not seem to be afraid to run the risk.

Fortunately, Speaker Reed is conceded by everybody to stand firm on this question, and while there are signs of revolt against him, his influence is still tremendous and may prove decisive on more important issues than the one decided last week. The welcome announcement is made, on what seems to be good authority, that the Republican managers of the House will not let down the bars even for the sake of appropriating large sums for new war-ships. The Jingo element has urged that the money for new ships need not be appropriated this year, but all that will be necessary will be for the House to sanction their building and appropriate the money to start the work. The House leaders reply that such legislation would be in the nature of a promise to pay, and that although the money in bulk should not be appropriated this year, this Congress would be held responsible for the legislation and the spending of the money. Mr. Dingley, chairman of the ways and means, maintains that the Republican leaders are doing the best they can, for both the country and the party, when they take this stand, and he is quite right. So far as Speaker Reed is concerned, economy is undoubtedly the best card that he can play in the game for the Republican nomination.

A petition addressed to members of Congress has been sent out for signature by the President of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, at Mansfield, O. It is in these terms:

"The introduction of any measure in your honorable body looking towards military training in the public schools of this country is sincerely regretted. We believe it will prove one of the mistakes of the century just closing to utilize in any way our cherished educational system for war necessities. We earnestly ask you to work and vote against all bills and resolutions that aim to accomplish such a purpose."

We do not believe any such petition unaccompanied by argument will produce any effect on any member of Congress. We are in the midst of an attempt, long prepared, to convert this into a military nation, with hostility to foreigners as the leading motive in its politics and in the education of its youth. This attempt was begun, and is continued, mainly as a

support to high-tariff legislation. As long as the leading party in the country makes the enactment of high tariff its main concern, to the neglect of nearly every other governmental interest, this motive will continue to be cherished in every way possible, including military drill in the schools. Nor will the drill be taught as a means of physical culture. It will be taught as a preparation for war, that is, for the slaughter of certain people—particularly the British—and the destruction of their houses and ships. Every canvass in promotion of the tariff will consist largely in abuse of foreigners, and exposures of their designs against our peace, prosperity, and security, and out of this will come constant preparations for defence against attacks by them on our coasts and navy. Therefore, there is, in our opinion, little use in trying to cure the war fever without attacking it at its source, which is the protectionist mania.

Twenty-five Republican Congressmen from Pennsylvania, "having seen mention in the newspapers" of the fact that Matt Quay might possibly be a candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination, have "taken this opportunity" to request him to be one, and to assure him that "from the numerous expressions of sentiment in our respective districts by leading Republicans the mention of your candidacy is received with great favor and that you will obtain their support." They remark that it is some time since Pennsylvania had a candidate for the Presidency, but they hold that "there is no reason why our great Republican State should longer be ignored, and we believe that the man and the occasion unite in making your candidacy available at the present time." In reply, Mr. Quay informs his correspondents that some days before, "in deference to friends whose wishes could not be disregarded," he had signified his willingness that his name should go before the Republicans of the country "in the high connection you mention," and that the "kind coincidence" of the Congressmen in this suggestion was "exceedingly gratifying." He concluded, "Believing that they and you are equally sincere, I remit my candidacy in all good faith to the wisdom of the delegates who will assemble at St. Louis on the 16th of June next." Being asked by a correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* what his "campaign slogan" would be, Mr. Quay replied "without hesitation": "More protection, more money, more public improvements, and municipal reform."

The first effect of all this was to take away the breath of the editor of the *Press*, and make him "stand dumb," and dumb he has remained in his own paper. In this city he was heard to say that "of course the purpose of Mr. Quay's candidacy was to hold and solidify the Pennsylvania delegation." He seemed to have no views to express about the possible shame which a delegation solidified for a candidate of such character might bring upon the State. No candidacy quite equal to this in cynical defiance of the moral sentiment of the country has ever been put forward in either party, backed as this is by the apparently solid support of a great State. Senator Gorman's candidacy in 1892 came nearest to it, but he had only a small State behind him, and was morally Quay's superior.

How much of the money paid over for the late Government loan has come from home reserves, and how much from foreign markets? At least $67,000,000 has been paid on bond subscriptions. Now there has been imported, since the opening of the year, exclusive of coin in transit, not more than $15,000,000 gold. This sum must represent the maximum of the bond subscriptions which up to date have been actually drawn from European money reserves. In other words, ignoring all payments left on deposit with the banks, at least $50,000,000 has, since the 8th of February, been withdrawn from the domestic market and absolutely locked up from public use. Now let us see what has been the effect on the market of this withdrawal. In the opening week of January, when the bond issue was announced, call money rose in New York to 35 per cent. Two weeks later, 6 per cent. was virtually the lowest, and time loans brought as high as 12. This clearly arose from uncertainty as to how much money was being withheld by lenders in view of a possible genuine and heavy over-subscription to the bonds. That the extreme high rates were caused by this, and not by misgivings over the actual withdrawal of $111,000,000 in five months, was proved after the bond allotments, when all the money markets promptly receded, until the present rates for two-months' loans are down to 4 per cent., with call loans correspondingly easy. A similar result has for a fortnight past been perceptible in other domestic money markets.

One of the odd things, to the American eye, in English journalism, is the enormous hospitality accorded to the views of Mr. Moreton Frewen on American affairs, especially on American money and finance. If any one here on the spot, where his tales can be verified, attaches any importance to them, we have yet to hear of him. And yet they reach the London *Times* in ceaseless stream. It now appears that he has been seeking support from the eminent Lodge, and Lodge feeds him in a letter from which Mr. Frewen makes the following extract:

"I see Balfour comments on the astonishing outburst of feeling against England here. The bottom of it, in recent times, is England's attitude on the money question, and the way in which she has snubbed all our efforts to do anything for silver. Do you not see that gold, which you have been fighting for for years, is really at the bottom of all this business? I quite agree that we are not going to be made prosperous by borrowing; but we can check the outflow of gold by prudent legislation."

Now it is, of course, a great shame for Massachusetts that she should have a man like Lodge sitting in the chair of Daniel Webster and Edward Everett. There is no covering that up. But Mr. Frewen, when he quotes Lodge to the English public, fails to mention that he has no financial authority whatever; that nobody minds what he says about currency, or gold, or silver; that he is a "friend of silver" simply because he is a demagogue, and thought for a while that his party was rushing into the silver slough. He clamors for silver or bimetallism just as he clamors for war with England about Venezuela, or for a big navy or for coast fortifications.

That the troubles of Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria will be brought to an end by the "conversion" of his infant son, Prince Boris, and baptism in the Holy Orthodox Church, is a consummation which that prince may desire, one would think, rather than confidently expect. The difficulties which have beset Prince Ferdinand since his accession to power have been of many sorts, and they seem to have weighed upon him almost in inverse ratio to their real gravity. The downfall and murder of Stambuloff he bore (if indeed he did not plan) with a light heart; while the later disturbances, domestic and political, which have arisen over the baptism of his son seem to have thrown him into great perplexity. He had, to be sure, promised at the time of his marriage that his children should be brought up in the Roman Catholic faith; but such promises are not always kept, especially in royal households. Prince Ferdinand desired to conciliate the Czar, and, perhaps even more, to smooth away the prejudices of his own people, and make more solid the foundations of his dynasty by conforming it to the national religion. Hot dissensions at once sprang up inside and outside his palace. His most earnest opponents were those of his own household. Then he took the unwise course of endeavoring to obtain the Pope's consent to the carrying out of his wishes. Very queer dispensations have at one time or another been granted at Rome, but the Holy Father evidently thought this an extreme case, and also perhaps "bad politics," and refused his sanction. Since then Prince Ferdinand has been letting "I dare not" wait upon "I would," until at last he has come to a feeble and hesitating decision, and the baptism of the Prince has taken place. When Henry IV. made up his mind that Paris was worth a mass, we may be sure that he did not consult the Huguenot ministers on the question, or send the Dauphin as a proxy to assist at mass, instead of going himself.

A DISGUISED REVOLUTION.

THE latest Platt performances at Albany and in this city serve a useful purpose in illustrating the nature of the very great change which is now going on in the government of a good many of the States, and notably and especially of this. This change would excite more alarm and apprehension if it were not disguised under the old forms. But it is in this State so great that, as a shrewd observer remarked to us the other day, the description of the working of a State government contained in Tocqueville or Bryce is here to-day a veritable political romance. There is no set of facts in existence corresponding to this description. Nothing remains of the old government except the power of the voters to transfer the offices from one set of rulers to another, somewhat after the manner of a Central American revolution. This transfer can still be made at the polls whenever the voter pleases, but, having made it, he is *functus officio*. He has literally no influence on legislation or administration. His approval or disapproval has lost all force.

It has been a favorite theory of publicists for the last fifty years that the silent, unperceived modifications which in former days so often changed democracies into oligarchies or dictatorships, as in Greece, Rome, Venice, and other Italian states, were no longer possible, owing to the vigilance and activity of the modern press. But this, in the States of New York and Pennsylvania at least, is proving a complete delusion. The press in both these States is almost wholly controlled by promoters of the revolution. Outside of New York city there are only two Republican newspapers in the State opposed to Platt. The rest of the party's editors are in some way in his employ, and print the matter which he sends them as submissively as if he exercised military rule. Except in this city and in Buffalo, no citizen throughout the State could find means of expressing dissatisfaction with the new régime except through a pamphlet. Open discussion of public measures or men has ceased in the interior. The simulacrum of it which exists, closely resembles that which prevailed in France in the early days of the Second Empire. It differs in that there were many French editors at that time who would have spoken out if they had dared, while there are apparently no Platt editors who would do differently even if they could. The most alarming thing about them, too, is the facility with which they have succumbed. An editor who quails before military force can still retain his self-respect; but to close one's mouth and repeat a master's words solely for a little office or a small loan, is too much for human dignity.

The legislative situation is a counterpart to that of the press. There is no more connection between the public and the great majority of the legislators than between the public and the newspapers. Here again the parallel between our plight and that of the French between 1851-60, jumps into our faces. There were, during most of that period, five men in the French Chambers who opposed or criticised the Government, but they were themselves well aware, as was everybody else, that their talk was mere parade. No one paid attention to them or answered them. Their presence simply enabled the ministers to say that freedom of speech still existed. There is, in like manner, a small minority at Albany which professes independence and says what it pleases, and keeps up a pretence of debate, but its words are quite idle. It influences no votes, and does not modify the plans of the Boss.

The power, too, which the Boss possesses to prescribe, promise, and even sell legislation, not on any particular class of subjects, but on all subjects whatever which lie within State jurisdiction, is absolutely novel in the sphere of parliamentary government. A similar power, undoubtedly, is possessed by the British minister, and was grossly abused through a large part of the last century, but the minister was a member of Parliament and was a recognized functionary of the state. The peculiarity of our condition is, that our Legislature and press are controlled by a private person, unknown to the law or the Government, who does not defend his schemes or answer charges, and whom there is no legal way of calling to account. We are here giving a description of the state of things in New York. But this description would be true also of Pennsylvania, where the reigning Boss has just been invited to become a candidate for the Presidency by his admirers in Congress. This is a striking illustration of the rapidity and depth of the descent which we have been trying to portray.

The cause of this descent is not difficult to explain. Our nominating system, which started into existence seventy years ago only, has in two generations been converted into a machine which threatens the destruction of popular government in two more. Nothing seemed more harmless, sensible, and even satisfactory in the beginning than a convention of elected delegates to select candidates for the party. But the contrivance unhappily came into use just as the popular vote was assuming enormous proportions. The bringing of it to the polls soon became a task of great difficulty, making work for professionals, and developing a peculiar kind of talent, although not of the highest order. The more difficult it became to organize the nominating convention, the more powerful became the organizers, the more necessary their favor to any one wishing to enter public life. When once this was perceived, their progress towards complete possession of the Government was very rapid. There is only one check today on their control of it, and that is the possibility of putting the other party in power; but as the other party has a Boss also, the situation cannot be really changed by an election. There is a change of persons, but not of system. Platt is substituted for Croker, or Croker for Platt, but the people do not recover possession of their administrative machinery. In other words, our nominating system has swallowed up the very thing for which the nominating system was created. It no longer selects candidates only: it selects officers. Nor does its activity cease when the election is over. It takes possession of the officer after he is elected, and prescribes his duties, whether legislative or administrative. It is permanent, while the officer is transient. Platt and Croker live and rule through many Legislatures, while every legislator comes to them every year to ask for a continuance in public life.

We have no substitute to propose for this system. We point out simply that, whatever its original merit or convenience, it is now rapidly destroying American government as imagined and framed by its founders, so that change of some kind is not a matter of choice, but of necessity, and out of the necessity we must believe that some substitute will emerge. Of the collateral effects of Bossism on the character of public men, on the condition of public life, on the credit of legislative bodies, and on the quality of legislation, we say nothing to-day. What these things will be, any intelligent man may work out for himself with a pencil and bit of paper in half an hour. The progress of the evil within two or three years has been startling indeed. As we saw in this city recently, the Bosses no longer have the decency to elect the delegates to the conventions honestly. They used to content themselves by securing the choice of their henchmen; they now do not even take the trouble to have votes cast for them. They throw in bogus ballots, and say that this will do well enough for the "Presidential year," which is rapidly becoming the appointed season for licensed political villany. The matter, therefore, cannot be let alone. We invite to it the attention of all men who love their country and believe in the future of popular government.

THE FAILURE OF REPUBLICAN MORALITY.

EVERY observer must be struck by the similarity between the political situation in this State to-day and that which existed in 1892. There was then, as now, a Boss with a powerful following, in control of the Governor and the Legislature. He then, as now, shaped, hindered, or sold legislation. Then, as now, the chief city and State officers either held office at his mercy or were very much afraid of him. Then, as now, he either levied, or was believed to levy, blackmail on corporations and rich men as the price of protection from some sort of confiscation or annoyance. Then, as now, the charters of the leading cities were treated as instruments with which the legislative majority could

amuse themselves by altering at pleasure, vacating or abolishing the offices to suit the Boss's convenience or profit. Then, as now, there was a small minority of the Boss's party which protested against the Boss's doings, which defied his power, exposed his frauds, and asked judgment on him from the party conscience.

But here the parallel ceases. The Democratic minority who were disgusted by Hill's and Croker's fraud and corruption, broke with them absolutely. They refused all compromise. They stopped dining with them and "harmonizing" with them. They did everything that was necessary to be done to convince the public and the party that they were in earnest; that their fight was not a sham battle. They did not admit, or allow any one to suppose, that they considered "the Presidential year" a year in which fraud should be condoned, and thimbleriggers feasted, and open enemies of the American form of government treated as patriots and statesmen. The Boss had all the delegates to the national convention and the whole party machine in the State, and in truth as fine a "lay-out" as any cheat or criminal could desire. Nothing was wanting to make the reform movement seem to the ordinary politician a thoroughly visionary, crack-brained scheme, the only palpable result of which would be the loss of the State at the Presidential election. But the reformers carried out their programme with what used to be considered Republican firmness and integrity. They made a new enrolment; they called another State convention; they went to the national convention strong, not in numbers, but in truthfulness, honesty, and decency, and they made such an impression that their candidate was nominated, and was overwhelmingly elected, and received in this State a majority of nearly 45,000! The battle, as Patrick Henry said, is not always to the strong alone; it is to the active, the vigilant, the brave. "True Americanism," true patriotism, does not consist solely in fighting England. It consists mainly in fighting the domestic thieves, runagates, impostors, and blatherskites who are constantly trying to take possession of the government.

The State Republicans are face to face to-day with a crisis exactly resembling that with which the Democrats had to deal in 1892. They are, too, if we are to believe their newspapers and their clergymen, equipped for it as the Democrats have not been in forty years. They are supposed to include most of the virtue and intelligence of the community in their ranks. The Christian people, and the temperance people, and the law-abiding people, are all supposed to be on their side. Theirs mainly is public conscience and theirs are the high standards. It is they who must govern the State and nation if America is to fulfil her high mission. "Música, música," as the Spaniards say. There is no sign of any such Republican party among us. There is no sign of a single reformer with the courage or high principle of a Fairchild or Shepard. Far from putting the Boss away from them, they feast him. Far from declaring war on him, they coddle and cajole him and keep up friendly relations with him. Nay, they tremble before him. Far from treating the Presidential year as the year of all years for the display of the highest American morality, for lifting the government into the air and light of pure reason, they treat it as a peculiarly appropriate season for the condonation of fraud, for the passage of pinchbeck money, for serving up stale fish and putrid mutton, and giving thieves the run of the public offices.

One thing alone in which the Republican Boss imitates the Democratic Boss ought to shut him out of the houses of honest men, good citizens, and sincere Christians. It is no worse for Croker to levy blackmail on corporations and individuals and sell legislation than for Platt. It is no worse indication in Croker than in Platt. The men who condone or overlook it or make light of it, are far worse enemies of the United States than those foreign foes on whom the Senate has its eye. The place where "supine submission to wrong, injustice, and consequent loss to national self-respect and honor," is going on, is not, begging the President's pardon, the banks of the Essequibo or of the Orinoco, but in or about 49 Broadway. It is not in tropical pampas or forests that our ruin is being worked, but in express offices and bar-rooms and hotel parlors. Our most dangerous foes are not great monarchs or famous generals, but a ragged army of shabby hypocrites and adventurers, who live on our weakness and cowardice.

Some of the Republican reformers excuse their Plattism by assuring us that Platt, unlike Croker, keeps none of his blackmail for himself. Oh my, no. The good man uses it all for the benefit of "the party"—that is, for buying up editors and relieving impecunious legislators. But what do they know about it? In what other branch of human activity would any one venture to tell us that a man who receives money freely and renders no accounts, retains none of it for his own use? Should we not laugh in the face of any one, lay or clerical, who in any business, civil or ecclesiastical, charitable or commercial, asked us to trust him with a large income without even telling us what he does with the money? Is it not the oddest incident of American politics today that a small lot of adventurers, without financial standing or public character, should claim exemption, under extremely suspicious circumstances, from the accountability which we impose upon every man, no matter how long-tried or how much respected, in every calling? It would be odd even if they made a show of using the money for the support of crippled children. It is absurd when they decline to describe a single item in their expenditure. Every one, no matter what his professions, who helps in the maintenance of this system, either by acquiescence, silence, harmony, or coöperation, shares its guilt and is an enemy of his country.

RECOGNIZING BELLIGERENCY.

THE 'Recognition of Cuban Belligerency' is the title of a pamphlet by Prof. J. H. Beale, jr., of the Harvard Law School, reprinted from the *Law Review*. It contains a review of the action of our Government in its dealings with foreign governments, as to insurrectionary movements within their borders, and points out that the right to recognize belligerency rests upon two circumstances—the existence in fact of what in international law is regarded as legal war, and the necessity on the part of the nation which acts of recognizing the existence of the fact. The first is really the cause of the second. When an insurrectionary movement is carried on, as ours was during the Revolution, by a regular government having a definite territorial extent, and with a military and political organization, with a legislature, courts, an executive, etc., it becomes a necessity for nations having commercial relations with the inhabitants of the portion of the country in insurrection to recognize the facts of the case. It is impossible to go on treating as robbers or pirates people who have for the time being created an independent military and political society. We tried the experiment at the time of the Rebellion, and insisted upon it for two or three years that Jefferson Davis and all the whites in the South were robbers and murderers, and that the officers and crew of the *Alabama* and other rebel cruisers were pirates; that England should not have recognized the belligerency of the South, and that the South was not a belligerent. Nevertheless we ultimately had to abandon this position, admit the fact of belligerency and legal war, and abandon all idea of hanging Davis and his co-conspirators, simply because the facts were against us. We still clung to the point that England had been overhasty in recognizing the belligerency of the Southern States; but this was merely raising the question as to when belligerency became established—another question simply of fact.

The reason why it is never for the interest on the part of a neutral or friendly nation to recognize belligerency when it does not exist is, that, just as long as the insurrection remains an insurrection, the government risen against (in this case Spain) is responsible for all injury which lawlessness may produce affecting the interests of the citizens of the friendly state (in this case the United States). It is only when the insurrectionary party form a *de facto* state that this responsibility disappears, and when this responsibility

is no longer of any value it must be recognized. If Gomez and Maceo were to drive General Weyler and his troops into the sea, and organize Cuba as an independent state, it would be of no use to go on pretending that Spain was in control. We should, for our own interests, need to rely on the responsibility of those actually in control.

To apply these remarks to the present situation of affairs is not difficult. The insurrection has neither regular army, nor navy, nor courts, nor legislature, nor executive. Its seat is said to be on top of a remote and inaccessible mountain, and the reason why we hear of its "operations" near the capital is that its forces are marauding bands "operating" in the way Rob Roy used to operate in the Highlands. Any point where there are negroes or white patriots out of work, and where there is anything to lay hands on, becomes a centre of insurrection, a centre which, the moment the booty is "touched," fades away.

The favorite argument with the newspapers seems to be that because the Spaniards are cruel, therefore we ought to recognize the belligerency of the Cubans. No amount of cruelty on the part of the Spaniards, however, will produce belligerency if none exists. What those who are indignant at the Spanish cruelty want is not a recognition of belligerency, but intervention, and this, as Mr. Beale points out, is a totally different matter. When we have made up our minds, if we come to such a conclusion, that the interests of humanity demand intervention, then our course is plain enough. We warn Spain off, of course taking the risk of war. We also should, if our cry is humanity, carefully consider how much better off Cuba would be free than under Spanish dominion, whether there exist any materials for self-government on the island, and whether we desire to have the races which inhabit it as fellow-citizens. Forcible intervention is an intelligible policy; but what we or any one else should gain by pretending that the Cubans are belligerents when they are not, is what no one has explained. The length of time during which lawlessness exists has little or nothing to do with it. The last insurrection in Cuba lasted ten years. There have been at various times parts of Italy entirely in the hands of banditti, against whom the Government has been able to do nothing; but it never occurred to any one to recognize them as belligerents. Yet all banditti are in favor of freedom and foes of governmental interference.

Still another reason has been advanced for recognizing Cuban belligerency. Some one has unearthed a doctrine of international law that no government is responsible for not giving protection if it is physically impossible to do so, and the argument for the recognition of belligerency then proceeds as follows: Parts of the island are in insurrection, and the property of American citizens is at the mercy of the revolutionists; the Spanish commander cannot protect this property; therefore we must abandon any claim for indemnity against Spain, and look to Maceo and Gomez. Such is said to be the reasoning of the House committee on foreign affairs, who feel that it removes the last argument against the recognition of Cuban belligerency. We take the liberty of doubting that Spain has ever announced its intention not to protect foreign citizens. The trouble with the House committee is that it feeds too exclusively upon doctrines and principles of law—a windy diet—to the oversight of facts.

PIGEON-HOLED KNOWLEDGE.

Hazlitt told the story of West, the painter, that, when asked if he had ever been in Greece, he replied: "No, but I have read a descriptive catalogue of the principal objects in that country, and I believe I am as well conversant with them as if I had visited it." This suggests one of the most terrible intellectual temptations of our day, one which has a fatal power over many minds. We mean the temptation to make of one's head nothing but a ledger, in which all one's knowledge must be neatly and precisely classified and written up every night. It is peculiarly a besetting sin of critics, especially of literary critics, who must reduce all the literature of a given age, no matter how miscellaneous and refractory, to one "movement," group all the writers of any one period into a "school" or schools, and, in short, make literary criticism into a sort of old-fashioned desk, with little parcels of opinions, nicely labelled and docketed, stowed away in the pigeon-holes.

Classification is, of course, the beginning of wisdom in many branches of science, but it must be a classification into which the facts fall easily and magically, not one into which they have to be forced maimed and bleeding. In what is so essentially free and elastic a process as the intellectual development of a generation, or the evolution of a national literature throughout a century, the insistence upon exact and rigid classification easily runs into confusion and absurdity. Taine's 'English Literature' illustrates the madness that lies this way, and a recent address of Brunetière's on "The Renaissance of Idealism" seems to us another example of it. The schedules are too hard-and-fast, the labels too confidently stuck on, the accounts too accurately footed up, and the balance too miraculously correct. M. Brunetière compresses the whole field of intellectual activity into his formula, and makes science, music, art, literature, religion, and government alike bear testimony to the progress of the age away from materialism, naturalism, realism, or whatever you call it, into idealism—whatever you mean by *that*, and Brunetière expressly refused to be bound by a "too strict" definition.

Now, the human mind, not of the Dryasdust order, instinctively rebels at this. One might acknowledge the science, or the music, or the religion separately; but all of them at once, with art and literature thrown in, and each and all ticketed "Renaissance of Idealism"—this is too much. If it were all as clear and true as this, there would surely be no need of delivering an eloquent "conférence" about it, for everybody would be convinced of it on sight. It would be easy, moreover, to show more than one detail in which Brunetière is far from making out his case. Science, for example, he says, has become idealistic because "the promises which savants have publicly made in its name" have failed of fulfilment. But when you ask what savants, he admits that he does not mean the authorized exponents of science, the Darwins, the Pasteurs, the Helmholtzes, but the second or third-rate men, the very charlatans of science. The retort is obvious that if science has gone "bankrupt," in Brunetière's famous phrase, idealism has not likewise gone so only because all it promises to pay fall due in the new heavens and the new earth which it is yet to create. And when the lecturer finds his proof of the coming of political idealism in the spread of Socialism, one can only wonder how he would discriminate idealism from fanaticism or the most rabid doctrinairianism.

But it is not so much on details like these that we intended to dwell as on the perils of the mania for classifying which they exemplify. One cannot go through an age labelling and pigeon-holing knowledge in this way. Mark Pattison denied that it was possible to do so even in a past century; much less in one whose records are not yet made up. By falling back on our little lists and schedules we all the while increase the danger of taking our eyes off the stubborn facts to let them rest on our graceful classifications. Rousseau tells us how he felt this danger, and how he finally surmounted it by determining, instead of squeezing all he read into his own pet formulas, to open his mind freely, as "a magazine of ideas," and let the classification come later as best it might. In this way he certainly saved himself from the reproach that has been brought against Guizot, that he had all knowledge reduced to a beautiful *catalogue raisonné*, but was not a whit the wiser for it.

The way things are actually done—literature actually produced, for example—is often ludicrously unlike the theory of the way they are done. When a modern novelist falls to work, does he say to himself, "Now I am a realist, a symbolist, a *décadent*, an idealist, or what not, and must live up to my 'school,' so as not to baffle the critics"? Hardly. If he did, he would not get on much faster than Bismarck said he should if he did everything "on principle"—"principles" being, he affirmed, like a long pole held crosswise in your teeth when you wanted

to run along a narrow path in the dense forest. Wordsworth, it is true, wrote some poems to illustrate his poetical theories, as Blair preached sermons built on the strictest principles of the rhetorical art; but the poems rivalled the sermons in wooden and deadly dulness. Dr. Johnson gave his idea of this kind of literary classification when asked if the sermons of Dr. Dodd were not "addressed to the passions." "Sir," he replied, "they are nothing, be they addressed to what they may." What novelists write for may roughly be set down as (1) money, (2) reputation, principally as a means to more money, (3) recognition and good will of contemporaries, (4) dim and dubious hope of posthumous fame. All the rest is vanity; the anxieties and embarrassments of pigeonhole critics over the question of what category to put them in, vanity of vanities.

THE THIRTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF CARDUCCI'S PROFESSORSHIP.

BOLOGNA, February 9, 1896.

RARELY, if ever, since Petrarch's time has a living poet received such overwhelming tokens of love and reverence as Carducci has to day on this thirty-fifth anniversary of his first lecture as professor of *belle lettere* in the University of Bologna. The homage rendered by all Italy is to the noble genius of the poet who has never stooped to flatter princes or people, who has said to Italy, to her rulers, to her parties, the hardest, bluntest things that can well be imagined, and at the same time has kept the plebs informed that squalor and misery alone do not give them a title to the world's commiseration. The special homage of Bologna, however, is to the professor who has educated several generations in the worship of intellectual greatness and civic virtue. The idea originated with one of his present pupils, a Sicilian, Rodolico, who proposed to present an album with the names of all the students who have frequented Carducci's classes from 1861 till now, with the photographs of as many as were obtainable; and this family festival took place on February 2, the real "first day." Then the Syndic of the city, very proud of the fact that Carducci in the communal elections had polled more votes than any born Bolognese, bethought himself of a municipal commemoration. Carducci's colleagues could not be left out in the cold, nor his publishers, the brothers Zanichelli, be neglected. King Humbert, who, your readers will remember, came with the Queen and heir apparent to listen to his commemoration of the fifth centenary of the University of Bologna, sent him the medal as Commendatore of the Order of S. Maurizio e Lazzaro with a really hearty letter, praying "that the poet may be spared for many years to the studious youth who cherish him with love and gratitude." Both the King and Queen sent telegrams which were read by the Syndic dall' Olio with great gusto in the reading-room of the Arciginnasio, where some five hundred of the *élite* of Bologna were assembled, one row being reserved for the lady students who throng his lectures. The Syndic spoke from his heart:

"Even before the communal decree that conferred on you the rights of citizenship, we considered you as our own son; and if we have sought out the best possible way of conferring on you the greatest imaginable honors, it is because you have given us such proofs of love and devotion to our city by refusing the high position which other cities wished you to accept [in allusion to the Dante chair at Rome, which Carducci refused in order to remain faithful to Bologna], that the city opens its maternal arms to embrace the son beloved who has so loved and honored his mother. You came to us, when you were quite young, from gentle Tuscany, just when Bologna had thrown off the double yoke of priest and foreigner; and though you possessed the qualities that insure fame—lofty genius, profound and multiform knowledge, a thirst for all high and noble things—fame was not yet assured to you Your fame dates from Bologna, and, as it grew and expanded, the name of our city was ever associated with it. Nor did fame come suddenly as a gift from heaven; on the contrary you won it gradually, and never to any one was it given so grudgingly. The first songs of 'Enotrio Romano' were a challenge flung down to the academical softnesses in which Italian poetry delighted. The public and the critics, accustomed to linger in the pleasant paths of the garden of the Muses, were frightened at a poet who forcibly drew them up the steepest of mountain paths; and protested and blamed the audacious pioneer who led them away from beaten tracks, trusting that anathemas would silence the importunate voice. But the voice, which was the lofty, solemn voice of poetry, was not silenced; silence it could not keep, and it was from Bologna that 'Enotrio' no more, but Giosuè Carducci, continued his courageous work of innovation. Still the critics censured, but they were no longer listened to; the public, subdued, joyfully yielded to the resistless fascination; began by forgiving the poet his conquest, then from day to day loved him more passionately, and would have him not only loved but acclaimed in this city, which had been faithful to him in his struggles, and is now witness and sharer in his glory."

The Syndic next devoted his remarks to Giosuè as professor, showing the influence he has had in leading his disciples to real love, appreciation, and reverence for their great ancient writers, to the worship of classical tradition tempered by an acute sense of present modern life (this is the keynote to Carducci's originality), and in interpreting history, of which he is indeed a master. At this point he presented Carducci with a magnificent gold medal, with his portrait on one side and a Latin inscription on the other, ending with an invocation to Italy the beloved—Italy as she was, not as she is to-day. Then Prof. Bertolino, in the name of the University and the Minister of Public Instruction, gave him the welcome of the *Alma Mater studiorum*—the frank, hearty salutations of his colleagues,

"who, thanks to you, with joyful hearts, see again one of the days of the Renaissance, when the religion of genius and of science had the divine virtue of disarming enemies, of burying hatreds which in the past had made them foes. Such a day as this was seen in Rome in 1341, when the Roman people, forgetting civic battles, crowded round Francis Petrarch, bringing him crowns of flowers, and the Orsinis and the Colonnas imposed on their animosities the truce of God in order together to garland the brow of the grand poet whom you hailed as the poet of the Renaissance. . . . But whereas the old Renaissance could not prevent liberty from being exiled, while the literature inspired by it inflicted cruel wounds on the principle of morality, the Renaissance to which you lead our country has its foundations in reason and in liberty, and draws its prime inspiration from a moral principle."

After Bertolino came the illustrious Latinist, the genial, *simpatico* Gandino, who, after a brief, bright speech, recited an elogium in musical Latin. "You see," he said to the public, "that besides our reverence, appreciation, gratitude, we all so love this Giosuè Carducci. Perhaps the aureole that surrounds his brow dazes some, but to his colleagues he appears in all the brightness of a sunny day:

"'Scindit se nubes, ...
. . . . . claraque in luce refulget.'"

Gandino continued truly:

"Your method of teaching proves the truth of the saying of the Greek poet, that the Muses possess the science of things universal, so that if to each one is assigned a special part—here poetry, there history, there again other arts—all form Apollo's chorus, all are united in close bonds of sisterhood. So in your school the severe examination of the philosopher is admirably united with the divine spirit of the poet, the diligent research of the historian, the rapid intuition of the artist."

So hearty were Gandino's encomiums that poor Carducci, who before the ceremony had said to us, "Of course I feel much honored, but it's a fearful ordeal to go through," never once lifted his eyes. When it was ended, they kissed and hugged each other just like two schoolboys.

Very short and simple was the speech of Cosimo Filippi, Syndic of Pietrasanta, the poet's birthplace. "Pietrasanta, which had the good fortune to give thee birth, sends this [a splendid parchment] as a token of gratitude to the son who has illuminated the obscurity of our village." After this, Count Pier Desiderio Pasolini, who is ever certain to be seen when Carducci can be honored, sprang up from some corner and gave him a spray of laurel.

"Child of ancient Ravenna," he said reverently, "I bring to thee, Giosuè Carducci, this branch of laurel which grew close to the tomb of Dante Alighieri, thy teacher, thy father. Without him thy fame would not be so great, and perhaps we should not be here to manifest such loving and cordial reverence to thee. This laurel branch is all that now can come from him to thee; receive it with affection and keep it with reverence."

And I noticed that when we went home with his wife and daughter, who were intensely moved, Carducci's first care, on going into his study, was, not to look at his medals or presents, but to place the laurel sprig in the tunic of Dante's bust which stands in the centre of his bookshelves—the sad Mazzini looking down life-size from above.

Carducci's thanks commenced in a voice so low and broken that we asked, "Will even he break down?" But after a few minutes the clarion tones rang out, and every word could be heard all over the hall.

"I thank you reverently. Your benevolence has made of me something that exists in your idea, not in my reality. But whatever I am (and indeed I wish I were like your portrait), every bit of me belongs to this city and to this University. To your city I came with Italy and with unity; I came as a youth, poor, obscure, and with trepidation. The city received me with encouragement; the University, in the shadow of its glory, aided and protected me. In the University I found first fathers, then brothers, who taught me by example and both facilitated and bettered my teaching. In the city I found wise and warm friends, who now spurred me on, now restrained me, and I found what your grand escutcheon promises—*Libertas!* Yes, the liberty of solitude and of study; liberty in the flight and aim of my thoughts, liberty of ideas, independence upon all narrow little pinching, sharp-angled circumstances which fetter the healthy progress of a writer. Yes, and here let me say to the Syndic of Pietrasanta, on the beautiful coast which runs 'twixt sea and mountain, which gave me birth and noble traditions, and whence, alas, I was taken all too young, and whose memory I revere and love—here in Bologna I found a second country. Here, although I hold that we can serve our country in all times and places by wholly giving ourselves to her and claiming nothing in return for this privilege of giving—nevertheless here service was made easy for me, here the heartiness of the citizens helped me, the glories of Aldrovandus, of Zanotti, of Galvani inspired me. At this moment I recall the past and forefeel the future. I remember, and these honors showered on me almost excite remorse; I want to ask the pardon of those holy shades

—those great masters of our fatherland—who passed away unknown, neglected, who grew old in sad poverty, or were extinguished in the desolation of exile. I remember the divine wisdom of Vico, the human omniscience of Romagnosi, the poetic radiance of Ugo Foscolo. Those were times of Italian servitude. Now, oh youths! see what prizes country and liberty are offering to those who strive after intellectual good. This shows that Italian renovation, even in ideal and moral arts, is maturing. Prepare the way for the Lord who cometh; for the genius of Italy, great, free, just, good, useful to humanity; for the genius of whose wings I hear the fluttering. In that time, which we hope is near, the holy, pure age of the Italy of the future, the glory of Bologna will grow ever brighter, the glory of this mother of study, this loving inspirer of the studious. Let her gather the flowers and the fruits of the happy time, and, in the words of the poet,

"'E trovi uom degno poi che si l'onora.'"

When he had finished, Carducci was swept away by the tumult of loving welcomes that surrounded him. Then we crowded to look at the gifts. His publishers presented him with an exquisite illuminated edition of Petrarch's sonnets of the fourteenth century. The missives of the municipality of Bologna and Pietrasanta are real works of art. The portrait of the poet on the gold medal is like him, but still more resembles the Roman emperors.

If I were to narrate the tales told by his students (many now professors), I should never end. One Pascoli interested me most. He was wretchedly poor, as his father had been murdered and his eldest brother had to bring up a family of nine. He thought this one had genius, so sent him with a few francs to Bologna to compete for the six scholarships the generous city accords. When the lad heard he was to be examined by Carducci, all his courage waned, as Father Donati, who kept the poet's picture in his cell, had told him he was "the greatest and noblest and highest being on earth." He fumbled and stumbled in his answers, and in his written theme felt he had not done his best; but the poet saw what was in him, and, with the consent of the faculty, his name came out first of the six. "Carducci smiled," he said; "just an instant his smile rested on me, and I would not change that memory for any other in this world."

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE GOOD NAME OF GUATEMALA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to an article which, under the heading "A Specimen Spanish-American Republic," appeared on the editorial page of your valued paper of the 20th inst., which article contains statements derogatory and false with respect to the government and country which I have the honor to represent at this port.

In view of the statements therein made, it becomes my duty to inform you and cause to be known that the assertions of the author of the book 'Il Guatamala,' who, it is said, is named "Tommaso Caivano," are, in their entirety, inaccurate and advanced solely to gratify selfish motives. On June 20, 1895, Mr. Caivano presented himself at the office of this Consulate-General soliciting financial aid that he publish a book in favor of Guatemala and its Government, and on such financial aid being denied him he took offence, became very excited, and stated that he would publish the book, not, however, in favor of my country, but decidedly against it. Consequently, the publication compiled by Mr. Caivano is the result of actual spite and for revenge in not having obtained the money he solicited.

I appeal, therefore, Mr. Editor, to your impartiality that you give equal prominence to the publication of this letter in the columns of your valued paper, so that the sensible public may judge as to the merit which can attach to the book published by Mr. Caivano.

Believe me, sir, with the highest consideration, very respectfully yours,

Dr. Joaquin Yela, Jr.,
Acting Consul-General.

New York, February 21, 1896.

[We have received also the following communication from a gentleman who knew Guatemala well under the elder Barrios. We ought to add that such personal knowledge as we had of Sig. Caivano was wholly favorable to his character and credibility; and that the Italian edition of his work, on which we commented, was already printed (but not published), and was read by us, before Sig. Caivano's arrival in this country in June last.—Ed. Nation.]

"Barrios was bad enough in fact, without resorting to fiction and misrepresentation. Some persons were put in the Penitenciario and thrashed to death—perhaps a dozen all told; not more. Barrundia (who was afterwards shot on board an American vessel) was really the author, as he was the perpetrator, of these outrages. Two friends of mine were among the victims.

"It is altogether a myth about Barrios wanting to wipe out what Sig. Caivano calls the creoles. There is no such *class*. There are a few old families who pride themselves on their blue blood, all reactionaries of a Bourbon stripe; but they do not meddle with politics, and I don't believe one of them was shot by Barrios.

"The story of his exposing the wives and daughters of his enemies stark naked in cages is an astounding legend, founded on the *report* that Barrios ordered two ladies of some of the old families, suspected of making clothing for the rebels during the first revolution in his time, to be put in a large net which is much in use in that part of the country, and swung to the ceiling of his room until they told all they knew; but they were fully dressed, as *no* man in Guatemala, of any kind, would expose a woman stark naked. This reputed action of Barrios's was never authenticated, and although I knew one of the ladies, she would never admit its truth.

"This author is equally given to exaggeration in saying that Barrios had men shot for his amusement. For a very long time no President in that country had so few of his enemies shot at all. He did, however, finally resort to this method of punishment, but I think an impartial investigation would show that as few persons were shot in his time as in that of any other ruler there, except Cerna perhaps. His successor, Barillas, did quite as many brutal things, and had three very dear old friends of mine shot under very brutal circumstances. Summary shooting has been the most convenient way of quelling revolutionary movements ever since Spanish America was freed from Spanish rule, and the rebels themselves are usually more sanguinary than the Government, as is actually the case in Cuba.

"As to Reyna Barrios, he is since my time. He lived in New York many years, and is married to an American lady. My friends report him a good man of business, a good President, and a man of moderate ideas.

"But the name Republic applied to any of these countries is a gross libel on the word. It is a one-man power, and the one man is always more or less brutal, and always surrounds himself with people fit for the particular work he wants done. They do not all get rich. Carrera, after being President for nearly twenty years, died (on the same day President Lincoln was shot) a comparatively poor man. His successor, Cerna, after being President for six years, retired absolutely poor, and his ministers were poorer than himself. Barrios stole and blackmailed right and left, and in thirteen years saved about as many million dollars. Barillas did the same kind of thing and is now wealthy. The first two and their ministers belonged to and represented the Conservative or Church party; the latter two called themselves *Liberals*."

WHERE WAR SHOULD ELEVATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Not enough pains have been taken by the advocates of war as a means of ennobling the character to set forth its advantages as they deserve. The case can be put in a stronger and more convincing light than it has been. Possibly something is held in reserve, but so far the argument has not been illustrated as it should be; it has not been adequately and variously presented.

I am inclined to believe that the theory is capable of application in many agricultural communities, and of undisputed application in all thinly settled districts. There are usually fair opportunities for moral and intellectual culture in the cities and large towns of the East—it is astonishing that anybody there should want to fight; but in some of the Western States the situation is quite different, and this is especially true of the semi-arid regions of Kansas, Nebraska, and other States where the widely scattered stockmen and farmers make slow progress, whether material or ethical. The fine virtues need more encouragement than they receive. There are no great libraries, no handsome opera-houses, no collections of sacred art, no beautiful church architecture. All these things are lacking. But could not such deprivations be made tolerable—hardly missed, indeed, as agencies of moral inspiration—if the inhabitants had sufficient discernment to fight occasionally among themselves? Why don't the men go to war? How quickly the sense of justice and honor, the feeling of gentleness and pity, would revive. No matter if they have no grievance against each other. The purpose is something nobler than the redress of wrongs; it is the elevation of the character.

Such compensations as war offers for the lack of other advantages, or as an addition to them, have not been duly considered. They are within easy reach of many whose hard lot we are sometimes weakly disposed to commiserate.

H. D.

Lawrence, Kan., February 17, 1896.

THE FIRST UNITARIAN CHURCH IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is, of course, no doubt that the church at Northumberland, Pa., was organized by Dr. Priestley before that in Philadelphia. But your correspondent, "H. D. C.," assumes the point at issue, namely, whether it took the Unitarian name. As that fact does not appear on the mural tablet referred to, and as the church records do not exist to show it, it is by no means certain that the name, then so odious, was adopted by the Society.

When the Philadelphia church was founded, there was correspondence over this very point between its members and some of the Eastern churches which had become Unitarian in fact—or, at least, with the most notable of these, King's Chapel in Boston; and the rector of the latter strongly advised the Philadelphians

against taking the Unitarian name. I give this on the authority of Dr. Furness, who took much pride in the fact that the advice was not heeded, and that the founders of his church planted themselves openly upon the unpopular position. He always claimed that the Philadelphia church was thus the first "*organized as Unitarian*" in the country.

I have heard a statement that a company of persons in New York, at an earlier date, called their society Unitarian, but I have not been able to verify it. If it is true, the movement probably came to nothing.

It may be interesting to some of your readers to know that, at the approaching centennial celebration of the Philadelphia church, a bust of Priestley will be placed upon the noble monument erected to him there, some years ago, by the Unitarians of America. J. M.

PHILADELPHIA, February 21, 1896.

"CARRY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent English review of an American work, the critic asked: "What can be the meaning of a 'carry,' which is certainly not found in any accepted author?" That an Englishman should be unfamiliar with a word which is found only in books (whether by British or by American writers) dealing with explorations or with outdoor life in America, is not surprising; but it is of course well known among us that, in navigating rivers and streams in America, obstructions are often encountered which render it necessary to take the canoe or bateau out of the water and "carry" round the obstruction, or to another stream or lake near by. Several terms have been employed to designate the place thus carried over, but chiefly these three: *Carry*, *carrying-place*, and *portage*. Of these, the second has been in use since early in the eighteenth century, the third for certainly a century and a half, while *carry* seems to have originated in Maine about sixty years ago. Attention was first called to the term by Lowell in the *Atlantic Monthly* for November, 1859; but the only examples which seem to have been yet adduced are from *All the Year Round* (1860) and T. W. Higginson (1884) in the 'Oxford Dictionary'; from J. C. Abbott (1860), in De Vere's 'Americanisms'; and from T. G. Appleton (1878) in the 'Standard Dictionary.' Those which follow are of an earlier date:

"Having determined to visit Moosehead Lake, before proceeding to the St. John waters, I continued up the west branch to the lower carry into that lake. . . . The upper carry is about eight miles above the lower, and between them are rapids and falls." 1838, J. T. Hodge, in C. T. Jackson's *Second Report on the Geology of the Public Lands of Massachusetts and Maine*, 53, 54.

"This portage probably followed the trail of an ancient Indian carry round these falls." 1848, H. D. Thoreau, *Maine Woods* (1894), 39.

"The end of the Carry was reached at last . . . The birch, it seems, was strained at the Carry." 1853, J. R. Lowell, *A Moosehead Journal*, *Prose Works* (1890), i., 30, 35.

"The fourth morning you will make the carry of two miles to Mud Pond (Allegash Water)—and a very wet carry it is—and reach Chamberlain Lake by noon, and Heron Lake, perhaps, that night, after a couple of short carries at the outlet of Chamberlain." 1858, H. D. Thoreau, in *Familiar Letters* (1894), 382.

Since 1860 the term has been in frequent use, but, so far as the writer is aware, it is confined to New England and the Adirondack region.

ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, February 20, 1896.

"HIRED GIRLS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent "F. H." inquires, "Was it the custom, prior to the War of Independence, to speak of *hired women*, *hired boys*, and *hired maids* or *girls*, as well as of *hired men*?" What may have been the custom so long ago I cannot say, but in eastern Vermont and the contiguous part of New Hampshire, so long as I lived there, up to 1869, it was practically the universal usage to speak of young women engaged in domestic service as "hired girls." We read about servants in books, but never saw them.

In most cases the hired girl was the daughter of a farmer of small means. She often took her meals with the family, and mingled with them on terms of equality. The species is now pretty much extinct. I do not suppose the custom was by any means confined to that region. It is my impression that it prevailed in a place in eastern New York where I once spent a winter; but my memory is not definite on that point. W. L. WORCESTER.

ASYLUM STATION, MASS., February 24, 1896.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO.'S immediate announcements include 'A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology in Christendom,' by Andrew D. White; 'Teaching the Language Arts,' by B. A. Hinsdale; 'Greenland Icefields, and Life in the North Atlantic,' by Prof. G. Frederick Wright and Warren Upham; 'Voice-Building and Tone-Placing,' by H. Holbrook Curtis, M.D.; and 'The Reds of the Midi,' by Félix Gras.

A series of handbooks in classical archæology and antiquities, beginning with 'Greek Sculpture,' by Ernest A. Gardner; an annotated edition of Hood's Poems by Canon Ainger; 'Browning and the Christian Faith,' by Dr. Edward Berdoe; 'The Coming Individualism,' by A. Egmont Hake; and 'The Pilgrim, and Other Poems,' by "Ellen Burroughs" (Miss Sophie Jewett), are further spring announcements by Macmillan & Co.

Frederick Warne & Co. have nearly ready 'The Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain,' by S. H. Jeyes, editor of the "Public Men of To-day" series, and 'Sport in Ashanti; or, Melinda the Caboceer,' a tale of the Gold Coast, by J. A. Skertchly.

'Studies in Historical Method,' by Mary Sheldon Barnes, of Leland Stanford Junior University, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

Way & Williams will issue 'The Lamp of Gold,' a sequence of forty-nine sonnets in seven parts, by Miss Florence L. Snow, president of the Kansas Academy of Language and Literature; a reprint, worked over, of William Sharp's *Portfolio* monograph, 'Fair Women'; and a new Irish novel, 'The Wood of the Brambles,' by Frank Mathew, grand-nephew of Father Mathew, the "Apostle of Temperance."

'The Story of Turkey and Armenia' is to be published, with illustrations, by the H. Woodward Co. of Baltimore.

Benziger Bros., No. 36 Barclay Street, are the American agents for the costly folio 'Vie de Notre Seigneur Jésus-Christ,' consisting of 365 compositions (aquarelles) by J. J. Tissot, based on the four evangels (Tours: Alfred Mame & Fils). The artist's work represents the labor of ten years. Each of the first twenty copies, on Japan paper, is priced at $1,000; $300 will secure a copy on vellum paper.

Roberts Bros., Boston, have republished 'Cavalry in the Waterloo Campaign,' by General Sir Evelyn Wood, V.C. This little book is a contribution to the argument in favor of the use of cavalry even in the changed conditions of modern warfare brought about by improvements in infantry arms. The cavalry for which he argues is the true horseman, armed with sword or lance, manœuvred in an open country, and depending upon the weight of the shock, charging home against footmen. Besides its technical interest, the book is a lively sketch of the Waterloo campaign, and of the previous career of the noted cavalry leaders of the different nations who met on the famous field.

A novel work has just made its appearance in Germany under the title of 'Fürstliche Schriftsteller des neunzehnten Jahrhunderts,' by Georg Zimmermann. Selections from the writings of thirty-six royal personages, with a biography of each, are presented. The book is richly illustrated and handsomely bound. Emperor William's 'Sang an Aegir' is the first selection, and after his name come the others in alphabetical order. Among those who have won especial renown in letters may be mentioned Prince George of Prussia, Princess Therese of Bavaria, and Duke Elimar of Oldenburg; Alexander III. of Russia, too, has made a very promising beginning.

'Die Geschichte des Erstlingswerkes' (Berlin: Concordia Verlag) is a series of autobiographical essays describing the circumstances attending the production of the first really important work of several of the leading contemporary writers of Germany. These essays have been coming out from time to time in *Deutsche Dichtung*, and now appear in book form, edited and supplied with an introduction by Karl Emil Franzos, editor of that periodical. The authors here represented are Baumbach, Dahn, Ebers, Ebner-Eschenbach, Eckstein, Fontane, Franzos, Fulda, Heyse, Hopfen, Jensen, Lingg, Meyer, Schubin, Spielhagen, Sudermann, Voss, Wichert, and Wolff. Each essay is accompanied by a portrait of the author as he appeared about the time of his first important production; in the case of Lingg, Meyer, Jensen, and Franzos, however, one of a later period had to be used, as an early one was not to be had. Similar essays are still being continued in *Deutsche Dichtung*, and they will probably furnish material for a future volume.

Moulin-Eckart's 'Bayern unter dem Ministerium Montgelas,' recently published in Munich, is an excellent historical work, though hardly of world-wide interest, and we mention it merely on account of the author's statement that he was obliged to make his researches in Berlin and Paris, because in the Bavarian State Archives no one is permitted to examine any political document of the nineteenth century. As Montgelas died in 1838, the sources of information concerning the most important part of his life were rendered inaccessible by this illiberal bureaucratic regulation. It is just such a measure, however, as might have originated with the narrow-minded and reactionary Montgelas himself.

During the last five months of 1895 some sixty persons were condemned to imprisonment in Germany for leze-majesty, without counting those who were tried for the same offence and acquitted. Nearly every speech of the Emperor is followed by a large increase of criminal suits instituted for the protection of his royal and imperial dignity. Thus, his de-

nunciation of the Socialists as a "rabble unworthy to be called Germans," on account of their attitude towards the Sedan festivities, led to numerous prosecutions in November, twenty-six of which resulted in the condemnation of the accused. The courts w rest the letter of the law to secure conviction, as, for example, when the judge admitted that in Liebknecht's criticism of certain views there was no direct allusion to the utterances of the Emperor, but added that some persons in the audience might have interpreted his words as referring to his Imperial Majesty, and therefore found him guilty and sentenced him to imprisonment. Dr. Förster, a man of excellent character, and editor of a journal devoted to ethical culture, was also condemned to incarceration in a fortress for asserting that the Socialists are not all a wretched rabble, but that there are many good and patriotic men among them, who act with the Socialists as a protest against the tyranny of the police in suppressing free discussion. The insult to William II. consisted in daring to doubt his infallibility. Prof. Delbrück expressed in the October number of the *Preussiche Jahrbücher* the same opinion, but, as he is a man of high position and considerable influence, the Government deemed it best to withdraw the indictment preferred against him.

No. 3 of the second series of "Rhode Island Historical Tracts" (Providence: Sidney S. Rider) has for its theme 'A Century of Lotteries in Rhode Island, 1744–1844,' and for author John H. Stiness. It is one of the most curious and valuable of the series, being a chapter in the evolution of morals; and, as all classes, professions, learned and religious and philanthropic institutions (along with many purely secular enterprises) were implicated as beneficiaries or chance-takers in the lottery till it was made unlawful and therefore suddenly became "wrong" or "sinful," the story well repays reading. It is illustrated by a great number of facsimiles of lottery tickets; and the names and autograph signatures of owners and officers among the first families in Rhode Island give this part of the tract a high genealogical interest.

Mr. A. P. C. Griffin's 'Bibliography of the Historical Publications issued by the New England States' is satisfactorily minute as far as it goes, but is too limited in its scope. The title to the contrary, the republished "records" of each State only are included; even the original issues of the various "journals" or "votes" are passed over as if they did not exist. A list such as the title led us to expect is a distinct need. The careful table of contents of each work described is the valuable part of the present work. We do not see why Slade's 'Vermont State Papers' and the 'Connecticut Military Record' were not included, for they certainly fall within the narrow class included in the bibliography.

The eighth report of Mr. Robert T. Swan, Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records, recurs to the still discreditable condition of these records in the State at large, and proposes the establishment of a public-record office, after the pattern of the English, to which all the records to a fixed date shall be sent. On the subject of the neglected Proprietors' records, he speaks of the confusion caused by the names of plantations (which were not continued as the town name) having been adopted for other towns, and prints a useful list of changes from the original designation, in two alphabets. He also suggests anew an act to provide for the custody of church records after a society has ceased to hold religious meetings, which was reported by the judiciary committee in 1894, but defeated, and urges the passage of a bill regulating the returning and recording of births, marriages, and deaths now before the General Court. Mr. Swan states incidentally that still-born children are recorded either as births, deaths, or both, "as the clerk considers most sensible."

The laborious task of reducing to order the chaos of stored public documents at Washington; of checking wasteful publications; of supplying the designated depositories; of completing collections by exchange; of filling cash orders; of cataloguing current documents and of working backward in this department—is going on under the new law creating a Superintendent of Documents with headquarters at the Government Printing-Office. The progress made is evidenced by three pamphlets: the Superintendent's first annual report; the report of Mr. John G. Ames, clerk in charge of documents, Interior Department, regarding the receipt, distribution, and sale of public documents by that department on the Government's behalf; and the second edition of Mr. Ames's 'Check-list,' enumerating the volumes which constitute the set of Congressional documents from the Fifteenth to the Fifty-third Congresses, inclusive. Mr. Ames has had the happy thought to number these documents consecutively, thus greatly abbreviating the trouble of describing when ordering. Mr. F. A. Crandall, the Superintendent of Documents, has added some valuable features, as, lists of explorations and surveys, of Government catalogues and indexes, of the parts and plates of the Rebellion-Record Atlas, etc.

On February 10th the past and present editors of the *Harvard Lampoon* celebrated the twentieth anniversary of the founding of that comic journal. The event seems worthy of record, not only because the *Lampoon* was the earliest and has steadily been the best of illustrated student publications, but also because it is older than any other surviving periodical of the kind in America. It preceded *Puck;* and *Life* was, in a way, its offshoot. Of the originators and early editors of the *Lampoon*, J. T. Wheelwright, Robert Grant, F. J. Stimson, and E. S. Martin have long been well known among the younger school of American wits; and a survey of the entire list of editors would show the names of other men who have already won distinction in letters or in art.

In the February number of the *Geographical Journal* the Rev. W. Weston describes the Japanese Alps, a most attractive region on the west coast of the main island, very rarely visited by travellers. It is now one of the few places in the empire almost uninfluenced by modern ideas, and the account of the mountaineers' customs and superstitious rites, now fast dying out, is therefore peculiarly interesting. Mr. H. S. Cowper gives some notes on a journey in the hill country of Tripoli, remarkable for the numerous Phœnician and Roman ruins which it contains. Both of these papers have route-maps and illustrations. The conclusion of Captain Vaughan's account of his travels in Persia contains a description of the Daria-i-Nimak, "a solid sheet of rock salt of varying, but in places doubtless immense, thickness. Its area we estimated at 440 square miles, and its elevation was 2,700 feet."

The difference between English and American ways of looking at the same subject is strikingly shown in two articles in the Boston *Youth's Companion* on "The Bar as a Profession." The Lord Chief Justice, Lord Russell of Killowen, describes in a singularly clear and attractive manner the qualities, love of the profession, industrious patience, common sense, and high aims, which are essential, not for the winning of great wealth, of which "the bar does not hold out promise," but of honorable success. To this he regards "university culture as almost indispensable," closing a very stimulating paper with a noble appeal to the young lawyer to remember "that he is engaged in a profession which may well engage the noblest faculties of heart and of mind," and that there are higher interests than those of his client to be fought for, "the interests of truth and of honor." The main point of the article by Judge O. W. Holmes, of the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, is to show that for a "fighting success" a university education is not essential—there is almost a hint that it may be an impediment; but that if a young man can afford "two or even three" years in a law school he "will not regret a month of it when he comes to practice." There can be no doubt of the truth of this assertion in view of the following significant figures: Of the 287 lawyers in Congress not one-half have been through college—129 only are college graduates; 50 have spent some time at a college or a professional school; 108 have received only a common-school education.

—It becomes evident that the question of the hour at both Oxford and Cambridge is the admission of women to degrees. At Oxford a memorial in favor of the movement is backed by the Vice Chancellor, the president of Magdalen College, and one of the two proctors, and has been largely signed by resident graduates. Among the signers are the masters of Balliol and University Colleges; the principals of Jesus and Brasenose Colleges and of St. Mary's Hall; the censor of non collegiate students; Bodley's Librarian; the keepers of the Ashmolean and University Museums; the Radcliffe Librarian and Observer; and Profs. Dicey, Legge, Max Müller, Pollock, York Powell, Burden-Sanderson, Poulton, Wallace, Green, and Elliott. At Cambridge a similar memorial has received the signatures of no less than 2,200 members of the Senate, including seventy professors, readers, and university lecturers and more than one hundred M.A.'s in residence. The Cambridge promoters have also circulated the memorial among "persons of distinction" outside the university, and some of those who have signed are the Right Hon. Arthur J. Balfour, Gerald Balfour, Chief Secretary for Ireland; the Bishops of Manchester, Sodor and Man, Gloucester and Bristol, Barrow in Furness, and Argyll; Sir Walter Besant, Sir Edward Thornton, Sir Robert Ball; Mr. Justice Kennedy and Mr. Justice Barnes. The opponents of the measure have so far done nothing except to protest against the wording of the memorial, which, they say, assumes that the admission of women is a foregone conclusion. But it has been pointed out that the wording is really happy, because, taken together with the number and the character of the signers, it will give the council a better idea of the state of public opinion than they could otherwise have obtained. Graduates of Cambridge in the opposition are reminded that, during the fifteen years since women were first admitted by that university to its honor examinations, 659 women have been classed in the honor lists, securing distinction in such varied lines of study as mathematics, classics, natural and moral sciences, theology, law, history, and Oriental, mediæval, and modern languages.

—Until a few years ago, Murray's 'Handbook for Travellers in Japan' (New York: Scrib-

ners) as written by Satow and Hawes, not only was by far the best work of its kind, but was tolerably up to date. The gradual growth of the railway system, by changing the routes of travel, made it, however, antiquated. The publishers, in this emergency, were so wise—and lucky—as to secure the services of Prof. Chamberlain and Mr. W. B. Mason for the task of revising it. The new edition, combining the labors of four experts, was a model book, for which there was such a brisk demand that the editors felt impelled to go over the ground once more and complete what was left undone before. As a result the fourth edition (1896) is a work which must make any one who visited Japan a few years ago sigh that he could not have had such a guide in hand when he was there. The new edition has about seventy pages more than the third, with fifteen new routes, in which the whole empire is, for the first time, included. The modest preface does not call special attention to all the improvements, but they are apparent at a glance. This is especially true of the maps and plans, some of which are printed on the thin Japanese paper which ought to be used for all guide-books, to reduce bulk. The general map of the empire shows that the main railway is now completed north to Aomori, thus making Yezo more accessible than heretofore. Among the new plans is one of the tombs and temples of Nikko, another of the Matsushima islands, while a third, specially valuable one gives a bird's-eye view of Tokyo, colored, showing the canals, bridges, parks, public buildings, hotels, etc.—a map which every tourist will specially welcome in this vast and most confusing city. Altogether there are nine new maps and plans. The guide is printed in Japan, and its English origin is emphasized by a new introductory chapter beginning with the words that "the shortest and most enjoyable way from Europe to Japan is by the Canadian Pacific Railway Line," of which a seven-page itinerary is added.

—'The Mediterranean Trip,' by Noah Brooks (Scribners), is, as it professes to be, a "short guide to the principal points on the shores of the western Mediterranean and the Levant." It is obviously intended for tourists on the excursion steamers from New York, and for such other travellers as mean to visit several places without remaining long in any, and are too lazy to spend more than fifteen minutes in reading up about each. As books of its sort go, it is fairly satisfactory, for it has much simple information succinctly put. This information is usually correct, but on page 126 we find the following sentences: "During the Crusades, the power of the Byzantine empire having greatly decayed, the throne was occupied by a Frank, and the region was overrun by Genoese, Venetians, and Flemings. After a half-century of great turbulence, the Seljukian Turks, who had gradually developed their power in Asia Minor, captured the city in May, 1453, when Constantine XI., the last of the emperors of the East, perished in the final fight, and Mohammed II. (the great conqueror) established in Constantinople the seat of Osmanli power. Most of the important works of modern Constantinople date from the era of the conqueror and his immediate successors—Mustapha II., Bayezid II., Soliman the Magnificent, and Achmet I." It is hardly worth pointing out that "the throne was occupied by a Frank" (after the storming of the city by the French and Venetians) in 1204, and that the Greeks recovered Constantinople in 1261, which is rather more than half a century before 1453, when it was captured by Mohammed II., Sultan of the Ottoman (not the Seljukian) Turks. Mustapha II. was not the immediate successor of Mohammed II, but reigned from 1695-1703. We may remark, too, that Jerusalem was taken by the Crusaders in 1099, which is hardly the *middle* of the eleventh century (p. 110), that the remark about the battle of Platæa would seem to suggest that Aristides commanded the Persians there (p. 142), and that the statements, "The kingdom of Naples was separated from Sicily by Charles of Anjou, in 1272, and the city became the capital. The kingdom was ruled by the Spanish Bourbons, with occasional stormy intervals, until the unification of Italy took place, in very recent years" (p. 186), are, to say the least, misleading.

—The recent request made by Harvard University to the municipality of Ravenna for permission to make a photographic reproduction of the famous manuscript of Aristophanes, recalls a little history which was published by Mr. W. G. Clark more than twenty years ago. It is not quite so romantic as the story of the Sinaiticus, but it affords a curious illustration of vagabond fortunes and of the slender chances by which such treasures are preserved for us. The handwriting of the Ravenna MS. resembles the minuscule of the Florentine Æschylus and Demosthenes. Bekker dates it as of the eleventh century; but other excellent experts refer it to the tenth. It is quite likely that it was a copy made for some rich monastery under the patronage of the later Basilian dynasty of Constantinople, at a time when classical learning was fashionable, and when the monasteries were, as Finlay says, rather like clubs for the accommodation of younger sons of noble families than the lodging-place of ascetics. Such a club of luxurious bachelors might naturally interest itself in the comedies of Aristophanes. The municipality of Ravenna received the manuscript from the monastery of Classe, within the walls, when the monastery was dissolved by the French and the edifice and library were made over to the city. The library was founded, probably before 1600, by Cardinal Giulio della Rovere, Archbishop of Ravenna. The manuscript of Aristophanes may have been acquired by a certain Padre Canneti, who flourished in the beginning of the last century, and is said in the annals of the Camaldolite order to have enriched the library "selectis et copiosissimis codicibus." The exact date and manner in which this manuscript was added there is no record to show; but there is a tradition handed down by the librarians that it was bought for a very small sum at a book-stall in Rome.

—How came so precious a manuscript to be such a vagrant? There is practically no doubt that a little later than the year 1500 it was in the library of the Duke of Urbino, Guidobaldo I. It was not made use of by Aldus in his *editio princeps*, printed in 1498. That edition does not contain the "Lysistrata" or the "Thesmophoriazusæ," both of which are given in the Ravenna MS.; nor does it appear that Aldus had ever heard of the latter comedy. But in 1515 Bernard Junta published at Florence the second edition, which contains only the nine Aldine plays, and in the preface to it he promised the other two. This promise he fulfilled next year in an edition of the "Lysistrata" and the "Thesmophoriazusæ," which appeared January 28, 1516. In the preface he mentions that he has availed himself of a manuscript from the library of Urbino, "antiquissimum Aristophanis exemplar." That this MS. was identical with the Ravenna can hardly be doubted from Mr. Clark's report, who, in carefully examining the Ravenna, observed faint pencil marks drawn across the text and corresponding with the pagination of the Juntine edition. These were evidently for the convenience of the printer. The manuscript, once borrowed, was probably never restored to the library of the Duke, but wandered off to be recaptured later for the monastery of Classe. The reason of such oversight is easily discovered. On the 30th of May the troops of Pope Leo invaded the Duchy; on August 18 Lorenzo, the Pope's nephew, was made Duke in place of the deposed Francesco Maria. In the midst of these changes and troubles the MS. was probably neither reclaimed nor returned. At any rate it was not one of the 165 Greek MSS. which were in the library of Urbino when it was transferred to the Vatican by Alexander VII. in 1658.

—'The Journal of a Spy in Paris during the Reign of Terror, January-July, 1794,' by Raoul Hesdin (Harpers), presents internal evidence of its authenticity, but the editor has omitted to state in his preface how he came into possession of the manuscript, or where the manuscript is preserved. It is possible for an expert in the history of the French Revolution to make out a case for the non-authenticity of the Journal on the strength of a few passages here and there, and the editor could blame no critic for doing this, since he has deliberately withheld his own name and all information about the manuscript. It would take, however, too much space here to balance the pros and cons. If the Journal proves to be a *supercherie littéraire*, it has certainly been made up with considerable skill, and the author deserves to be complimented for his ingenuity. Apart from its suspected origin, it contains no information of importance for students of the French Revolution. No new light is thrown upon the characters of the members of the great Committee of Public Safety or upon the methods employed in the government of France during the Terror. The condition of things in Paris, however, is reflected with considerable fidelity, and the scarcity of food in particular is well illustrated. The editor's notes show a competent knowledge of recent books on the French Revolution, but he is rather hard on Brissot, whom he terms a prig, in a note on page 29, and there is no excuse for his bringing into the same note an allusion to the late Prof. Freeman's famous "Perish India" remark, which has nothing whatever to do with the subject, and which Freeman to the last day of his life always avowed had been misinterpreted.

—Perhaps the most curious manifestation of the current Napoleon craze is the publication of 'A Metrical History of the Life and Times of Napoleon Bonaparte,' by William J. Hillis (G. P. Putnam's Sons). The compiler is an enthusiastic but badly informed admirer of Napoleon and all his works, and his admiration has led him to collect as much verse as possible, good, bad, and indifferent, relating to events in the life and career of his chosen hero. A perusal of the balderdash which Mr. Hillis has collected together is sufficient proof that the most dramatic subjects do not necessarily produce dramatic poetry. There are, of course, in this collection a few famous poems, such as "The Burial of Sir John Moore," Campbell's "Battle of Hohenlinden," Byron's

stanzas on Waterloo from "Childe Harold," mixed with translations from Béranger, Victor Hugo, Körner, and Arndt; but the vast majority of the so-called poems were not worth drawing from obscurity, and it is depressing even to glance at the feeble productions of Southey, Croly, Huddesford, and the irrepressible "Mr. Anon." It is curious to note that the one poem which of all poems best represents the feelings of the veterans of the "Grande Armée" for the general who had so often led them to victory, Heine's "Two Grenadiers," is omitted, and that Thackeray's "Chronicle of the Drum" finds no place in Mr. Hillis's anthology. Of the editor's introductory remarks prefixed to the different poems, it is only necessary to say that for the earlier periods dealing with the French Revolution they exhibit a stupendous ignorance of the subject, and that for the later period they are marked by an ill-informed hero-worship which is rather amusing and wholly ridiculous.

LONGMANS' GAZETTEER.

Longmans' Gazetteer of the World. Edited by George G. Chisholm. London and New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

THERE is no department of knowledge the presentation of which becomes more rapidly antiquated than that of geography, and the appearance of a new and comprehensive cyclopædia of geography, containing the latest information, must at all times be regarded as a subject of gratulation. Such a work we have before us in 'Longmans' Gazetteer of the World.' It forms a ponderous volume of 1,796 pages, containing on an average about 57 titles, so that the total number of notices is about 100,000, or about three-fourths as many as in 'Lippincott's Gazetteer.' Makers of cyclopædias depend so largely upon what their predecessors in the same field have wrought that the structure is generally weighted down with a prodigious amount of dead matter carried to meet imaginary requirements. Every cyclopædia is defective for want of space, and yet most cyclopædias are senselessly prodigal with the space at their command. No end of worthless information is heaped up about insignificant places and administrative subdivisions in accordance with a scheme dictated by custom instead of by intelligent needs. 'Longmans' Gazetteer of the World,' on the whole, is constructed on broad and independent lines and on a high plane of scientific treatment. It is conspicuous for its vigorous presentation of topics and for the freshness of its information, as well as for its enlightened emancipation from traditional methods, as manifested especially in the exclusion of that mass of insignificant details to which we have referred. A great deal of trained scholarship has been brought to bear upon the work, and a wise economy of space has made it possible to deal generously even with the less important subjects. We need only point to the full descriptions of the governmental divisions of Russia and the Prussian provinces. Unfortunately, the many shortcomings which obtrude themselves even upon a not hypercritical eye show that much of the matter has been assigned to incompetent hands, and that the individual topics have not been subjected to that rigid editorial scrutiny without which every cyclopædia is bound to be faulty.

A high standard of execution is by no means apparent in many even of the most important articles. Thus, the masterly delineation of the physical contours of France is in strange contrast with the absence of orographic details presented by the article on Italy, or the dry enumeration of the geographical features of the German Empire. The fine lines which mark the description of the Carpathians are absent in that of the Alps, whose picturesque and physiographic aspects (lakes, glaciers, etc.) are sadly neglected, although the article is a scholarly presentation in other respects. Nor is the description of the Nile as full as it should be even within the limited scope of such a work. There is a lack of consistency with regard to the range of the topics discussed under similar heads. Thus, the subject of emigration is treated under *Italy* and ignored under *German Empire*. The former article has a considerable section devoted to education, while in the latter the author has not found space for an enumeration of the universities. Our sense of proportion is not unfrequently shocked, as, for instance, by the inordinate amount of space in the description of Italy taken up with the subject of malaria.

The volume bears throughout the appearance of being up to date; the character of the articles, the statistical matter, and the frequent references to geographical magazines showing that recourse has been had to the latest sources of information. Especial attention has been bestowed in many cases upon parts of the globe respecting which our knowledge has been recently enlarged, or which have become prominent in our day in connection with the colonial policy of European states, as may be seen by turning to such titles as *Pamirs*, *Tongking*, and *South African Republic*. Geology claims a share which has not been accorded to it in similar publications, and indeed it is in places perhaps too prominent at the expense of more pragmatic features. The natural resources and industries of the various countries are minutely discussed, and foreign commerce receives special attention, the salient facts being given without recourse to formal statistical tables. A most attractive feature of this gazetteer is the amount of precise climatological information which it affords, concerning not only regions, but also individual cities. In the case of important towns as well as of countries the statistics of population at various censuses are introduced. Thus, we are informed what the population of Frankfort-on-the-Main was in 1817, 1871, 1880, and 1890; that of Vienna in 1754, 1820, 1840, 1880, and 1890; of Berlin in 1648, 1688, 1788, 1850, 1870, 1880, and 1890; of Boston in 1790, 1820, 1850, 1870, and 1890; and of Paris according to twelve enumerations or estimates reaching back to 1292.

In its descriptions of cities the work before us is far from satisfactory. The notice of Berlin, for example, is beneath criticism. Florence is rudely treated by the side of Venice. We cannot approve of the omission, in the article on Philadelphia, of the national mint and Independence Hall. The statement that Philadelphia has a greater area than any other city in America is erroneous and is contradicted under Chicago. The city is not situated 103 miles from the mouth of the Delaware, geographers not having agreed to regard Delaware Bay as part of the course of that river. It is ridiculous to assert that in 1830 Philadelphia ranked after Baltimore in point of population, after both Baltimore and New Orleans in 1840, and after Boston in 1850, without the qualifying statement that at each of these census enumerations the actual population, including those who resided without the limits of the municipality as then constituted, but within the present limits, far exceeded that of any city (including suburbs) in the Union except New York. In the article on Paris the latitude and longitude have been overlooked, and there is no mention of the famous observatory. The latitude and longitude of Amsterdam are likewise omitted. In the description of Frankfort-on-the-Main the new railway station, the largest in the world, is ignored.

In a gazetteer, every topic should as far as possible be treated individually under its own head. The substitution of cross-references to general articles for separate notices, if too freely indulged in, is sure to lead to serious inadequacies and omissions. This fault is conspicuous in the work before us. Thus *Matterhorn* and *Jungfrau* are referred to *Alps*, in which article the reader finds only a mere mention of these peaks. Again, the plan of this gazetteer embraces the description of peoples as well as of places, but there appear to be many serious omissions in this department. Thus while we find Slovaks, Slovenes, Wends, Bashkirs, Ostyaks, etc., we fail to discover Czechs, Wallachs, Letts, Livs, Cumans, or Tekke-Turkomans. A valuable feature might, in our judgment, have been added to this volume by the insertion (as separate titles) of the Latin names, mediæval as well as classical, of modern towns, with a reference or explanation, such names being frequently encountered on title-pages, documents, medals, and coins. The laudable example set in this respect by Guibert's 'Dictionnaire Géographique' about half a century ago has been ignored by the English and American gazetteers and cyclopædias.

In the field of history (a feature which, we allow, may be regarded as a very minor one in a gazetteer) the volume before us is very defective and untrustworthy. Under *Marathon* we read of the victory of Miltiades over the army of "Xerxes." The massacre of the British at Khurd-Kabul did not take place in 1841, but in January, 1842, and they were not retreating from Jalalabad to Kabul, but the reverse. Calais was not recovered from the French in 1557, but in 1558. Under *Plassey* there is no allusion to Clive's victory other than the statement that the place is a "battlefield." Under *Wahlstatt* we find a singularly lame mention of the battle which arrested the tide of Mongol invasion in Europe, and Szigetvár figures without the Leonidas of Hungary. Attila and his Huns should still receive a mention under *Châlons-sur Marne* even if modern scholarship is disposed to doubt whether the great battle was fought in the immediate vicinity. The "historical notes" with which the articles on the principal countries close are often as full as the generous lines on which the work is planned would appear to demand. In the case of Turkey the historical sketch is strangely inadequate. In the survey of the territorial development of France no mention is made of the acquisition of Provence in 1481. The history of Courland and Livonia is ignored, although these interesting corners of Europe deserve to have some light thrown upon their past even in the prosaic pages of a gazetteer. The few words given under *Sicily* and *Naples* on the subject will not satisfy the reader who asks to be enlightened as to the precise meaning and the origin of the designation "Two Sicilies." The writer of the notice *Calabrie* forgets to state that the Calabria of the Romans designated the heel and not the toe of Italy.

Special prominence has been given in this volume to the United States, the criterion of inclusion adopted being such that the reader is enabled to locate all but the very smallest

places. There is a mass of such entries as *Bridger's Pass, Bridger Basin, Death Valley, San Felipe Sink, Mansfield, Marcy, Twin Lakes, Tyndall Mountain*, and *Erie Canal*. The American portion would, however, have borne a much more careful handling than has been given it, as may be seen by an inspection of such notices as *Hudson* (the name Highlands not mentioned in speaking of the scenery), *Palisades* (location vaguely defined), *Adirondacks* (the lacustrine feature almost ignored), *Catskills* (no allusion to the Cloves), *Germantown* and *Dorchester* (entirely inadequate), *Governor's Island* (described as a "fortified port, U. S., in New York Harbour"), *Baltimore* (no mention of the archbishopric), *Chesapeake Bay* (no idea given of its length), and *Lake Superior* (only 13 lines).

It is unfortunate that the pages of a work so well conceived as the one under review and containing such a wealth of excellent matter should be marred by an unpardonable number of blemishes of all kinds, including the most inexcusable misprints. We have space to point out only a few. By a typographical error the latitude of Philadelphia is given as 30 degrees in place of 39. Williamstown is stated to be forty-five miles from the northwest corner of Massachusetts instead of four miles. Lake George is entered as *George Lake* without a comma. The central plain of Chile is stated, through an obvious misprint, to have a mean width of 308 miles. Under the head of *America* we read that Lake Superior is the largest body of fresh water on the globe, with an area of 31,200 miles, a statement which is contradicted under *Victoria Nyanza* (32,167 miles), where, however, the area of the islands is perhaps included. The location of Lusatia is falsely described ("S." standing for "E.," and the Brandenburg portion being ignored). Under the head of *Bermuda* we find "Cape Hatteras, in S. Carolina." In the account of the metric system in the article *France* by a curious slip (the non-correction of which in proof is unpardonable) the *are* is stated to be equivalent to one square metre instead of 100 square metres. In the enumeration of the French forts Briançon (department of Hautes-Alpes) is included among those in the northeastern part of the country. In one part of the article *Rhine* it is stated that Mainz is at the head of steam navigation, and in another part that steamboats ascend as far as Mannheim. The information regarding glaciers in the article *Alps* is misleading in the absence of any statement regarding the Grindelwald, which descends much lower than the Aletsch. The Mississippi does not transport 3,627,200,000 tons of sedimentary matter yearly to the Gulf of Mexico, but only one-tenth of that amount (the estimated volume of the deposit, which is correctly stated, being erroneously converted into tons). Monaco figures without Monte Carlo, Brie without its cheese, and Dauphiné without its English name. The cross-reference *Blue Mountains* is not justified. The reader is referred from *Cheronea* to *Lebadeia* and from *Lebadeia* to *Levadeia*, but under *Levadeia* not a word is said about Cheronea. We search in vain for the Mer de Glace, and for Moabit, one of Berlin's well-known suburbs.

In the matter of orthography we note a marked deviation from ordinary usage in the substitution of *ch* for *tch* in Russian names. This may be well, but it is a mistake to have omitted cross-references under *Tch*. There should also have been references under *Yek* to Russian names entered under *Ek*. The editor has adopted several new characters into the alphabet in the spelling of names belonging to languages not using the Roman alphabet. The Spanish *ñ* is introduced in such Russian names as *Kazañ* and *Ryazañ*, and ö and ü are employed in the transliteration of Oriental names. It is a pity that a modified *l* has not been provided to meet such cases as are presented in Russian names ending in *pol*. The editing has been extremely careless in the matter of French and Spanish accents, the most telling example being afforded by the French names beginning with accented *E*, some of which are printed with the accent and some without. This is not a pronouncing gazetteer, although occasionally the pronunciation is indicated where it is strikingly at variance with the orthography. We cannot find fault with the publishers for not having attempted what is a practically impossible task, in spite of the very commendable measure of success achieved in this direction by 'Lippincott's Pronouncing Gazetteer.'

With all its shortcomings 'Longmans' Gazetteer of the World,' as a treasury of geographical information, derived from the latest sources—information much of which is not easily accessible—must be regarded as a valuable addition to encyclopædic literature, and deserves a place on the shelves of every library.

RECENT FICTION.

Dorothy, and Other Italian Stories. By Constance Fenimore Woolson. Harper & Bros.

The Life of Nancy, and Other Tales. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Cup of Trembling, and Other Stories. By Mary Hallock Foote. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Mystery of Witch-Face Mountain, and Other Stories. By Charles Egbert Craddock. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Red Men and White. By Owen Wister. Harper & Bros.

Clarence. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Amos Judd. By J. A. Mitchell (Editor of *Life*). Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Gypsy Christ, and Other Tales. By William Sharp. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

Black Spirits and White: A Book of Ghost Stories. By Ralph Adams Cram. Chicago: Stone & Kimball.

Lovers' Saint Ruth's, and Three Other Tales. By Louise Imogen Guiney. Boston: Copeland & Day.

His Father's Son. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros.

The Days of Auld Lang Syne. By Ian Maclaren. Dodd, Mead & Co.

The King of Andaman, a Saviour of Society. By J. Maclaren Cobban. D. Appleton & Co.

A Monk of Fife: A Romance of the Days of Jeanne d'Arc. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co.

The Watter's Mou'. By Bram Stoker. D. Appleton & Co.

A COMPARISON between a number of our current short tales and novels shows that the great stream of fiction has been cleft in two, and that the branches are as sharply defined and essentially different as are the *fabliaux* of the Middle Ages and the Romances of Chivalry. While the novelists are rivalling the denunciatory prophets, running them close in gloom if not in power, the story-tellers cultivate a gracious intention to entertain, and an amiable desire to give pleasure rather than pain. The novel has become a criticism (not often illuminative) of the vexed and unhappy problems of life, but the story remains a narration of incidents not limited to the unpleasant or offensive; an imaginative transcription of bits of life not necessarily saturated with woe; and an illustration of sentiment and passions not exclusively hopeless or vicious. The novelists have generally discarded the imaginative and finely ideal, believing such qualities to be frivolous and unholy; but the story-tellers flaunt these ancient and discredited banners of their calling, and may come to be considered as the best poets of our generation. As craftsmen they are far more skilful than their serious and discursive brethren. Appearing to know what they want to do, they make steady way to their foreseen conclusion, and convey a clear impression of their meaning. They have, as a rule, grasped the principles of concentration and economy of attention, and many show an admirable talent for observing the characteristic and for inventing or adopting the phrase that reveals a chapter.

Among those who have brought their agreeable art nearly to perfection are several women, who should be highly prized as compensation for the preponderance of their sex in the ranks of the amazing novelists. Their work, with the exception perhaps of Miss Murfree's, is distinctively feminine, not in the way of being sentimental, or didactic, or squeamish, but for its decency, grace, and refinement. If they have ever had any temptation to dally with impurities for the sake of notoriety, they have resisted it, perceiving that there are certain subjects which, if a woman sinks to, she sinks with. In the whole of Miss Woolson's work, for instance, though there is no shirking of physical passion and the dire complications for which it may be responsible, there is not a hint of coarse sensuality or a touch of grossness. On the other hand, her lovers do not become phantasma through attenuation of the force of physical attraction. In 'Dorothy,' the second volume of Italian tales and her last work, most of her lovers are fervent and persistent rather than fiery. The scene of the love-making is usually the terraced garden of an Italian villa temporarily occupied by a wealthy American widow and her charming daughter or niece. The lover may belong to any nation, but he is always, as it were, on the wing: at the slightest tiff with his adored one he takes the first express, and, prodigal of railway fares, exhausts his ire in an inconsequent whirl over Europe. These stories, even as the life from which they are drawn, are more pleasing than exciting, and depend for charm on the congeniality between scene and temperament. They express ripe social experience and an eye keen to observe significant trifles, but have neither the vigor nor depth of the author's tales of Americans seen in a land where they do not conspicuously dawdle about terraces, jesting with pretty women and drinking copiously of tea.

Miss Jewett is content, and most heartily contents us, with the American at home, almost restricted to the New Englander working his unproductive farm, fishing on the more responsive sea, and gossiping up and down the village streets. The incidents in the volume entitled 'The Life of Nancy' are simple almost to bareness, but they are exalted by a sympathetic revelation of human nature and by an exquisite literary representation. The fussy old maids, kind or cross, the unconsciously humorous and self-complacent seafaring men, the taciturn husbands and loquacious,

irrelevant widows, all are in a way characteristically of New England, but Miss Jewett goes deep enough to link them with a wider world and to insure them greeting as kin, irrespective of geographical limitation and local accident. When a thing is perfectly well done, it is profitless to try to explain how and why. Nature's special endowments defy analysis, and those curious about seemingly wonderful achievements are restricted to guessing what has been added by care and industry to the original, inexplicable faculty, the unknown and incalculable quantity. What Miss Jewett appears to have gained by her sincere and loving application to letters is facility of expression which shows neither haste nor waste, and a classic beauty of form and serenity of manner. She has certainly proclaimed that beauty and truth are not antagonistic, and that the real and the ideal are inextricably woven in the warp of human life.

Mrs. Foote's talent is smaller and less mysterious than Miss Jewett's, and it is easier to discern the increase from cultivation. She gives us the appearance, the effect, and leaves us to infer the true inwardness or to give it up. Her stories are drawn from the mountains, plains, and cañons of the very far West—places where, when anything happens, it startles, terrifies, frequently kills somebody. The event has great self-reliance and speaks for itself, indifferent to the character of the people implicated. It loves a tragic mask and identifies itself with nature's vastness and desolation. In the tale of "Maverick" the lasting impression is not that of pity for a young girl flying from life made intolerable by the blackguardism of male relations and the too great solicitude of an ugly lover, but of horror of the Black Lava fields eager to grant death to any who enter their hideous solitudes. So, in the title story, no great compassion is felt for the fate that overtook a very frail woman, but a penetrating realization of the awfulness of the avalanche biding its time to hurl God's judgment upon the sinful. The sentiment of the dreary isolation of miners on the mountain slopes when work has stopped and winter closed in, is vividly rendered in the same story, and the author's phrase has a sad, poetic quality very inspiring to imagination. The local element in Mrs. Foote's stories is all supplied by the event and scene. With the natives she does not concern herself, perhaps because there are none, except a lone Skitwish Indian, an unmalleable being. At all events, her people have always come from somewhere else, and one feels sure that, if they are permitted to live long enough, they will go home again.

Miss Murfree, on the contrary, is rigidly local. Her Tennessee mountains are purpler, bluer, and yellower than any other; they are at times more remote and forbidding, at times more close and tender, than the peaks and summits of other ranges; their moon is distinctly superior, and, unlike other moons, constant. Their inhabitants bear little resemblance to the natives of other altitudes and gorges, but they make up for variation from the type by close family likeness. The occasional stranger who invades these fastnesses is a revenue officer, a bailiff, or a handsome adventurer seeking game, gold, or health. If he is handy with his pistol, he has a chance to get away and repent of his rashness, but he frequently meets one who is handier, and his bones bleach in the eternal moonlight. We do not mean to disparage Miss Murfree for an inaccurate observation of mountains, moon, and natives, but rather to admire her creative power. Her brilliant dramatic imagination is naturally accompanied by a tendency to reckless, picturesque statement, and it is through the strength and the defects of these qualities that her stories always appear more like the work of a man than of a woman. "The Mystery of Witch-Face Mountain" is full of weird, fantastic touches and description that excites but does not describe. The tale is not well held together, and suffers in interest by opening with an event so dramatic that all the rest seems tame. The second story, which describes the competition for the Blue Ribbon offered to the best rider at the Kildeer County fair, goes splendidly, and is as good as anything in Miss Murfree's first famous volume. By his tender unselfishness Justus Hoxon, in "The Casting Vote," is doomed to failure as a mountaineer. The terrestrial globe, in fact, is but a poor place for such a noble spirit. His sacrifices for his "fambly," his pride in its progress, and his betrayal by the best loved brother, make a sequence of miseries intolerable to follow were it not for the comic interludes which mitigate the pathos without jarring it too roughly. The robustness of Miss Murfree's comedy has, like her imagination, a noticeably masculine quality, and she is the only woman who has been able to give expression to that grim, ironical humor which is as abundant as ozone in outlandish America.

Bret Harte has used up a good deal of it, but not all, for it smiles all through the volume 'Red Men and White,' by Mr. Owen Wister, a new-comer in fiction. These stories are about adventurers, soldiers, and Indians, and describe what they were all doing west of the Missouri a quarter of a century ago. They were generally doing what they should not have done, except the soldiers, who went astray only when acting under direct orders from the gentlemen of the War Office in Washington. "Specimen Jones," who appears in several of the tales, is a most attractive vagabond, with a reserve of sentiment uttering itself at odd moments through the medium of old English songs. Full of expedients as well as of strange oaths, army discipline represses his impulsiveness without quenching his ingenuity. The trick by which he effects "The Second Missouri Compromise" is as clever as it is unexpected. This tale of a deadlock between the Governor of Idaho and his Legislature is indeed delightful. The situation is most serious, but the attendant circumstances are so humorous that even the Governor and his treasurer must have been spared the bare horror of impending death. Barring a slight defect in construction (a superfluous scene between the captain, his wife, and the surgeon), "The Second Missouri Compromise" is as good a frontier tale as has ever been written, and, apart from the general excellence of the other stories, makes the volume memorable.

In the story of 'Clarence,' which is neither short nor very long, the veteran sponsor for the pioneers, Bret Harte, goes back to the days that tried men's souls and women's faith. Several old friends reappear on the scene—Clarence Brant, who gives the tale a name; Jim Hooker, dirty, swaggering, and dishonest as of old; and Colonel Starbottle, still extravagant in shirt ruffles and rhetoric. The story turns on the implication of Brant in the plots of his Southern wife, an inveterate conspirator. The first part, which narrates the gathering and dispersal of the conspirators in San Francisco, is swift, clear, and dramatic; the second wavers and drags, with such confusion of signals, disguises, and other paraphernalia of the spy business, such a mixing up of a haughty Southern girl, a mysterious mulatto, and Mrs. Brant, that President Lincoln's unravelling is more confirmatory of his astuteness than any anecdote that his biographers have been able to provide. The President is reported to have said to Brant, "In Illinois we wouldn't hang a yellow dog on the evidence before the department"—which is creditable to the administration of justice in Illinois, but we feel that the State would stand within its rights in declining to examine such evidence even if the alternative were the hanging of a thousand yellow dogs.

Local color again and a Sam Slick personality, quaint, shrewd, eccentric, sententious, and ungrammatical, are among the expectations awakened by the title of Mr. Mitchell's tale, 'Amos Judd.' The editor of *Life* may be accused of deliberately misleading the public, but not of disappointing it. Cold is the imagination that cannot forget the improbability of the incident in appreciation of its romantic beauty, and dull the mind untouched by the surprising contrast between the manner and the matter, the clever adaptation of a light, neat, pointed, modern style to the narration of circumstances including both the mystic and the wonderful. What these circumstances are nobody should tell, but every one should read. Criticism of bold experiments in literature, as in life, is silenced by unequivocal success. To our mind there is but one flaw in Mr. Mitchell's story, and that is the means employed to bring about the inevitable end. His expedient here is too literally actual. We can bear to let Amos Judd go because we must; but the manner of his going adds to the pang of sorrow an emotion of resentful horror, throwing us back for consolation on the reflection that, after all, it is only a story, therefore we must pluck up courage to go about our business, and, after a decent interval, smile again.

No easier way could be tried for determining the differences between original and imitative fiction than that of reading, after 'Amos Judd,' 'The Gypsy Christ, and Other Tales.' No other reason for commending Mr. Sharp's volume occurs to us. The title story echoes Edgar Allan Poe—a disorderly, intoxicated echo; "Madge o' the Pool" brings back to us modernized, brutalized in unromantic nakedness, Dickens's Bird of Prey and Lizzie Hexham; "The Coward" is the sort of thing Pierre Loti might do without the aid of his temperament, and every one can imagine how valuable that sort of thing would be; "The Lady in Hosea" is as old as the story of another Biblical dame, Potiphar's wife, but it has a novel touch at the end with which Mr. Sharp must be credited, assuming that he means to be quite savagely sarcastic. Parallels for the remaining tales abound, and all their labored obscurity and artificiality cannot disguise the antiquity of their origin.

Mr. Cram, the author of 'Black Spirits and White,' is as careful as Mr. Sharp in guarding us from the agitation of hearing new things. His originality, however, asserts itself by the discarding of the author's preface (endeared to us by time and custom) and the substitution of a postscript. Here he disclaims ownership of the germs of the things we have been reading, and defines these things as "norms," telling us that he is more than content if he has succeeded in clothing the norms in new vesture. A reviewer of fiction must pass the germs and norms, knowing that his opinions on these sacred objects would justly excite contempt, if not derision. Again, having in mind the little wherewith Mr. Cram may be contented, a humane reviewer must desist even from scanning

the "vesture" too closely. But, standing well off and giving heed only to the general effect of this vesture, there cannot be much harm in saying that its novelty is not dazzling, that its ornament is out of proportion to its utility, and that it is almost voluminous enough effectually to conceal the elusive norm.

Miss Guiney furnishes 'Lovers' Saint Ruth's' with a preface about as modest as Mr. Cram's postscript, but less mystical. The title tale is a sort of mediæval norm built into an ecclesiastical ruin which is described by a soulful curate as a "darling bit of early decorated." Miss Guiney says that she dreamed this tale and publishes it with reluctance, appearing to have been urged thereto by friends. In the question of publishing a book, it is safer to take counsel with enemies than with friends, because a little animosity is often more productive of critical taste than is a cordial affection. Nothing in the volume makes us feel that Miss Guiney is wise in deserting verse for prose. Her way of telling things is either tedious and involved or melodramatic, and the good qualities, showing chiefly in descriptions of nature, are those which most brightly shine in poetry. The sad episode of "the provider" is almost the same as the suicide of Father Time—a very ghastly incident in 'Jude the Obscure.' Miss Guiney says it was written several years ago, and founded on an actual occurrence. Her unhappy child is much more human than Mr. Hardy's, and the management of the narrative is less inapt than that of the preceding tales. The blundering phonetic Irish, however, detracts from intrinsic strength and pathos.

'His Father's Son' is a sad dog. Not a touch of mirth or frivolous fancy is permitted by Mr. Matthews to disturb the serious record of his ignominious existence. "This," the author seems to say, "is life, not fooling. Let us treat our awful subject awfully." The fidelity to fact of the representation of the father, Ezra Pierce, need not be questioned. Almost any one who reads the newspapers could rattle off a recognizable description of a mighty potentate of Wall Street with a fair criticism of his methods, also conveying an impression of his character, derived from the daily press, very similar to that given by Mr. Matthews and not a bit more engaging. The son, Winslow, his wife and mother, are presumably equally true to life, but rarer. The impotence of the whole three before the most familiar problems, the utter inadequacy of the women to stretch out a saving hand to a boy whom they love and who is rapidly going down to death, betray a hopeless stupidity which Mr. Matthews never could have imagined, and the observation of which must have given him many unhappy hours. It is a pity that he prolonged this pain by writing down in detail the ineptitudes of those incompetent women; admiration of his courage is lost in an overwhelming sense of its uselessness for either instruction or reproof. Besides, the result of the labor (probably contrary to the author's intention) is to move us to pity the weak-headed Winslow, and to understand perfectly the temptations offered by a volatile and expensive Daisy Fostelle. The dreariness of these people has weighed on Mr. Matthews's style, and we wish he would consent to throw truth to the winds and take on once more the gay irresponsibility of a writer of plain, uncompromising fiction.

The tide of popular favor for English fiction which is chiefly Scotch appears still to rest conveniently at flood, and the authors, plentifully endowed with national canniness, are not backward in working an advantageous circumstance for all it is worth. A sober, reticent Scot must be deeply perplexed by the wild interest apparently taken in all that he does, says, and thinks, and considerably irritated by the publicity thrust upon him. It is not altogether a flattering fame, and he doubtless sees clearly that the authors are not so much concerned about proclaiming his virtues as they are eager to expose his eccentricities and make capital of his harmless peculiarities. No one is a more reckless invader of parish privacy than the minister who writes over the name Ian Maclaren. It is true that his exhaustive disclosures of stinginess, bigotry, and trivial pugnacity are offset by tributes to sturdy honesty and deep feeling. Nevertheless, we anticipate the day when exasperated elders will undertake to discipline garrulous literary Paul Prys masquerading as ministers. In characterization the volume entitled 'The Days of Auld Lang Syne' is more vague and shallower than the author's preceding work, and that sentiment which captured so many readers degenerates into sentimentality—indeed, comes perilously near to twaddle.

'The King of Andaman,' a long, romantic novel, very loosely constructed, involves much larger issues than are leases, roups, and bickerings between the Establishment and the Free. The scene is in a Scotch community of weavers just after the hapless Chartist movement and before the general introduction of machinery. The "Maister of Hutcheon" hardly strikes us as real and substantial; but as a large hearted possibility, capable of seeing visions of perfection, he is well conceived. The French manufacturer and the Irish scalawag are more credible figures and naturally much less admirable. All the detail of the times and conditions is interesting and well presented, and the use of uncouth dialect is discreetly limited.

In 'A Monk of Fife' Mr. Lang shrewdly utilizes two fashions, the acceptability of Scotch character and the revived interest in Jeanne d'Arc. His tale assumes to be a translation of a fifteenth century MS. We frankly avow complete ignorance of the *Liber Pluscardensis*, but know enough about Mr. Lang to feel sure that, wherever he may have got his facts, he is responsible for the fiction, and that the fiction much exceeds the facts. Since he must have a Scot, we are glad he has resisted the fascinations of the weaver and farmer, and has chosen a fighter, a free-lance, one who had the foresight to learn the "Southron's tongue" at his mother's knee. The adventures of Norman Leslie, in spite of his proclivity for receiving deadly wounds and swooning away at a critical moment, are stirring, and the mystic maid is not absolutely removed from human comprehension and sympathy. Mr. Lang has taken a great deal of pains with the descriptions of historic battles and sieges—pains that are perhaps wasted, for the shades of difference in the actual events escape the most faithful narrator, and to the reader who is not a boy it seems as if one as a sample would have done for all. But the book is a boy's book, and it will slake his thirst for blood and slaughter without vitiating his mind or impairing his morals.

There is only one rational excuse for the use of dialect in stories, and that is when the dialect helps out the story—when, in fact, you couldn't have the story without it. No such limitation has embarrassed the mind of the author of 'The Watter's Mou'.' The smuggler's daughter, her father and brothers and friends, would be just as theatrical and conventional in English as they are in intermittent Aberdeenshire Scotch. The central incident has a thrill in its heart which loses force by the author's artificial treatment, and never have sky, sea, and wind lowered, raged, and roared with more amazing spectacular effect, not only o'erstepping, but quite putting to shame, the modesty of nature.

Reconstruction during the Civil War in the United States of America. By Eben Greenough Scott. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. Pp. 432.

We have here a work which is said by its author to be preliminary to a political history of the period of Reconstruction, which he intends to write. Such a history might be a very instructive and valuable book, but its value will largely depend on the standpoint of the writer. This preliminary volume is useful as enunciating the author's interpretation of the Constitution and applying his principles to the civil war itself.

When Jefferson Davis devoted a large part of his book on the Confederate States to an elaborate argument that the South had the right under the Constitution to secede, and that the United States had no constitutional power to put down the rebellion, all the world laughed. If the first part of his contention had any force, and secession was a fact, he and all who believed with him were completely estopped from claiming anything from that Constitution in either the conduct of the war or the terms insisted on afterward. They had repudiated the Constitution. Feeling the force of this, apparently, Mr. Scott carefully avoids committing himself to the constitutionality of secession. He argues the case, rather, from the standpoint of the "Northern man with Southern principles" who could oppose the prosecution of the war as unlawful, the abolition of slavery as revolutionary, and the imposition of any terms at the close of the war as tyranny.

The first half of the book is an elaborate effort to read into the history of the country the fundamental principle that "separateness" was the vital (or mortal) element dominant in all its development from Plymouth Rock and Jamestown onward. Union was abhorrent to the American nature, and the separate sovereignty of colony and State was so radical a law of the country's growth that, whether the States and people formed a "perpetual union" in 1777, or a still "more perfect union" in 1787, they must be understood to have meant only the twisting of a rope of sand which could bind nobody if any member of the Union chose to practise disunion. Our author therefore finds it unnecessary to discuss the affirmative right to secede, or the sufficiency of reasons given for secession. It is quite enough to affirm the complete absence of power to prevent it. He seems wholly unconscious that a majority of the people of the country will regard his conclusion as self-destructive. They will say, Your conclusion that the United States had not power to put down an insurrection, proves that either your premises, or your logic, or both, are wrong. The absurdity of your result shows that another interpretation of constitutional power is the true one.

Education of the public mind has made progress with time, and intelligent men do not now shrink from clear formulation of principles which they did not care to discuss in 1861. It is characteristic of political discussion to seek methods of conciliating supporters, and to avoid statements, however sound, that may

offend those whose votes may possibly be obtained. Mr. Scott will find that such questions as that of the right to coerce a State give little trouble nowadays. The wonder is that they ever troubled anybody. The truth is, that the Constitution provides for the same means of coercing a State that violates its obligations that it does for a single citizen. The third article provides for making a State either a plaintiff or a defendant in controversies before the courts of the United States. Judgment and execution *are* coercion. The principle established, the rest is only a question of form. The willingness to avoid unnecessary issues led to distinguishing between the coercion of a citizen and coercion of a State, but the logic of events taught that there was no need of making even a sentimental distinction, and that a State in insurrection should be coerced as well as a collection of individuals. The State is one of the political corporations within the national Union and owing many important obligations to it. Either the State or its citizens or both may be guilty of violating those obligations, and may be compelled to perform them or made to bear the penalty.

It was always part of the elementary law that there are matters in which a party wronged may redress his own injury. If I am assaulted, I am not limited in redress to suing for damages: I may repel force with force. To say that this power is less in the nation than in a private person is to expose the ridiculousness of the assertion. These are principles of interpretation which the terrible lessons of the civil war taught so cogently that the old doctrine of impotence is scouted. It never was held except as a logic-chopping method of upholding the institution of slavery, and efforts to revive its discredited and discreditable sophistries will be utterly futile. Mr. Scott says the letter of the Constitution remains to show how far the people have been swept from their moorings. The answer is that no such thing was ever found in the letter. It was read into it by partisans of a wrong, as implied interpretations for which no solid basis was ever shown, contrary to the natural meaning of the instrument. They precipitated upon us an unparalleled civil war in their endeavor to enforce such a theory of the fundamental law, and the appeal to arms was decided against them, as was the appeal to reason. It is difficult to characterize properly the fatuity of a fresh attempt to write history with the discarded doctrine as a standard.

The subordinate propositions are as transparently weak as the leading ones. In regard to Reconstruction measures we are told that it was an "untenable position that, though these States were still members of the Federal Union, and their citizens had not ceased to be citizens of the United States, these citizens had become incapable of exercising political privileges." So far from being untenable, it describes one of the commonest things in the world. Loss of political privileges as a consequence of unlawful acts meets us at every turn. We see it in the case of every counterfeiter of the coin. He is still a citizen of one of the States, but the United States puts him in prison, where his "political privileges" are denied him. Or does Mr. Scott suppose that the inmates of penitentiaries regularly "go home to vote"? In certain classes of offences the deprivation of political privileges is specifically made part of the punishment. Now, strange as it seems to appear to Mr. Scott, a resort to war is a method of enforcing rights and of imposing penalties for wrongs. It is a court of last resort when peaceful means shall fail. It has its recognized methods of procedure and of enforcing its penalties. These penalties may affect States as corporate bodies, or their citizens, or both. Those who engage in insurrections incur the well-understood risk of all these results. They know also full well that there is no other method of trial in which the penalty is so largely discretionary with the party whom victory has made the judge.

It is the unique glory of the United States that, when victory left the late insurgents at its mercy, the nation did not raise the cry of *Vae victis!* Having fully established the principle of national sovereignty, and vindicated both its right and its power, its leniency astonished the world. It gave the lie to all the prophecies of cruelty, and proved that the discretion which it exercised as conqueror was a law of reason and conciliation to itself. The columns of this journal during the Reconstruction period show how ardent Unionists urged that it was not in the interest of good government to exclude from participation in it those who represented the capital and the intelligence of the South. Such counsels prevailed more quickly than was to be expected, and of penalties there were practically none.

During the progress of Reconstruction there were disputes between the departments of the Government which well deserve careful study and judicial analysis. There were examples of misgovernment under the so-called "carpet-bag rule" which were deplorable. A history of these from the standpoint of a thorough Unionist who could appreciate the difficulties of the situation, would be most valuable and full of political instruction. To have it written by one who condemns the whole war as wicked on the part of the United States, who can see nothing in Mr. Lincoln but a usurping dictator, who can find nothing lawful or right that Congress could do, promises, we fear, but little profit. A historian should have the faculty of throwing himself sufficiently into the position of parties to comprehend their views. He should be able to judge them, not wholly by his own political creed, but by theirs. He should know that to them there would be some theory of consistency by which their policy would have some unity of purpose. He should be above the vulgar assumption that all who oppose him are scoundrels, and all who disagree with him are liars.

If Mr. Scott were able to assume the rôle of the judicious critic and the judicial historian, the vigor and clearness of his style, with the evident industry of his reading, should insure a noteworthy book. But the doctrines of this preliminary work give little hope of a valuable result. From the pen of one who affects to believe that nothing would have been right but immediate, unqualified, and unconditional restoration, we cannot look for impartial narrative or appreciative criticism.

Russia and the English Church during the Last Fifty Years. Edited by W. J. Birkbeck, M.A., F.S.A. Vol. I. Published for the Eastern Church Association. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.

FOR the many who take an interest in the much discussed question of church unity, and in theological reading in general, the volume which Mr. Birkbeck has edited will be a timely contribution. It consists of the correspondence—or, rather, a portion of the correspondence—between Mr. William Palmer and Alexei S. Khomiakoff. It forms a valuable sequel to Mr. Palmer's 'Notes of a Visit to the Russian Church,' which Cardinal Newman edited after Mr. Palmer's death. In that work Mr. Palmer narrated his experiences during a two-years' visit to Russia, which he made with the express object of being received into communion with the Russian Church, not as a convert, but on the ground that, if the Anglican and Russian churches were, in reality, "catholic," as they profess to be, a member of one is, necessarily, a member of the other. His discussions with the Russian ecclesiastics and ordinary members of high educated society on the different points of dogma and on the interpretation of the creeds are very fully reported. To a certain extent the failure of his attempt to establish church unity in that particular direction, and the arguments for and against it, are finally summed up in that volume. But the present volume is, in no sense, a repetition of the former, though it treats of the same theme, viz., the assumption that the Anglican, Roman, and Russian churches are simply local forms of "the Church."

After his return to England from his Russian journey, Mr. Palmer came into correspondence with a remarkable Russian who has had an incalculable influence on the religious life of his fellow-countrymen, and even on the Church itself, as Mr. Birkbeck explains in his "Introduction." Alexei Khomiakoff was a layman, of noble, not of priestly, birth; an ex-officer in the Guards, whose chief interest and pleasure in life were his Church and theology. The extent of his influence can be accurately judged only by those who, in addition to knowing the facts which Mr. Birkbeck sets forth, have had the opportunity of hearing his contemporaries speak of his personality and of the book by which he is chiefly known at home and abroad—so far as he is known at all abroad—'L'Église Latine et le Protestantisme au point de vue de l'Église de l'Orient.' Several of his sayings therein have become part of the current language-coin of the country, such as his famous retort to the Protestant accusation that the *ikóni*, or sacred pictures, are fetishes and are worshipped as such: "The Protestants have a true fetish of their own, the Bible; they adore it but do not read it." There is nothing of this sort in the letters which Mr. Birkbeck collected in Moscow and St. Petersburg, neither is there much to show us Khomiakoff in his character of universal genius, practical man of business, and clear-headed reasoner in many other departments besides theology. He appears, mainly, as the gentle, devout, persuasive reasoner.

The religious movement in which he played so prominent a part was, as his editor rightly explains, different from the English Tractarian Movement in that it represented the religious and national movements in combination. "The great work of Khomiakoff's life was undoubtedly the definite direction which he gave to the Slavophile movement in Russia in its relation to the Orthodox Church. It is not an exaggeration to say that his theological writings have given a logical form to the idea of the Church which, although it has never received the sanction of an Œcumenical Council, nor even of a general council of the Eastern churches, nevertheless undoubtedly underlies the teaching of the Orthodox Church wherever she is to be met with," says Mr. Birkbeck, and he adds: "If any one wishes to estimate what Khomiakoff has done for Orthodox theology, let him first read Mr. Palmer's 'Notes'" and compare the results of the schools of theology which existed before Khomiakoff, as set forth in those discussions, and then "let him go to Russia and study the Church as she exists there at the present day. He will not be

long in realizing how completely the channel into which the Slavophiles led contemporary Russia in theological thought corresponds with actual facts."

It will be perceived at once that discussions between men of such exceptional qualifications on both sides cannot fail to be of the highest interest. But that which particularly impresses us is the change which has taken place, and is still taking place, during the course of this correspondence, in Mr. Palmer's mind. When he set out on his Russian trip ('Notes, etc.'), he seemed, on the whole, to be satisfied with the Anglican Church, and did not even accept the Russian symbol of faith as possible. Apparently, he returned home in the same frame of mind. Later on, after a lapse of years, he came to believe that the Creed without the *filioque* clause was the only one possible, and that it included the other, as many eminent theologians now admit. While in this mood, he made a long visit to Athens, which is recorded at length in this volume, and tried to be received into the Greek Church. But, at that time, the Greek Church required that converts should be rebaptized, though the Russian Church did not. Although he had refused to enter the Russian communion otherwise than unconditionally, he was now willing to enter the Greek Church by baptism, provided that the baptism should be administered to him conditionally "in case the former baptism should be declared invalid," which he did not believe, as he held that the rite could be performed and received only once. But the Greek ecclesiastical authorities, as was natural, refused to administer any other than unconditional baptism, and Mr. Palmer gave up that attempt also. He printed some Dissertations, and writes to Khomiakoff that he has sent copies thereof to Russia; if a Russian translation is permitted unaltered, or altered only in such measure as will not affect the theological completeness (which he does not at all expect), he might then seek admission to the communion of the Russian Church. It will be seen that he had now reached the point where he had made up his mind not to remain in the Anglican communion, but was unwilling to enter any other where he would not be allowed to discuss freely and publicly matters which were of essential importance to religion. He has repeatedly expressed irreconcilable non-concurrence with the dogmas and practices of the Roman Church, yet he has, by this time, become so unsettled that he announces to Khomiakoff: "After, then, I have done all I can towards the Russian as well as the Greek Church, I should probably, as I have said, go to Rome, with the hope of learning something there to enable me to change my mind and submit to her claims, since I can no longer defend the Anglican nor find a satisfactory entrance into the Eastern Church."

Now, while there is not the slightest doubt that Mr. Palmer was thoroughly sincere in his unhappy search for truth, and in his conscientious splitting of theological hairs "'twixt south and southwest side," the upshot of it all, at the end of this volume (which breaks off at the epoch of the Crimean war as a natural division), is decidedly startling:

"Having arrived at Rome," he writes, "and having been persuaded by some very enthusiastic friends of mine to make a retreat, I came into connection with a very distinguished theologian, Father Passaglia, who informed me of an 'opinion' which I had never thought of, and which served to facilitate my conviction—namely, that having, as I had, Greek rather than Latin convictions upon certain important points of controversy, I could all the same be received into the Roman Catholic communion by merely suspending my private judgment, and making up my mind to affirm nothing contrary to the known dogmas of the Roman Church, nor to entertain by preference any such thoughts. Accordingly I followed his advice . . . I have obtained from the step which I have resolved upon a real peace, and a religious position which I am able to defend; but, as for my intellectual position, it has remained almost without change; only, in respect to the Roman See, and, in general, in respect to general arguments favorable to the pretensions of Catholicism, I find it much more agreeable to be on the side of the stronger rather than on that of the less strong."

How this frank confession can be reconciled with the stern intellectual honesty which has seemed, up to this point, to be Mr. Palmer's distinguishing trait, it is very difficult to see. The whole book furnishes a curious psychological as well as theological study.

Mr. Birkbeck has performed his task extremely well, and his foot-notes are very helpful not only to the understanding of this correspondence, but also to that of the subject in general. There are one or two trifling errors which it would be well to correct on p. xix: "The deliverance of the Church and State from the attack of the Gauls and of the twenty nations which accompanied them," should read "twelve nations." The error arises from misunderstanding the unusual word, *dvunadesyat*. On. p. liv, "throw away doubt" should read "throw any doubt." There are one or two other mistakes which it is not worth while to chronicle here.

Anima Poetæ: From the Unpublished Notebooks of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Edited by Ernest Hartley Coleridge. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895.

THE editing of this volume is by the same careful hand that edited for us recently the 'Letters of Samuel Taylor Coleridge.' Much labor must have gone to the preparation of it, but the outcome is its ample justification and reward. There is nothing better here, nothing more characteristic, than we have had heretofore in the 'Table Talk' and 'Friend' and 'Biographia Literaria,' but there is a fresh instalment of what attracted us in those delightful books, good in itself and calculated to send one acquainted with those books back to them for the renewal of his pleasure in them and to win for them some new appreciation. From 1795 to 1832 Coleridge filled more than fifty pocket notebooks with his observations and lucubrations on a very great variety of material and spiritual things. Scanty use has hitherto been made of this great accumulation of material. Mr. Coleridge gives a careful list of the various drafts that have been made upon it, ending with "a few quotations from diaries of tours in the Lake Country and on the Continent" that appear in the foot-notes of the 'Letters.' At the risk of injuring his collection, Mr. Coleridge has omitted from it what has been used already. But the aim of the editor is something more than to give a selection of admirable sentences and aphorisms. He would "enable the reader to form some estimate of those strange self-communings to which Coleridge devoted so much of his intellectual energies, and by means of which he hoped to pass through the mists and shadows of words and thoughts to a steadier contemplation, to the apprehension if not the comprehension of the mysteries of Truth and Being." Mr. Coleridge has made it easy for the reader to find what he seeks and to skip what he doesn't care for by a series of marginal notes, many of them brief quotations from Coleridge and other poets, the whole succession being very happily conceived.

The selections made could all without much violence, if any, be brought under four heads: observations of nature; comments upon friends; self-criticism; approaches to things ethical, religious, theosophical. The observations upon nature are occasionally scientific, but generally æsthetic. For one so introverted as Coleridge they show a remarkable intensity of engagement with things visible and tangible. Shelley is generally regarded as *par excellence* our meteorological poet, but Coleridge's predilection for the lovely mysteries of the weather does not seem to have been less pronounced. Reading many of these observations, it is evident that the atmospheric felicities of 'The Ancient Mariner' were not evolved entirely from his inner consciousness; that if he did not write with his eye on the object, he did write remembering his emotion in tranquillity. The precious sonnet, "Fancy in Nubibus," is evidently a genuine report of doings to which Coleridge was much addicted, but in most of the examples given here of his dealings with cloud land he is content with the actual appearance; only there must be something of mysterious fascination in it to attract and hold him. In many of these observations we are very near to that region of the poet's mind out of which came the skyscape of the ode "Dejection" and the loveliest of all the marginal readings of 'The Ancient Mariner'—that about "the Journeying Moon and the stars that still sojourn and still move onward." For example:

"A most remarkable sky! The moon, now waned to a perfect ostrich egg, hangs over our house almost, only so much beyond it, gardenward, that I can see it, holding my head out of the smaller study window. The sky is covered with whitish and with dingy cloudage, their dingiest scud close under the moon, and one side of it moving, all else moveless; but there are two great breaks of blue sky: the one stretches over our house and away towards Castlerigg, and this is speckled and blotched with white cloud; the other hangs over the road, in the line of the road, in the shape of an ellipse or shuttle, I do not know what to call it—this is unspeckled, all blue, three stars in it—more in the former break, all unmoving. The water, leaden white, even as the gray gleam of water is in latest twilight. Now while I have been writing this and gazing between whiles (it is forty minutes past two) the break over the road is swallowed up, and the stars gone; the break over the house is narrowed into a rude circle, and on the edge of its circumference one very bright star. See! already the white mass, thinning at its edge, *fights* with its brilliance. See! it has bedimmed it, and now it is gone, and the moon is gone."

Of the comments upon friends, those upon Wordsworth are the most interesting and valuable. But not all his readers will agree with Coleridge's disparagement of Wordsworth's shorter poems as compared with "The Prelude":

"In those little poems his own corrections, coming of necessity so often, wore him out, difference of opinion with his best friends irritated him, and he wrote, at times, too much with a sectarian spirit, with a sort of bravado. But now he is at the helm of a nobler bark; now he sails right onward; it is all open ocean and a steady breeze, and he drives right before it, unfretted by short tacks, reefing and unreefing the sails, hauling and disentangling the ropes. His only disease is in having been out of his element; his return to it is food to famine; it is both the specific remedy and the condition of health."

This lofty praise, however, is shortly followed by this harsh disparagement:

"But surely always to look at the superficies of objects for the purpose of taking delight in their beauty, and sympathy with their real or imagined life, is as deleterious to the health

of manhood as always to be peering and unravelling contrivance may be to the simplicity of the affections and the grandeur and unity of the imagination."

The occasion of this comment was "a most unpleasant dispute with Wordsworth and Hazlitt" on teleology. Hazlitt is punished even more severely than Wordsworth for speaking "so irreverently, so malignantly of the Divine Wisdom." But for the capitals we might think Coleridge's wisdom was intended.

"Hazlitt, how easily raised to rage and hatred self-projected! but who shall find the force that can drag him out of the depths into one expression of kindness, into the showing of one gleam of the light of love on his countenance?"

There is more of this and worse, but the next day we find him sitting to Hazlitt for his portrait, which, let us trust, was more flattering than his portrait of Hazlitt. His own he sketches many times, and there is a strange mingling in this self-portraiture of abject humility and unconscious pride. But sometimes the note of self-esteem is as frank as possible. Thus:

"There are two sorts of talkative fellows whom it would be injurious to confound. The first sort is those who use five hundred more words than needs to express an idea. That is not my case. Few men, I will be bold to say, put more into their words than I, or choose them more deliberately and discriminately."

His own trouble is that he has five hundred times too many ideas for his words. There is much insistence on his need of the sympathy and support of others, and this without miscalculation. His evil habit is barely touched upon, but there are passages that seem to indicate its sway. We find him studious of his dreams and of the half-light between sleep and waking. The essence of his character is nowhere more apparent than in a passage where he makes God in his own image: "Something inherently mean in action! Even the creation of the universe disturbs my idea of the Almighty's greatness—would do so but that I perceive that Thought with him creates." "A time will come when passiveness will attain the dignity of worthy activity," when men will be "proud of having remained in a state of deep, tranquil emotion."

There are many incidental touches of great beauty, admirable criticisms upon men and books, verbal felicities of surprising force and charm. He is vexed that "he must admire, ay, greatly admire, Richardson. His mind is so very vile a mind, so oozy, hypocritical, praise-mad, canting, envious, concupiscent." He contemplates a poem on bells and sets down several hints for it, but with no word about Schiller's "Song of the Bell," of which he probably knew and was unconsciously reminiscent. The attempts at humor are duller than the leaden bell which Froude imagined that he heard in Browning's verse. The religious parts are generally impressive so long as they are predominantly ethical. When they are merely speculative they are filmy and intangible, but will undoubtedly commend themselves to those who thrill to an idea in proportion to its incomprehensibility. There is a noble passage upon immortality (pp. 170, 171), in the course of which occurs a remarkable anticipation of the idea that was central to Prof. Huxley's anti-supernaturalist position: "If a miracle merely means an event before inexperienced, it proves only itself and the inexperience of mankind." Huxley's statement of the matter was that a day-fly had more reason to think a thunder-storm supernatural than we to think so the most exceptional thing we can imagine.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden's Living Topics Cyclopedia. Abb—Boy. J. B. Alden.
Allen, Charles. Papier Mâché. Edward Arnold.
Andrews, J. De W. The Works of James Wilson. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Bergen, J. Y. Elements of Botany. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.20.
Betz, L. P. Pierre Bayle und die "Nouvelles de la République des Lettres." Zürich: Albert Müller.
Beynon, Lieut. W. G. L. With Kelly to Chitral. Edward Arnold.
Bing, S. La Culture Artistique en Amérique. Paris. New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Bishop, J. R. Selections from Vergil's Georgics for Sight Reading. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 25c.
Bishop, W. H. 1896, and the Five Redemption Years. Toledo, O.: Crusader Publishing Co. 50c.
Black, H. C. Handbook on the Construction and Interpretation of the Laws. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
Christian, Sydney. Persis Yorke. Macmillan. $1.25.
Davis, R. H. Three Gringos in Venezuela and Central America. Harpers.
D'Esterre-Keeling, Elsa. Old Maids and Young. Cassell. 50c.
Doyle, A. C. The Exploits of Brigadier Gerard. Appletons. $1.50.
Drinkwater, J. M. Paul French's Way. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co. $1.25.
Ewing, Emma P. The Art of Cookery. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. $1.75.
Forman, H. B. The Letters of John Keats. Complete revised ed. London: Reeves & Turner; New York: Scribners. $3.20.
Foster, Prof. G. C., and Atkinson, Prof. E. Elementary Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Frith, Walter. In Search of Quiet: A Country Journal. Harpers.
Gollancz, Israel. Coriolanus and Troilus and Cressida. [Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Gumplowicz, Prof. Louis. Précis de Sociologie. Paris: Léon Chailley.
Halsey, J. L., and E. D. Thomas Halsey of Hertfordshire, England, and Southampton, Long Island, 1591-1679, with his American Descendants to the Eighth and Ninth Generations. Morristown, N. J.: *The Jerseyman.*
Hardy, Thomas. The Trumpet-Major. Harpers. $1.50.
Hardy, Thomas. The Woodlanders. Harpers. $1.50.
Heffly, N. P. A Complete Manual of the Pitman System of Phonography. American Book Co. $1.25.
Hornaday, W. T. The Man Who Became a Savage. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.50.
Hornbrook, A. R. Concrete Geometry for Beginners. American Book Co. 75c.
Hornung, E. W. Irralie's Bushranger. Scribners. 75c.
Howard, F. E. The Child-Voice in singing. E. S. Werner. $1.
Howells, W. D. The Day of their Wedding. Harpers. $1.25.
Hunter, P. H. James Inwick, Ploughman and Elder. Harpers.
Johnson, Prof. Franklin. The Quotations of the New Testament from the Old. American Baptist Publication Society. $2.
Kenyon, J. B. An Oaten Pipe. J. Selwin Tait & Sons.
Lindley, Dr. Walter, and Widney, Dr. J. P. California of the South. Third edition, rewritten. Appletons. $2.
Macgibbon, David, and Ross, Thomas. The Ecclesiastical Architecture of Scotland. Vol. I. Edinburgh: David Douglas.
Mackinnon, James. The Union of England and Scotland: A Study of International History. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Macnie, John. Elements of Plane Geometry. American Book Co. 75c.
McNulty, Edward. Misther O'Ryan. New ed. Edward Arnold.
Mitchell, Rev. E. C. The Critical Handbook of the Greek New Testament. Harpers.
Monahan, Michael. Youth: A Poem of Soul and Sense, and Other Poems. Albany: Albany Publishing Co.
Moncrieff, Hon. Frederick. The X Jewel: A Scottish Romance of the Days of James VI. Harpers. $1.25.
Mortimer, Rev. A. G. The Seven Last Words of Our Most Holy Redeemer. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. The Literary Study of the Bible. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $2.
Ottolengui, Rodrigues. The Crime of the Century. Putnams. 50c.
Paget, Rev. E. C. Silence, with Other Sermons. $1.50.
Prescott, E. L. The Apotheosis of Mr. Tyrawley. Harpers.
Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Vol. III, Part 2. Longmans, Green & Co.
Remsen, D. S. Intestate Succession in the State of New York. 3d edition. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $1.25.
Ridge, W. P. A Clever Wife. Harpers. $1.25.
Roberts, W. Rare Books and their Prices. With Chapters on Pictures, Pottery, Porcelain, and Postage Stamps. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Robinson's New Higher Arithmetic. American Book Co. $1.
Saintsbury, Prof. George. A History of Nineteenth Century Literature (1780-1895). Macmillan. $1.50.
Schuyler, Rev. Hamilton. Studies in English Church History. New York: Crothers & Korth. $1.
Shattuck, Harriette R. The Woman's Manual of Parliamentary Law. 6th ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75c.
Sheedy, Rev. M. M. Christian Unity. Catholic Book Exchange. 50c.
Strain, E. H. A Man's Foes. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Tyler, Prof. J. M. The Whence and the Whither of Man. Scribners. $1.75.
White, Mary. The Book of a Hundred Games. Scribners. $1.
Wright, Prof. G. F., and Upham, Warren. Greenland Icefields and Life in the North Atlantic. Appletons. $2.
Wylie, J. H. History of England under Henry the Fourth. Vol. III. 1407-1410. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 5, 1896.

The Week.

ONE has only to read the debate in the Senate of February 27 to see how absolutely in the dark the whole blundering belligerency work was done. Senator Sherman gravely introduced as his first evidence a pamphlet written by a representative of the Cuban insurgents. This ex parte document "seems to be fairly and frankly written," said Mr. Sherman, and hence the Senate could implicitly accept all its statements. But even these statements, thus guaranteed, had nothing to say about the actual situation of the insurrection, or whether the fact of belligerency existed. Senator Morgan here interposed to strengthen the case by reading a letter just received "from a gentleman with whom I have no acquaintance whatever." The writer was ready to make oath that "57,000 Cubans bit the dust" in the last insurrection, and what other evidence could be demanded, Senator Morgan would like to know, that the insurgents in the present insurrection had all the recognized marks of belligerents? Senator Sherman went on to refer to a mysterious book in Spanish. He was sorry he had not had time to get it from the Library to awe the Senate with, but perhaps it did not matter, as he could not read Spanish anyhow. Luckily, extracts from it had been translated "by one of the great journals," and those he would read. They showed a horrible state of things in 1870, and who could doubt that conditions were even worse in 1896? To make the case absolutely complete, Lodge interposed to read "the last proclamation of Gen. Weyler." What he really read was a newspaper guess at what a proclamation was going to be—so stated on its face, and a guess promptly belied, at that. There has been no such proclamation. Lodge must have known this at the time, but it would be a poor sort of Massachusetts Senator who would not stretch the truth a little in order to help bring on a glorious war for the improvement of our decaying morals. With no surer facts to go upon than this collection of guesses and irrelevancies, the Senate rushed blindfold on to what might be war.

No better was the performance of the House on Monday. In the speech by which Mr. Hitt (the chairman of the House committee on foreign relations, be it remembered) introduced the resolutions, we look in vain for evidence of insurgent belligerency in the shape of official reports, or other testimony equally good, showing what territory the insurgents hold, the seat of their Government, and the points of the coast at which foreign Powers can communicate with them, the nature of their Government, and their armament on land and sea. These are the facts which constitute belligerency. Of these facts Mr. Hitt had not a particle of proof. What he said was that belligerency was proved "not by the newspaper reports alone, but by the reports of the United States consuls." Nothing of the sort has appeared in any published consular report or in any newspaper. Cuban belligerency, in the sense in which the term is used in diplomacy, is an invention of his own. He fortified himself by alleging on his own authority that Spaniards held only one-third of the island, that 125,000 troops had been sent to Cuba, that the Captain-General had issued two long proclamations which "had been read with horror," that guerilla warfare had proved too much for the French in Spain, under Napoleon, of which the Spaniards are very proud, and that the belligerency of the Confederacy had been recognized by Spain three months after the war broke out, as if belligerency were a question of time and not of circumstances.

We presume no American who is proud of his country, and has any acquaintance with the part she has played in building up the code of international morals which now prevails in Christendom, has read the debate which ensued, without a good deal of humiliation, or without, under all the circumstances, much gratitude to the gentlemen, Messrs. Turner, Boutelle, McCall, and Tucker, who treated the House to a few doses of law and common sense. From most of the supporters of the resolutions nobody expected anything but what they supplied. Talking international law or usage to them would be like talking it to a chamber of Anarchists. But Mr. Hitt is a graduate of Yale College and has been Assistant Secretary of State. Of neither experience was there the slightest trace in his speech. For all that appeared in that effort, he might have been bred in some vast wilderness, where rumors of successful or unsuccessful war reached him only through primers. The most striking thing in his speech was the assurance he gathered from the Spanish Minister's apology for the Barcelona mob, that his own resolutions would cause no trouble. This brings out what is really the most alarming trait in Jingo performances. It will have been observed that whenever Jingoes indulge in violent language which imperils peaceful relations, and the Power to which it is addressed answers with astonished politeness, and shows anxiety to avoid a quarrel, the Jingo always sets it down to fear, turns calmly to his followers, and says: "You see; I told you there would be no war. That is the way to talk to these suckers. They understand now how we feel, and what a big country this is, and they won't forget it soon either."

The difficulty of hammering even elementary notions of international law into the heads of some of the inland sages was well illustrated in the debate on the Senate resolution in recognition of Cuban belligerency between Senator Gray and Senator Vest of Missouri. Senator Gray was contending for the elementary proposition "that recognition of the independence of a people is the recognition of a fact." Is Cuba independent or not? The reason for thinking she is not is that the Cubans have no ports, no fixed territorial area, no regular government, no organized army. What difference does that make? said Mr. Vest. "Will the Senator from Delaware permit me to ask him whether the cause of the American colonies was not more desperate than that of Cuba to-day when France recognized our independence?" When the French recognized the independence of the United States, the rebels had had through the whole contest thirteen regularly organized colonial governments. They had had the leading port of the Union in their possession for two years before the French recognition. Boston was surrendered to Washington March 17, 1776. French recognition came on February 6, 1778. But what is more important than all is that the leading British army in the field, that of Gen. Burgoyne, surrendered to the rebels October 17, 1777, which was really the determining cause of the French alliance.

The discussion of the silver question in the Senate on Wednesday week served still further to clear the air. For many years the managers of the Republican party have been playing what Mr. Teller of Colorado rightly styled a "bunco game" on the silver States. This policy was inaugurated in 1888, when Mr. McKinley, as chairman of the committee on resolutions in the Republican national convention, reported the now famous plank "condemning the Democratic Administration for its efforts to demonetize silver." What the Democratic Administration had done in this matter from 1885 to 1888 was simply to urge the same policy that its Republican predecessor had urged from 1881 to 1885. We place side by side the final recommendation on this subject of President Arthur in 1884 and the first recommendation of President Cleveland in 1885:

I concur with the Secretary of the Treasury in recommending the immediate suspension of the coinage of silver dollars and of the issuance of silver certificates. — *President Arthur, December 1, 1884.*

I recommend the suspension of the compulsory coinage of silver dollars directed by the law passed in February, 1878. — *President Cleveland, December 8, 1885.*

The McKinley resolution was intended to mean, and could mean, only that the Republican party, if restored to power, would turn its back upon its consistent record up to 1885, and show more favor to the silverites. This pledge was redeemed by the taking at the first opportunity of that "long step towards free coinage," as the Indiana Republicans styled the silver-purchase act of 1890—an act urged by Mr. McKinley, as leader of the House, on the ground that "it does what the present law has not done: it takes every dollar of silver bullion that is produced in the United States and places it at the disposal of the people as money"; and that "we cannot have free coinage now except in the manner as provided in the bill." The attempt to play the bunco game was continued in the national platform of 1892, with its declaration in favor of "bimetallism," which Mr. Teller and Mr. Jones of Nevada were assured meant what the silverites wanted. Mr. Carter, Mr. Teller, and the other Republican Senators from the silver States who stand with them, are rendering a national service in exposing this whole policy of deception upon which the Republican managers entered in 1888, and in insisting that no more of these McKinley games shall be played. For an organization that used to pride itself upon being the party of moral ideas, the record of the Republicans on the silver question during the last eight years has been most contemptible. McKinley himself is apparently ready to continue the policy of evasion and deception, but Carter, Teller, and their associates have rendered this impossible.

The multiplying signs that free silver is going to cut through both parties and make itself the controlling issue in the next Presidential election, will give general satisfaction—they certainly will to the friends of sound money. The great peril now is, two-faced platforms and doughface candidates. The silver Republicans are apparently prepared to fight, and the sound-money Democrats are also stripping for the contest—none too soon. Secretary Carlisle boldly said last week that the conflict was now an irrepressible one, and the issue of a kind that could not be avoided even by trimmers, and would not be by men of character. A silver party, pure and simple, is by all means to be desired. If all the 16-to-1 men and the international-agreement men and the straddlers and dodgers in either party could be forced to go off with the Populists, where they belong, the country would first rise up and call them blessed, and then rise up and smite them hip and thigh. It seems almost too much to hope for such a result, but we may, for the present, hope for it with fear and trembling.

Speaker Reed's obstinate silence, in the face of a threatened and probable split in his party, is highly inopportune, as he has before philosophized a great deal about such matters. In his Old Orchard speech of August 25, 1894, he explained how the Democratic party was destined to fail because, unlike the Republican party, it "had no underlying principle on which it was united from one end of the country to the other." The present delightful harmony of the Republicans on the currency, from one end of the country to the other, would be most profitable for reproof and instruction if commented upon by such a philosopher. While about it, he could also discourse solidly on the way in which his own aphorisms upon another matter have come home to roost. He said that the Democrats could keep up a semblance of being a party when in opposition, but that when "they endeavor to combine and to take positive action themselves," we at once see "the tremendous diversity of opinion which was masked under seeming unanimity." Would the Speaker admit that Republican *Hamlet* and *Laertes* have since exchanged rapiers?

The public debt statement for March shows the receipts and expenditures for eight months of the fiscal year. The deficit was only $17,500,000. During the same period of the previous year it was $36,300,000, showing a gain of nearly $19,000,000. At this rate of progress it is a reasonable anticipation that in the next fiscal year, beginning July, 1896, the receipts will equal the expenditures. The only thing that can prevent this is the continual beating of war-drums at Washington. If Congress would adjourn, or would take up its proper business and stop meddling with foreign affairs and getting us into unnecessary broils, there would be a period of renewed prosperity in all parts of the country, the effects of which would be immediately perceptible in the public revenues. The maintenance of the gold standard is now assured, not only by the accumulation of that metal in the Treasury, but still more by the purpose shown by the public in the recent bond sale to furnish all that may be needed for that purpose hereafter. The only cloud upon the business horizon is that which has been wantonly created by reckless politicians.

Attention should be called to the figures issued by the Bureau of Statistics for the calendar years 1891 to 1895 on the subject of wool. The period covered is practically four years under the tariff act of 1890 and one year under that of 1894. In 1892, which was the year of largest imports of woollen manufactures under the McKinley tariff, the amount of duties collected was $36,560,539 on a valuation of imports of $37,557,037. This was equivalent to an ad valorem of 97.36 per cent. In 1895 the duty collected was $28,102,648 on a value of imports of $61,018,579—the equivalent ad valorem being 46 per cent. This shows that with the rate of duty reduced more than one-half, the revenue was reduced only 23 per cent. It is an impudent demand to ask Congress to reimpose the high duties on raw wools to gain a revenue of six or seven millions of dollars, and to increase to an even greater degree the duties on manufactures of wool for a similar sum. At the end of February the deficit in the national account was only $900,000 more than it was at the end of November. The Government is, therefore, very nearly paying its expenses out of current revenue, and there is no reasonable ground for tinkering with the tariff, and least of all in the direction of higher duties on raw wools and manufactures of wool, where the consumer loses two dollars every time the Government gains one.

A meeting was held at Cooper Institute on Friday evening, under the call of the Central Labor Union, to protest against the introduction of militarism as a governing force in this country. The meeting was a great success in point of numbers and enthusiasm. The speeches were made by plain-talking men, who knew exactly what they wanted, and the resolutions were of the most decisive character, declaring that the participants would vote against every man, in either house of Congress, who should support the pending bills to add to the permanent military force of the nation by fortifications or otherwise. The *Tribune*, in its mendacious account of this meeting, suppresses all the ideas presented by the speakers except one. It suppresses the resolutions also. The one idea which it allows to go before its readers is that the proposed fortifications and the increased army are intended to put down strikes rather than to fight foreign enemies. The truth is that the meeting was a protest against war and all its belongings, the facilities for dealing with domestic insurrection being one of several reasons for opposing this new development of "Americanism." The idea oftenest put forward by the speakers was that war means bloodshed and penury for the laboring classes, the glory and the profits being monopolized by a few officers and contractors. Is not this true of all wars? Another idea prominently presented was that the taxes to pay for this military equipment must be paid chiefly by laboring men, which is true also.

The ordering of ships to Corinto by Secretary Olney, to protect Americans while the usual revolution is going on, will puzzle the international lawyers a good deal. They were told by Mr. Olney last July that "our fiat is law" on this continent. This they of course believed, for they didn't want their heads blown off for doubting it. But how much mystified

they will be now to see men-of-war resorted to when a simple "fiat" could do the business so easily. Your true "fiat" is self-executing. When the Creator said, "Fiat lux," there was no need of casting about for some means of producing light, but immediately "there was light." This is the way Secretary Olney should have proceeded. He, too, should have shown that he could speak and it was done, he could command and it stood fast. Instead of a war-ship, a cablegram should have been sufficient. Addressed to "Dagoes, Corinto, via Galveston," it would have needed only to say, "My fiat is peace. Olney." Instantly the machetes would have been beaten into ploughshares, and a vast and lucrative trade have been built up with this country. But cumbrous ships and guns instead of this swift King-Canute method! Fie on that kind of a fiat!

Mr. Sanger has introduced in the New York Assembly what seems to be a desirable measure supplementary to our inadequate corrupt-practice law. It provides for the filing, within ten days after election, of itemized accounts of all receipts and expenditures by candidates, committees, agents, corporations, associations, and everybody else who has paid, or advanced, or promised to pay money to aid in an election. We wish we could say that there is hope of this or some similar measure becoming a law. The Republicans were pledged in favor of it when they came into power, and Gov. Morton sought to hold them to their pledge in his first message. The last Legislature refused to pay any attention either to him or to the pledge, and this year he neglected to say anything whatever on the subject. Of course the rigid enforcement of such a law would be the destruction of Platt, for it would expose his entire system of machine control by revealing the sources of his income and the uses which he made of it. Not only would the amount of each corporation's contribution be revealed, but the share each candidate received to aid him in his election, or the price for which he sold himself to the boss, would also be exposed. This would be an appalling catastrophe to the boss system, and we look for a very chilling legislative reception to Mr. Sanger's proposal.

Echoes of the income-tax agitation are growing fainter in the South. The action of the Kentucky Legislature in adopting a resolution looking towards a constitutional amendment under which such a tax could be assessed is more than offset by the rejection in the South Carolina House of a specific income-tax bill, which commanded the votes of only about one-third of the Representatives. Many who voted in opposition were influenced by the argument that an income tax, while a good thing when applied to the whole country, might, when confined to a single State, be disastrous by its effect in driving out capital. The offering of such a reason may be accepted as evidence that even the Populists are learning not only that capital is very useful, but also that its rights must be given some consideration. When a Legislature whose members applaud Tillman's tirade takes this position on the income tax, that proposal may be considered to be as dead as Dingley's tariff bill.

The verdict of the jury in South Carolina acquitting of murder last week the lynchers of an old colored woman is symptomatic of a lower stage of humanity than prevailed in the old slavery days. A Charleston correspondent of the *Evening Post*, in a recent letter relating the outrage for which these men were tried, pointed out that, even before the war, white men were sentenced to death in that State for killing negroes when the negroes were nothing but chattels in the eye of the law. The lynchers just acquitted dragged a negro, his wife, and mother from their house at night, and beat them so terribly that the man and his mother were found dead the next morning. One of these lynchers was a prominent physician of the neighborhood. The defence relied almost entirely on the evidence of a doctor who testified that the old woman (for whose murder this trial was held) died from asphyxiation—that is, was drowned in water not a foot deep, and not from the effects of the beating received. The prosecution seems to have been in earnest to secure the conviction, and this "medical testimony" was torn all to pieces on cross-examination; but the modern South Carolina jury seems incapable of punishing a white man when a negro is his victim. The accused are still to be tried for the murder of the negro man, and it is encouraging to hear that the Judge, after their acquittal, refused to admit them to bail.

The literary output of 1895, as footed up in the *Publishers' Weekly*, shows a total of 5,469 new books and new editions (368 of the latter), as against 4,484 in 1894. The greatest increase was in fiction (385), with lesser gains in law, theology, education, and nearly every category except political and social science; as to the falling off in the latter department, theorists may well be excused for waiting for practice to catch up. Some light is thrown by the statistics on the working of the copyright law. It appears that there were 3,396 books by American authors manufactured in the United States, as compared with 847 books by English and other foreign authors, while 1,226 books were imported, in sheets or bound. The American novelist shows up badly. He produced but 287 volumes to 589 by pauper foreign authors, manufactured in this country, and 238 imported. As it was American fiction that the simultaneous-publication and American-manufacture clauses of the copyright law were going especially to protect and develop gloriously, it looks as if Mr. M. D. Conway had some ground for asserting that, from a financial point of view, the act of 1891 was the most disastrous thing that ever befell American authors. We, of course, have no patience with those cynics who maintain that the fault is not in our copyright stars, but in our fiction itself, that it is an underling.

Measured on a scale of the scornful laughter which reference to them in Parliament produces, bimetallism, protection, the Tory social programme, and the Poet Laureate would rank in about the order named. Rosebery in the Lords vied with Harcourt in the Commons in jests about "the favorite remedy of the First Lord of the Treasury, which that right honorable gentleman, as First Lord of the Treasury, finds himself precluded from applying—bimetallism," and Olympian laughter followed in either house. A similar tribute was paid to every mention of protection; and when Lord Rosebery alluded to the way the Duke of Devonshire had gone round during the recess "as a universal refrigerator," to turn an icy spray upon every bud or blossom of hope of social legislation by the Tories, the Lords had to look to their waistcoat buttons. Poor Mr. Austin must have thought his laurel had been inadvertently taken from a thorn-tree. His eulogistic verse on the Jameson raid convinced Lord Rosebery that the laureateship was not only, as he always thought, an obsolete office, but also a dangerous one. Hard-hitting Sir William Harcourt, when referring to the attitude which sober-minded Englishmen should observe towards lawless compromisers of the English name, like Jameson, remarked with huge disdain: "I am not speaking of music-halls or of poets laureate." The cheers and roars of laughter that followed were enough to suggest that the next official poem should begin: "Who would not be jeered at for England?"

As anti-Semitism goes down in Berlin it goes up in Vienna. That pious Jew-baiter, Dr. Stöcker, is in disgrace, repudiated by his erstwhile enthusiastic admirer, the Emperor, and reduced to a practical nullity politically. But in Vienna the new Municipal Council is more sweepingly anti-Semite than the last one, which the Emperor had to dissolve in November. It will doubtless elect its chosen agitator, Dr. Lueger, Burgomaster again, and bring on a fresh contest with the Crown. Stormy times are presaged for Austrian politics, not only by this insensate race prejudice, but by the socialistic and labor agitation as well, which is already leading to scenes of unprecedented violence in the Diet.

MILITARISM IN A REPUBLIC.

THE embroilment with Spain has come upon the commercial world, as the President's Venezuela message did, like thunder out of a clear sky. The former is one of the indirect consequences of the latter. Congress was so dumfounded and demoralized by the tone of that message that it has had no steadiness or stamina since. It was panic-stricken with the idea that Mr. Cleveland and his party would gain an advantage by being greater Jingoes than the Republicans. The latter, through their leading politicians and newspapers, had been demanding a "vigorous foreign policy," and when Mr. Cleveland gave them rather more of it than they wanted or expected, they felt compelled to "stand behind him." This was a situation they had never contemplated. They have ever since been trying to get in front. They first tried to rally under the banner of Armenia, and for this purpose they passed a resolution lecturing the Powers of Europe for not carrying out the Treaty of Berlin—a treaty to which we were not a party. This was rather ridiculous, besides which Armenia was too far away. The rebellion in Cuba was near at hand, and was the only other thing that offered a chance of getting in front of Cleveland instead of bringing up the rear. This is the reason why the business world was plunged into fresh trouble last Friday, and why it is to be harassed for an indefinite time to come. This is the reason why an excitable people on the other side of the water are mobbing American consulates in their chief cities, and why the American Minister is protected against insult or perhaps violence only by a strong police force at Madrid.

All these doings are wicked, and they point to a reign of militarism the end of which no man can foresee. They will give rise to a new demand for forts, battleships, big guns, war material, and all the things that go to make a hell upon earth. Because we shake our fists at Spain, and a mob in consequence pulls down our flag at Barcelona, it is made plausible to say that our seacoast is defenceless, and that any third-rate Power can come into our harbors and lay our cities under contribution. A great many catchwords can be constructed out of such rotten material, yet the whole argument for forts and battle-ships rests upon the false assumption that foreign Powers (third-rate Powers, forsooth) are going to attack us without provocation. Such a wild, nonsensical assumption does not deceive any human being who stops to think. The United States of America unarmed is, for all purposes of self-defence, the strongest Power in the world to-day—strong in resources, strong in intelligence, strong in distance from other Powers, and strongest of all in moral greatness if it chooses to exercise its strength that way. No nation will ever attack us unless first provoked by us. The object and purpose of forts and battleships is to enable us to give such provocation or to become aggressors. But we cannot do this without changing our character and entering the lists with other military nations.

What we shall become in the course of another hundred years after we have got ourselves in readiness "to meet the world in arms," as the blatherskites are always saying, we may dimly infer from the antics of the present Congress. This collection of demagogues, the most dangerous we have had since the civil war, and rapidly becoming the most odious, has been in session three months, and during that time has put itself in fighting attitude three times. Although we have no army, no navy, no fortifications, although we have a Treasury deficit and have been near to suspension and the silver standard, this Congress has "stood behind Cleveland" in his unnecessary quarrel with Great Britain, has threatened Turkey and denounced Europe for not dismembering her, and is now threatening Spain about a matter which does not concern us, under pretence of a regard for humanity. If all this is done in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry? If this is the measure of our common sense when we have neither soldiers, ships, forts, nor money, what will happen when we have all of them?

Of one thing we may be sure—militarism, if we adopt it, will have a profound influence on the national character, and the effect will be less wholesome than it is among the military nations of the Old World, where each is under the restraints imposed by strong neighbors. The balance of power exists expressly to prevent any one of them from playing the part of a bully toward the others. We have no strong neighbors, and accordingly we are under the temptation to drop good manners in our dealings with other countries. We have had some recent specimens of such insolence which lead us to apprehend more. Unfortunately we can say things as a nation which, if said by one European Power to another, would cause armies to be mobilized. This is a misfortune to us because it deteriorates the national character, multiplies bad manners in private circles, and creates lawlessness at home, of which we already have an over-supply. It is impossible to say what would be the course of the national life if we were once armed as strongly as we might be, but it would be something different from its present course. We know what happened to the Roman republic when it became all-powerful. Rome was forced to be a military republic in the first instance. That was the condition of her life; for in ancient times, says Mommsen, it was necessary to be either the hammer or the anvil. So long as Rome had strong rivals, she kept her ancient discipline and preserved the boon of liberty regulated by law. When she no longer had rivals to engage her strength, her militarism engulfed her. One civil war followed another, until she found relief in a monarchy which gave her peace in exchange for liberty. The military republic which grew out of the French Revolution ran nearly the same course, except that the monarch took away the nation's liberty without giving her peace.

We are told, as though it were something important, that there is no intention to use these new implements for any other purpose than self-defence. The intention of the promoters is of no consequence. What Senator Lodge is looking for is the votes of unreflecting persons and the applause of other Jingoes like himself. The question is not what is intended by these preparations, but what they are adapted for. They will stay after Mr. Lodge is gone. He will disappear like an *ignis fatuus* in due time. The Roman legions were not recruited and drilled to butcher their own citizens, but they were found well suited to that purpose when they had no foreign foe to exercise their weapons upon. We do not apprehend anything of that kind here. We dread the reflex influence of militarism upon the national character, the transformation of a peace-loving people into a nation of swaggerers ever ready to take offence, prone to create difficulties, eager to shed blood, and taking all sorts of occasions to bring the Christian religion to shame under pretence of vindicating the rights of humanity in some other country. Depend upon it, this means putting the United States on a new pathway and altering the national character for the worse. Three months ago, nobody could have imagined such an outlook, and if anybody had predicted it, he would have been considered mad.

GOOD AMERICAN SALVATION.

MR. DEPEW, who has a remarkable gift for putting the gist of a complicated subject into a few terse, graphic words, says of the troubles in the Salvation Army:

> "Americans want to get their salvation by way of Bunker Hill and Faneuil Hall and the old gun at Lexington, instead of by way of London. If they can't get it that way, they'd just run their chances of getting to heaven."

It is well that this should be said "right here" before the controversy over Ballington Booth's withdrawal from the Army goes any further, for it brings our thinkers face to face with the question, "Do we want English salvation or American salvation?" That is the fundamental issue in the controversy. Certain persons, who are prone to take an un-American view of every international complication which arises between us and Great Britain, have been trying to shift the issue by saying that the real question is whether or not Ballington Booth is guilty of insubordination in refusing to relinquish command of the American branch of the Salvation Army and return to England for orders. It is not worth while to pay much attention to persons of this calibre. Anybody who will hold that discipline is of

more importance in a Salvation Army than patriotism, is not a good American, whatever else he may be. He would prefer to have his Salvation by way of London rather than through the old gun at Lexington, and the American republic has no use for him.

It is the utter failure of Gen. Booth, the head at once of the Booth family and the Salvation Army, to comprehend the American view which has precipitated the present troubles. Ballington Booth, as Commander of the American branch of the Army, has cut away from British usages in Salvation campaigning and has Americanized his force. His British censors make this the ground of their demand for his removal. He has raised the Army here from poverty to such affluence that it has paid off thousands of dollars of debt and has sent thousands of dollars to other branches of the Army in Europe. He and his family not only live comfortably in their own house, but many of his subordinate officers have been acquiring homes of their own on the instalment plan, others have been coursing luxuriously about on bicycles, either owned or hired, and one has been riding from post to post with a horse and buggy owned by himself. Furthermore, Commander Booth has induced many wealthy persons to become interested in the Army to such an extent that they have become "Auxiliaries"—that is, persons outside of its ranks who contribute regularly to its support. These have been so generous that the Army has been able to erect a fine building as headquarters in this city, and one of the demands on Commander Booth is that he shall turn this property over to the Army on relinquishing his American command. This demand, coming upon the heels of demands for the giving up of homes, and bicycles, and the horse and buggy, has started a wave of true American feeling which may lead to the establishment of an Independent American Salvation Army. Alarm about this has reached England, leading the London *Daily News* to remark that "America may yet have a Salvation Army Fourth of July."

It is pointed out by the most intense Americans who have given thought to this matter, that the usual British traits are discernible in this effort to oust Ballington Booth. These say that the other members of the Booth family, and there are many of them, who have Army posts in various parts of pauper-ridden Europe, have discovered that Ballington has a particularly "soft thing" of it here, and, being truly British in their instincts, they are trying to "grab it." Not content with taking thousands of dollars in good American money which he has raised and sent to them, they wish to get possession of his office and its property and run the American Army in British interests. These keen-eyed critics assure us that the most liberal of the Auxiliaries are "on to" this, and are not going to allow it. They quote an Auxiliary as saying that their money was contributed "solely with the idea of carrying on the work in this country, not in Kamtchatka or New Zealand"; that the "donors intended that it should be spent right here in the United States"; that they "will not consent to a transfer to British control of the property which their money has bought," and that "if a refusal to transfer means a split in the Army, let's have the split. Let's have a pure, unadulterated American Army, with Mr. and Mrs. Ballington Booth at its head."

It must be admitted that this is a good American case. We are surely entitled to have only American Salvation secured with our own American money. We have our own tariff system, our own monetary system, our own boss system, and our own journalism; why should we not have our own Salvation system? We will stand no British meddling, or dictation, or grabbing in reference to our other systems and institutions; why should we in this? It is claimed by the British Booths that Ballington has departed from the original and fundamental idea of the Army's work, which was to carry religion and salvation to those classes of society which the churches and charitable organizations never reach. How British that is! Because they have pauper labor, the outcome of British free trade, in England, with all the misery and poverty which accompany it, they think we have the same thing here. They do not know the blessings of McKinleyism, and the comparative luxury which has ensued to all classes of Americans. Here Salvation and comfort can go hand in hand with no harm to the cause. Our lowliest classes can be exhorted from a buggy or a bicycle as effectively as from the pavement, and we can have great Salvation meetings in Carnegie Hall, with millionaires thickly congregated on the platform and well distributed through the audience, and Chauncy M. Depew as presiding officer and chief exhorter. This is clearly an American brand of Salvation, and it should be embodied in a genuine American Army.

PLATT'S LEGAL POSITION.

No excuse is needed for criticising the social as well as political recognition of Thomas C. Platt by the leading members of the Republican party in this State, including high officers of the State Government. He is, in fact, treated habitually by such officers as an important public personage, whose advice is desirable, if not necessary, not only with regard to party policy, but with regard to State and municipal legislation. That he himself has been cheated into some such view of his position, is shown by an excuse he sent the other day for non-attendance at a public dinner in Detroit. He said:

> "I have not married a wife or bought a yoke of oxen, but I have made an ass of myself by assuming certain political burdens which I must carry out at that time."

He evidently believes himself to be—and it is not an unnatural belief for a man of his mental and moral calibre under all the circumstances—a person exercising important and legitimate functions of a quasi-legal character, who is legitimately and reasonably summoned into consultation by high State officers touching matters of public concern.

It is not to be disputed that the treatment accorded to individuals by men occupying conspicuous public positions, whether in the professions or in political offices—that is, by all men whose conduct the public has a right to criticise, or from whom it has a right to seek lessons in morals and propriety, and whose examples or standards are likely to influence young people, or ignorant people, or to encourage or discourage vice—is a matter of great importance in any community governed by universal suffrage. The company kept by any public officer, or any prominent judge or lawyer or minister, or any conspicuous person whose name in the popular eye stands for a good cause, or is closely connected with some great public interest, is therefore a matter of serious and legitimate public concern. It means to the world at large approval or disapproval of some course of action or line of life, and, as such, is likely to have marked though unseen effects on popular morals, both in politics and society.

Thomas C. Platt follows a trade of which no one of whom we have yet heard denies the criminality. If it were proposed at a constitutional convention to create a State office charged with the work he does, it would be received with either laughter or indignation. It would rank with a proposal to have a State Receiver of Stolen Goods, or a State Inspector of Brothels, or a State Abortionist. For what are these "political burdens" which he says he has taken on himself? Are they not the collection from rich men and corporations of money, by way of blackmail, for protection against "striking" legislation, or in aid of corrupt legislation—that is, either for protection from extortion or assistance in evading lawful obligations? And is not this money used systematically to corrupt legislators, by causing them to violate their oaths and cheat their constituents by voting, not in obedience to their consciences, but in obedience to another will than their own for ends which they dare not avow?

If this were a lawful calling, it might be carried on as openly as the collection of taxes. Platt might have his office hours for the reception of blackmail, and the officers of the corporations could send their checks to him and get their receipts just as they send them to the Receiver of Taxes. Moreover, he might, and probably would, either publish his accounts, or at all events keep them open for the inspection of any citizen who cared to examine them. The mere fact that although the effect of the business on public affairs is great and far-reaching, touching nearly every department of our social activity,

notably our chief municipal concerns, the business is kept strictly secret, combined with the fact that it is unknown to the law, is *prima-facie* evidence of criminality. Platt is just as careful to conceal his receipts as his customers are their payments. They know they are employing him in an unlawful and disreputable business, highly injurious to public and private morals, and he knows that he would no more dare publish the particulars of his business than if he kept a brothel or a gambling-house. Both of them rely for immunity on the fact that it is impossible to furnish legal proof of his guilt, because it is impossible to show the direct effect of his blackmail on legislation, and he is not a public officer. The Penal Code contains several provisions which would cover Platt's career if he were a public officer, or could be taken *flagrante delicto*. Section 552 defines extortion as "obtaining of property from another, with his consent, induced by a wrongful use of force or fear." Platt does not do this exactly, but he plays on the fear which he knows exists, and, though not in office, puts himself forward as the representative of the persons who have excited the fear, so that the moral guilt is plain though the legal guilt be not provable.

Now we hold that nothing is so necessary to the success and stability of republican institutions as the exaltation and perpetuation, by all known means, of the art of persuasion as a political force. It is by this we must stand or fall. In so far as elections are affected and legislation produced by other influences or instrumentalities than the voice and pen, so far is the permanence of popular government endangered. For some years past this open persuasion has ceased in this State to have any serious influence on legislation. Bills are framed and passed by agencies of which the public knows nothing, and often in defiance of public opinion. Unless all human experience is at fault, the man who introduces and maintains such a system in a democratic state, is a far worse enemy of the Government than if he rose in arms against it as they do in Central America. Now Platt is a man who has done and is doing this very thing. And he does not do it as a "bold bad man," or as a demagogue who, by open distribution of largess, or by winning ways, or a reckless eloquence, cheats the people into forgetfulness of the conditions of political success. He does it by secret methods, which every man in the community acknowledges to be dangerous and corrupt, and therefore criminal. The very fact that his methods are secret, and that there is no possibility of bringing him to criminal justice, should make every one who loves his country and cares for pure government, all the more eager to use every other means of discountenancing him, of bringing him into disrepute, of impressing the children in the schools and the young men in the stores and offices with horror of his ways, with the danger to American institutions of the system of government which he is establishing among us.

As long as he is not only recognized as a law-abiding citizen, but treated with honor as a person exercising a legitimate influence on public affairs, and not avoided as a public criminal, there will not be much use in teaching government in the schools, or lecturing on "Civics," or preaching Thanksgiving sermons on love of country. His success, his currency, his impudence, shall we say? are doing to our political system what all the armies and navies in the world would be powerless to effect. They are shaking popular faith in the manly political arts, in public eloquence, in reason, in law, in all the agencies which work on the human mind and the human conscience, as distinguished from human greed, covetousness, and cunning. Would it be possible to find a young man in the State who has caught from Platt's career one generous impulse, one noble aspiration, whose standard of public duty has not been lowered by watching him bribing legislators to despise public opinion?

THE BRITISH IN THE TRANSVAAL.

M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu, brother of the more celebrated Paul, has an article in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on the late events in the Transvaal, which is the first account we have seen from a competent and impartial observer. He reached the Transvaal from Australia early in December, in company with 250 emigrants rushing to the gold fields, and at Capetown met 500 more coming from England on the same errand. Johannesburg by train is fifty hours from Capetown, a distance of about 1,000 miles. What struck him first was the extraordinary solidity of the buildings, which, there being little or no wood in the country, have had to be constructed of stone or brick—a fact which has rather increased the alarm of the Boers, who, in the beginning, were in hopes that the mining excitement would speedily die out and the Uitlanders pass away. The population he estimates at 2,000 to 3,000 Dutchmen, who hold most of the offices; 6,000 to 12,000 Americans; 20,000 Germans, probably an exaggeration; a few hundred Russian Jews, and a few of nearly every race and nation under heaven. There were 9,000 British in 1890, but the number has more than quadrupled since then. The English and Americans do most of the mining. The Germans keep stores, and the Jews creep into the little crevices left by the other races, while the Boers stick to their cattle-raising.

What is most interesting in his narrative is, however, his account of the events preceding Jameson's raid, of which he was an eye-witness. Certain important facts he brings out clearly for the first time, as far as we know. The Uitlanders have a "Mining Chamber," or exchange, in Johannesburg, at the opening of which in November last the President, a Mr. Phillips, delivered a violent harangue, threatening the Boer Government with insurrection unless it made immediate reforms; and he was supported by the British press. M. Leroy-Beaulieu found three parties or sets in the field at this moment: revolutionaries, with the financiers at their head, mainly English and Jews, who wished to annex the Transvaal to Capetown, and were very hostile to the Boers; moderates, mainly Americans, Africans, and Johannesburg shopkeepers, who wanted peaceful reform, headed by Brown; and lastly all other foreigners who wanted to have nothing to do with any agitation.

By the 27th of December a proclamation was issued by the "National Union" demanding a whole string of radical reforms, and calling on the people to say how they should be secured. A local journal pronounced this appeal too "moderate." On the following day, the 28th, the women and children began to leave Johannesburg, and the crowds of men of the non-combatant sort began to follow them. On the 30th, business ceased at Johannesburg, and the "Reform Committee," composed of twenty-five persons, including Leonard Rhodes, the brother of Cecil, sitting at the headquarters of the "Consolidated Gold Fields Company," took charge of the government of the town, began to distribute rifles, and produced three Maxim guns, which had been previously concealed. The working miners were compelled to take these arms or be discharged. Some negotiation with President Krüger was started at the same time, but the concessions he agreed to make were pronounced insufficient.

Regular corps then began to appear in arms for drill, each with a cockade of its own. There was even a corps of cavalry, with fine horses, which caracoled about the streets showing the fine "hunting seats" of the riders. The women formed a band of hospital nurses and appeared clad in white. Every day, notices appeared in the newspapers, saying all was ready, and that all "the measures which strategy and the military art could suggest had been taken." On the 30th of December, things being in this position, the news came that Jameson, with 700 trained troops of the Chartered Company, was entering the Transvaal. It was then generally believed at Johannesburg that this settled the matter. To the question whether the Boers would not resist, the answer was that "the Boers had degenerated; that they were no longer the men they were fifteen years ago; besides, they were surprised and would not fight, and that, anyhow, the chiefs had been bought up." A crowd stood in the street in front of the Gold Fields office, hearing telegrams with news of Jameson's progress read out from the windows. On the 1st of January he was twenty miles from Johannesburg, the

Boers having tried in vain to stop him. He was to be in the town on the morrow. On the morrow the place was *en fête*, women sitting in the balconies in full dress to welcome him, and soup being kept hot for his men when they arrived. People with glasses at last began to see him on the hills outside the town, and men went out in landaus to meet him. A little after twelve came the news that the Boers had captured him with arms and baggage.

What happened was that he was so confident of settling everything by a forced march and a *coup de main* that he started without provisions and without reserves of ammunition. The Boers were taken somewhat by surprise, but they followed their usual tactics with their usual Dutch phlegm. They joined their colors in small parties, as they got notice on their outlying farms. These small parties hung on the enemy's flank, following him closely and watching him. As the numbers increased, they began to sting him, and when they reached the position chosen to fight in, they began to play on him, their fire increasing every minute by the arrival of fresh men. When they first came into touch with Jameson they had only 400 men to his 700. The next day they were more than his match. One of Jameson's officers, who escaped, told M. Leroy-Beaulieu that the day of the fight they did not see a single enemy. The only sign of him was puffs of smoke coming out of crevices in the rocks. "The minute the white flag was hoisted, men seemed to swarm out of the ground like ants." The English lost 65 killed, 37 wounded, and 23 missing.

The scenes in Johannesburg on the arrival of the news were somewhat comic. At the first moment the mob were disposed to lynch the Reform Committee for not marching to Jameson's assistance. But the Committee sneaked away, after having told a good many lies, just like any ordinary Jingo who has been "hollering" for war. The Cornish miners who had left the town before the fight, with "Cowards' Van" posted on their wagons by the enraged Jingoes, now got the laugh on the warriors. The smart cavalry disappeared; so did the hospital nurses. M. Leroy-Beaulieu's summing up is this :

"The events which accompanied and followed the attempt at revolution show clearly that it was not the result of a popular movement, but that of an agitation set up by the great financial houses of Johannesburg to seize the government of the Transvaal and establish an English protectorate—an object which they dared not avow, lest they should alienate not only the foreigners, other than Anglo-Saxons, who had always been opposed to the movement, but also the Americans and Africanders, who were afraid of falling into the hands of the Chartered Company. That Mr. Rhodes knew, approved, and helped to prepare Dr. Jameson's expedition is generally admitted by the public in spite of the diplomatic denials."

He gives various corroborative proofs of the correctness of this belief, and suggests, as the explanation of the insufficiency of Jameson's preparations, the deception practised on Rhodes by the Johannesburg financiers touching both the corruptibility of the Boers and their military value.

THE CARIBS OF GUIANA.

GEORGETOWN, February 8, 1896.

IN fixing the boundaries of English, French, and Spanish possessions in North America, regard was shown to the alliances which those nations respectively had with their neighboring Indians. Thus it was that the St. Mary's River became the dividing line between the colony of Georgia and the Spaniards, in 1736 (Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' 1876, vol. ii., pp. 571-72). In like manner, the alliances with the natives of Guiana extended or restricted the spheres of dominion of the several European nations that made settlements in that region of South America. The notes following will show that the Caribs, the dominating race of aborigines in Guiana, were independent of the Spaniards, were enemies of the Spaniards, and were allies of the Dutch. It was one consequence of these several relations that the Spaniards never got a foothold on the coast of Guiana between the Corentyne River and the Amacura, while the Dutch were able to settle at several places within that area, even up to the Barima district, and to exercise dominion over it.

In 1768 a New England colonist named Bancroft, a medical man, was living in the Dutch settlements of Demerara and Essequibo, in the practice of his profession. He wrote letters during his residence. These were published in London in 1769. How very slight was the foothold of the Spaniards in Guiana at that time can be realized from the following statement made by the New Englander:

"Several revolutions have happened in the property of Guiana, since its discovery; but it is now divided between the Spaniards, Dutch, French, and Portuguese; the Spaniards, however, have no other possessions in this country, except their settlements on the Eastern side of the river *Oronoque*, near the confines of its limits, and therefore can hardly be included among the proprietors of Guiana."—*Natural History of Guiana* (p. 8).

Of the Caribs, of their chief stronghold on the coast between the Essequibo and the Orinoco, and of their lingering tradition of Sir Walter Raleigh, our New Englander wrote thus :

"The *Caribbees* are the most numerous, brave, warlike, and industrious of all the known tribes inhabiting *Guiana*. They reside chiefly on the seacoast between *Essequebo* and the Great River *Oronoque*" (pp. 253, 254).

"The *Caribbee Indians* are at perpetual variance with the *Spaniards*, and frequently commit hostilities on their settlements at the River *Oronoque* They retain a tradition of an *English* chief who many years since landed amongst them, and encouraged them to persevere in enmity to the Spaniards, promising to return and settle amongst them and afford them assistance, and it is said that they still preserve an *English* Jack, which he left them that they might distinguish his countrymen. This was undoubtedly Sir *Walter Raleigh*, who, in the year 1595, made a descent on the coast of *Guiana* in search of the fabulous older city of *Manoa del Dorado*, and conquered Fort *Joseph* [in the Island of Trinidad], on the River *Oronoque*" (pp. 258, 259).

So far, therefore, from the Spaniards being in possession, in 1768, of the territory between the Essequibo and the Orinoco, that region was then independent of them, and the Caribs, who inhabited it along with the Dutch, were "at perpetual variance with the Spaniards, and frequently committed hostilities on their settlements at the River *Oronoque*."

That Bancroft wrote truly is amply certified by what has been published to the world by Spanish and Venezuelan authorities. Under the title of 'Venezuelan International Law—British Boundaries of Guayana,' by Señor Rafael Seijas, the Venezuelan Government has issued a statement of its case with regard to its boundary dispute with Great Britain. In this bulky volume of 588 pages, there are numerous facts illustrating the complete independence of the Caribs of the Guiana, and their undying enmity to the Spaniards. There are also indications in some of those statements of the alliance that existed between the Caribs and the Dutch; but upon that point a high Spanish authority shall now be quoted.

In 1786–89 was published in Spanish 'The Geographical and Historical Dictionary of America and the West Indies,' by Colonel Don Antonio Alcedo, a member of the Academy of History. This work was translated into English, and published in London in 1812–15. It is from the English translation that the following quotations have been taken. They are set forth below in their alphabetical order. The italics are not used in the originals:

"ARUACAS, a barbarous nation of Indians who inhabit the *s. e.* of the River Orinoco, descendants of the Charibbes. They are very numerous, and inhabit the country between the river Berbice and the mountains of Guayana: they have no fixed habitations, and therefore wander about those mountains: *they are the friends and allies of the Dutch of the colonies of Berbice, Esquibo, and Surinam.*"

"CARIBES, a barbarous and ferocious nation of Indians, who are cannibals, inhabiting the province which by them is called Caribana. They are divided under the titles of the Maritimos and Mediterráneos: the former live in plains and upon the Coast of the Atlantic, *are contiguous to the Dutch and French colonies, and follow the laws and customs of the former, with whom they carry on a commerce.* They are the most cruel of any that infest the settlements of the missions of the river Orinoco, and are the same as those called Galibis. The Mediterráneos, who inhabit the *s.* side of the source of the river Caroni, are of a more pacific nature, and began to be reduced to the faith by the regular order of the abolished society of the Jesuits in 1738. The name of Caribes is given not only to these and other Indians of the Antilles, but to all such as are cannibals" (Vol. i., p. 317).

Mark the precise statement of Alcedo, that the Caribs "follow the laws and customs" of the Dutch!

"CARIBANA. . . . It takes its name from the Caribes Indians, who inhabit it, and who are very fierce and cruel, *although upon amicable terms with the Dutch.* . . . The coast, inhabited by Europeans, forms the greater part of this tract of country, of which an account will be found under the respective articles" (Vol. i, p. 313).

"CUYUM, or Cuyuni, a large river of the province of Guayana and Government of Cumana. Its origin is not known for certain; but, from the account of the Caribes Indians, it is somewhere near the lake Parime, in the interior of the province, and to the *n. e.* of the said lake. It runs nearly due from *n.* to *s.* making several turnings, until it enters the Esquibo. By this river *the Dutch merchants of this colony, assisted by the Caribes*, go to entrap the Indians, to make them labor in the estates; and *they have built two forts on either side of the mouth of the river.*"

It should be noted that *sub voce* PARIME, Alcedo says: "On the *n. n. e.* the Cuyuni rises from this lake, and laves the territory of the Dutch Colonies, and afterwards unites itself with the Essequibo" (vol. iv, p. 57).

"MAZARONI, *Mazaruini*, or Ataparan, a large and abundant river of the province of Guayana and government of Cumana. It rises in the interior of the province, and runs nearly from *s.* to *n.* until it enters the Essequibo just close to

where this runs into the sea. *The Dutch, protected by the Caribes*, navigate this river to pillage the Indians of the province, whom they make slaves to work in their estates; nor are there any stratagems which avarice and tyranny can invent that are not adopted for the purpose of entrapping those unhappy wretches. *It is from this policy that the Dutch are in alliance and friendship with the Caribes.*"

Alcedo's work was translated into English by A. G. Thompson, who, in consequence, was familiarly known as "Alcedo" Thompson. Besides translating Alcedo's own work, Thompson, in his edition, added materially to it, making his own quite an up-to-date publication. As the British-Dutch case is a very complete one, its party can afford to draw the attention of the advocates of Venezuelan claims to Thompson's own statement—not Alcedo's, be it noted—that the boundary between the Spanish and the then recently acquired British possessions was the Essequibo River, "according to the Treaty" of 1814. Of course, the Treaty did not say anything about boundaries, and Alcedo himself flatly contradicted Thompson by giving the boundary at the River Pomeroon. Here are the Spanish author's own words:

"POUMARON, a river of the province of Guayana, in the part called Dutch Guayana. It rises in the *serrania* of Inataca, runs *n. e.* and enters the sea 107 miles from the mouth Grande or de Hanos Navios of the Orinoco. It is the boundary of Dutch Guayana, is at its mouth half a league wide, and the territory of its shores is low and covered with trees. . . . The *e.* point which it forms is the Cape of Nassau, and at six leagues from hence the Dutch built upon its shore a fort with the name of Nueva Zelanda; and a little higher up is the settlement of New Middleburg, surrounded with plantations and cultivated lands. The mouth of this river is in lat. 70 deg. 34 min. *n.*, long 58 deg. 47 min *w*" (Vol. iv., p. 216).

Having said thus much of "Alcedo" Thompson, and having shown that he cannot in any wise be considered as having harbored any hostile spirit against the Spaniards, let us quote his testimony upon the value of Spanish "claims" to the territory lying between the Orinoco and Cape Nassau, near the Pomeroon. His statements bear internal evidence of being founded mainly upon Spanish authorities. Under the heading *Guayana*, Thompson says:

"Surinam, Essequebo, and Demerara, though now belonging to the English (having been taken in the present war), were Dutch settlements, and were bounded to the *e.* by the sea, to the *s.* by the river Maroni, to the *n.* by the river Essequebo, according to the treaty (though they have since made Cape Nassau the *n.* boundary), and to the *w.* by Spanish Guayana.

"What remains of Guayana for the Spaniards is bounded on the *e.* by the sea, from Cape Nassau to the mouth of the Orinoco, which are 30 leagues distant from each other.

"The missionaries charged with bringing the Indians to a social life by means of Christianity, began their work by this part of Guayana. Twenty-seven villages built to the *e.* of the river Caroni bespeak the success of the Calonian Capuchin fathers They have not, however, approached the coast by above 30 leagues; because it is inhabited by the Caribes, the most ferocious and courageous of all the Indians, who have invariably made martyrs of the apostles who have endeavoured to convert them to Christianity. It is true that the ferocity of the Caribes would have been softened by the morality of the missionaries, if the Dutch of Surinam, wishing to extend their trade to Spanish Guiana, had not made it a part of their politics to protect the vagabond life of *the Caribes, who prevent the Spaniards approaching their coast. It is certain that Spanish Guayana appears upon the maps to occupy 30 leagues of coast from the mouth of the Orinoco to Cape Nassaw, but might in reality be said not to occupy an inch; for the natives have defended their independence so well that they have never been converted, reduced, nor conquered; and are, in fact, as free as they were before the discovery of America.* It is lamentable that the barbarous use they make of their liberty obliges the philosopher to wish rather that they should lose than that they should preserve it."

"The most considerable of the Indian Nations of Guayana are the Caribes, the Arvaques, the Yaos, and the Galibis. These are well proportioned, for the most part, are swarthy, and go naked. The Caribes are enterprising, and so cautious of surprise that they post out-guards and sentinels with as much care and art as the Europeans. The Caribes of Guayana still fondly cherish the tradition of Sir Walter Raleigh's alliance, and to this day preserve the English colors which he left with them at parting, above 200 years since.

"*The Dutch have been thought to be much more vigilant and solicitous about the protection of their settlements in this quarter than the Spaniards; for the latter have no advanced posts on the frontiers of the former, whilst the Dutch have on the coast a body of guards, and occupy a fort called the Old Castle, at the junction of the river Mazurimi with the Essequibo; they also keep an advanced guard of twenty-five men upon the river Cuyuni.*

"By means of these precautions, they are not only respected on their own territory, but they overrun with safety all the neighboring Spanish possessions. They remove their limits whenever their interest invites them, and maintain their usurpation by force.

"The natural result of this is that the Spaniards and Dutch live at Guayana not like very good neighbors. They reproach each other with injuries, some of which are very serious. The Spaniards pretend that the Dutch constantly encroach upon their territory, and respect no limits; that they destroy the Spanish trade to Guayana by the contraband goods they introduce; that they continually excite the Caribes against them, and prevent their subjection by the advice they give them and the arms with which they furnish them. The Dutch, on their part, impute to the Spaniards the desertion of their slaves, who meet at Guayana with a hospitable reception, with their liberty and the protection of the government. It is true that the Spaniards have for a long time protected, more from a principle of vengeance than of humanity, all the slaves of Surinam who have sought an asylum among them. They have even peopled with these fugitives two very considerable villages upon the banks of the river Caura, where they receive likewise the Indians who are forced by the Caribes to fly from the slavery of the Dutch.

"In one of the treaties between the Dutch and Spaniards, previously to the taking of Dutch Guayana by the English, it was stipulated on the part of the Spaniards to give up to the Dutch all the slaves who might have retired into the Spanish territory, or to pay their value, and indeed, if this condition was always as faithfully fulfilled as it was latterly, it would re-establish between the two countries a harmony most decidedly in favour of the Spaniards; in as much as this is undoubtedly the weaker party."

The concluding paragraph describes the Spaniards of Guiana as undoubtedly "the weaker party." There could, indeed, be no comparison between the grip the Dutch held of Guiana—from the Maroni to the Amacura—and the feeble foothold of the Spaniards. According to the New Englander Bancroft, already quoted, the Spaniards had no other possessions in Guiana, "except their settlements on the Eastern side of the river *Oronoque*, near the confines of its limits, and therefore, can hardly be included among the proprietors of Guiana."

This is not the occasion to speak of the English connection with Guiana. It will be noted, however, that both Bancroft and "Alcedo" Thompson make mention of the tradition preserved among the Caribs of the coming to Guiana of Sir Walter Raleigh and of the flag he left with them. There is, in the Public Record Office, London, an official letter from Captain Thompson of the Royal Navy, who governed the colonies when they were taken from the Dutch in 1781, in which he reported to Lord George Germain, then a principal secretary of state, about the newly captured settlements. Therein Captain Thompson said that Sir Walter Raleigh, "in his expedition up the Oroonoko after the city Manon del Dorado and the golden lake of Parima, got by some creek into Cajonie [Cuyuni] and Essequebo Rivers, where he stimulated the Carribee Indians against the Spaniards, exchanged with them presents and a flag, assuring them he would return—which flag and tradition the Indians retain to this day, *as well as their unconquerable aversion to the Spaniards.*" Mark the concluding statement, here italicised.

The foregoing authorities testify to the fact that, when Great Britain came into possession of the Dutch settlements to the east of the Orinoco, Spain did not occupy—had not occupied—any part of the lands where the Caribs dwelt, and did not exercise any dominion over that region. It is clear that the rules of international law quoted by Dr. Seijas on page 182 of the 'Statement of Venezuela's Case' apply forcibly to the case of the Carib allies of Holland. Were there not the rights of possession, occupation, and the exercise of dominion? Surely the following should, in view of the historical facts above set forth, be enough to justify the title of Holland and of Great Britain in succession to the lands of Guiana between the Moruca and the Amacura:

"Now, as regards the Indians of this Continent, it is a well known fact that no European nation has ever looked upon them as a State, and for this reason *there was no obstacle to occupying the lands which they possessed.* Even as regards the United States, who were in the habit of buying them, the most modern publicists are of opinion that they have a legitimate and indisputable right of dominion over all lands occupied by the Indian tribes situated on the frontiers of the thirteen States that established the Republic. . . .

"It is necessary furthermore to bear in mind that all things included in a country belong to the nation, and as only she or the person in whom she has deposited her rights is authorized to dispose of these things, if places uncultivated or deserted have been left in the country, no one has the right to take possession of them without the consent of the nation. Although she may not actually use them these places are none the less her property; it is her interest to preserve them for future use, and she is responsible to no one for the manner in which she may use her property" ('Venezuelan International Law,' p. 182.)

N. DARNELL DAVIS.

GRUCKER'S LESSING.

PARIS, February 13, 1896.

FOREIGN literature cannot be said to be neglected at the present moment in France; English novels are translated; we hear constantly of Ibsen, of Annunzio. But since the war of 1870, little has been heard of Germany and of German literature. We have become Wagnerian, but it seems as if the domain of music had no frontiers. The German language is taught in our colleges, but very few German books are read or translated. In our universities (I ought rather to say our faculties) there are a few eminent men who give lectures on German literature, but they give them before a very sparse public. Nancy, the capital of Lorraine, has such a *Faculté*, whose lectures on foreign literature are given by M. Grucker, a native of Alsace, who emigrated after the war from Strasbourg to Nancy. M. Grucker pub-

lished in 1883 an important volume under the title of 'History of Literary and Æsthetic Doctrines in Germany,' which extended from the seventeenth to the middle of the eighteenth century. M. Grucker described with minute details the various phases of the struggle between Gottsched and the Swiss writers, and showed how the latter provoked the movement of literary emancipation and opposition to the absolutism of Gottsched.

We have now before us another volume by M. Grucker, on Lessing. All the efforts made in various directions before him were wanting in unity, in directness; they were isolated and fragmentary:

"It was necessary," says M. Grucker, "that a man superior by his intellect, his science, and his character, a master of criticism, should take in hand the interests of the German mind, to deliver it from all that stopped its march and paralyzed its action; to give it its full liberty; to make it free and at the same time to discipline it, to assure everywhere the triumph of criticism and free thought; to lay down new laws for poetry and the drama; and thus to prepare the advent of a national literature. Lessing was that man; the work of reform and emancipation was his work."

Lessing was, above all, a critic. Criticism, in the highest sense of the word, was in him a natural function; and his activity covered all branches of literature—art, the theatre, philosophy, theology. It is interesting to note how his mental activity changed its sphere of action according to the changes which took place in his private life; and thus his biography is intimately connected with the development of his critical work.

Lessing was born at Camenz in the province of Upper Lusatia January 22, 1729, one of the twelve children of a Lutheran minister. He was allowed to enter, at the age of thirteen, the Fürstenschule of Saint-Afra at Meissen, one of three schools which the Elector Maurice of Saxony had founded with the funds of the suppressed convents. This school was celebrated as a centre of rising theologians and writers, and preserved something conventual in its organization. Lessing finished his studies at the University of Leipzig, which was already one of the most important cities of Germany, and a sort of capital (Goethe calls it a little Paris, in the tavern scene in "Faust"). Leipzig had a good theatre, where the young student spent much of his time, so much that his father became alarmed, and justly so, as Lessing had lent money to some of the actors and become enamoured of a young actress. He consented to go to Wittenberg, the cradle of Luther's Reformation, which had then a university, but there he became ill, and, feeling that he could not remain in such a dead place, he started one day for Berlin, leaving all his books and clothes behind him.

He was only nineteen years old, he had not taken any academic degree, his studies were incomplete, he had no private means; still, he confided in his own energy; he was determined to be neither a theologian, nor a doctor, nor a professor, nor a functionary—any kind of official servitude was repugnant to him. His poor father sent him a little money to buy new clothes, and he was so fortunate as to be introduced by one of his former professors to one of the principal booksellers of Berlin, Rüdiger, who edited the most important newspaper in Prussia, the *Berlinische Privilegierte Staats- und Gelehrter-Zeitung*. He wrote for the paper and made translations from French and Spanish authors. He began at the same time some comedies. He left Berlin for a short space to return to Wittenberg, but only in order to obtain his degree of *Magister Artium*, whereupon he immediately went back to Berlin, which became for about twenty years the centre of his activity. This period, which was interrupted by a sojourn of some duration in Leipzig, was characterized by the publication of the 'Letters on Recent Literature.' I cite this capital work as representative of this first period, as it would be almost impossible to analyze all the writings of that Berlinian phase of Lessing's development. These "Briefe die neueste Litteratur betreffend" appeared from 1759 to 1765, and form twenty-three volumes. (There were collaborators, but Lessing's part is predominant.) They were supposed to be written to an officer of the Prussian army, wounded at the battle of Zorndorf (August 25, 1758), by a friend who wished to divert him:

"These letters," says M. Grucker, "modestly profess merely to pronounce judgment in all liberty and frankness on the literary productions of the period of the Seven Years' War. But, in connection with works which are judged, the author lets us perceive the ideas and principles which guide him; we see a new spirit, a new form of literary criticism. We are not so much interested by the object as by the manner of the judgment. The critic becomes more important than the writers criticised. We are struck by the independence of thought, the disinterested and (so to speak) impersonal manner."

Lessing says of himself: "What I have to say to people I say to their faces, even if they split with rage (*von Zorn bersten*)." Was it because Lessing was found too trenchant, too unyielding, that he left Berlin for Breslau and accepted there the modest post of secretary of the Prussian Government under Gen. von Tauenzien, who was commander-in-chief of the town? We do not know for a certainty what his reasons were; but he was naturally fond of a change; he liked new faces, new people, and at Breslau he was in an entirely new scene, in a camp, at the most critical moment of a long war. His administrative correspondence took half of his time; the other half was reserved for his literary work. In his new life, among the officers who had become his companions, he found time to collect the materials not only for his "Minna von Barnhelm" (the first truly original German play, says M. Grucker, which was to deliver the national stage from too servile imitation of the foreign stage), but also of the famous 'Laokoon,' in which he fixed the domain of poetry, its limits, its laws, and its rights. At Breslau we see him, after an evening spent in passionately playing cards, reading Spinoza and the fathers of the primitive church. The 'Laokoon' is still considered as a standard work in Germany. Hugo Blümner published in 1880 at Berlin a volume on it in which he gave a sort of commentary on the æsthetic, historical, bibliographical questions capable of throwing light on all parts of the work. Lessing gave in the 'Laokoon' his views and theories not only on poetry, but on the plastic arts; he explained the differences which distinguish them, and traced the limits which separate them. The 'Laokoon' is the first systematic treaty on what we call to-day æsthetics.

Lessing was incessantly tormented by the need of money. He had hoped for a moment to be appointed librarian to the King. The place had been offered first to Winckelmann, who was then in Rome; but he asked for a very large salary, and besides he did not like to leave Rome. Frederick did not choose Lessing, partly because he was determined to have a Frenchman, and partly because he remembered Lessing's quarrels with Voltaire. Lessing was invited to help in the creation of a new theatre in Hamburg. He writes to a friend (quoting Juvenal):

"Quod non dant proceres, dabit histrio."

He became the literary adviser, the official critic of the new theatre, with a salary of 3,200 marks, an important sum at the time. Of all the cities of Germany, Hamburg was the best chosen for the establishment of a national and permanent theatre. Lessing always had a predilection for the theatrical art; he sketched an enormous number of plays and finished a few. This period of his life is chiefly marked by the production of "Minna von Barnhelm" and of "Emilia Galotti," and by the publication of the 'Dramaturgie,' his capital work as a dramatic critic.

The 'Dramaturgie' has not the form, the dogmatic tone of a treatise of dramatic æsthetics. It is polemical, sometimes humorous, always unconstrained and capricious. At the same time, it must not be compared with our modern analysis of new plays. Lessing rises constantly above the works of which he is giving an account; they are to him a mere theme, and he makes long digressions on points of history or of erudition. Lessing was not an ordinary theatrical reporter, he had too philosophical a mind, and the more he advances in his 'Dramaturgie' the more he shows his growing contempt for the drama of the day and for the *dramatis personæ*. He is writing, in fact, for posterity more than for his contemporaries; and posterity has found in his 'Dramaturgie' the elements of a dramatic school. Posterity has not agreed with all his judgments; we do not admire the plays of Diderot as Lessing did; we place Corneille higher than he did; but we share his admiration for Shakspere, and we all feel like him towards Voltaire as a dramatist. "Emilia Galotti" is the example after the precept. It is a tragedy such as Lessing wishes it to be, a model tragedy; different from the French tragedy, as well as from the more modern drama. The subject is the story of the Roman Virginia transported to a vague Italian principality, which might as well be a German principality.

Lessing's nature was eminently elastic and ubiquitous; the theatrical critic and the playwright had not quite killed in him the theologian; the list of his theological writings is long. In 1769, tired of the theatre at Hamburg, and always in money difficulties, he accepted the post of librarian of the Ducal Library of Wolfenbüttel. The hereditary prince of the Duchy of Brunswick, nephew of the great Frederick, had distinguished himself in the Seven Years' War; he was fond of art and of literature. In 1771 we find Lessing at his post. His life at Wolfenbüttel, we may easily conceive, was very dull. "Ich verträume mein Leben," he wrote to a friend. He had become ill; he found his only solace in his literary work. In October, 1776, he married Madame Eva König, his old friend, "a distinguished mind and a stout heart," says M. Grucker, "with a very practical sense, loving without sentimentality; quite the woman he needed, and worthy to associate her life with his." Twelve months afterwards they had a child, who died in twenty-four hours, and a fortnight afterwards the poor mother died also. It is no wonder if, in this dark end of his life at Wolfenbüttel, Lessing devoted himself more to religious and theological preoccupations. His latter years were occupied with philosophical works and with great theological discussions. On the 3d of February, 1781, he was stricken with apoplexy at Bruns-

wick. He died on February 15, at the age of fifty-two years.

Correspondence.

THE PRESENT COTTON CROP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The cotton year begins at about the time the cotton is ready to be picked. Instead of starting in January, it begins September 1. The present cotton crop has been gathered, and is now out of the growers' hands; therefore its effect on the locality where it was grown can be estimated.

For twenty-five years or more the planter's method of raising cotton has been to buy on credit everything he used, and devote all his energies to the crop alone. So successful has he been that in recent years he has made cotton greatly in excess of the world's wants. The price has fallen accordingly. The last crop-year saw cotton selling on the plantation at 4½ cents—a price below the cost of production. Those who still continued to grow cotton did so with a view to selling it the next year at five cents. Only those could plant at this figure for a profit who made at home everything they used. With them cotton was to be a surplus crop. If it brought nothing, they would not starve. Cotton is the best surplus crop to grow. It is not perishable as are fruits and vegetables. The planter can take it to his nearest town and sell it immediately for its market value. He does not, as in the case of vegetables, have to ship and await the returns from the market with the usual discounts deducted on the account sales for decay. As a result of the method necessary for growing the present crop, there has been a shortage in the number of bales amounting to about 33⅓ per cent. compared with the previous year.

The business of the country stores has been on the wane for three years. Only a minimum amount of dry goods, clothing, boots, and shoes has been sold; what business there was, being principally in staple groceries. Many people, especially the negroes, were nearly naked and bare-footed. "Free silver" was discussed in the shade of fence corners while in the field. The value of cotton, it was decided, depended not so much on supply and demand as on the price of silver. "Silver and cotton were wedded" and went hand in hand in price. Cotton opened up the season at eight cents, a figure nearly twice as large as the grower expected to realize. The people had done little "trading" for three years. With their first cotton money, they swarmed to the country stores like a consuming cloud of locusts. They swept the counters clean. The wholesale houses of the cities worked day and night and yet fell many days behind their orders. Business held its extraordinary proportions until late in November, when it fell off, although still remaining very large. "Free silver," instead of being the absorbing topic, almost entirely vanished. The deposits of the country banks doubled and often trebled. Rents rose and lands increased in value.

Many people fear the South will go back to the old system of "all cotton," and that the immediate benefits caused by the low price of cotton, viz., diversification of crops and growing home supplies, will be forgotten. The large sales of mules and agricultural implements, and the renting of lands that have been lying out, strengthen the opinion that a very large cotton acreage is to be planted. Others believe, and I think rightly, that the "all cotton" system is gone for ever. These persons hold that the very large sales of mules were caused by the fact that, during the past three years, an enormous number of liens have been foreclosed on mules. Now is the first time the people have had the money to replace them, and this they have done. As to agricultural implements, every one for at least three years has, as far as possible, abstained from purchasing them. As a consequence, all have come in the market to buy together.

In expectation of the planting of an enormous crop, the price has declined sharply. This will help to reduce the acreage. The South, however, because of abundant home-grown meat, meal, and molasses, is able to make an extraordinarily cheap crop. The American Cotton Growers' Protective Association is a powerful agency against the return to the "all cotton" system. In their recent convention at Memphis, the central idea was, "Let the people plant all the cotton they will; but also let them grow the supplies at home to do it. Let cotton be a surplus crop." There can be no more philosophical or effective way than this for reducing the cotton crop. The planters are imbued with the idea of cotton as a surplus crop. This will make cotton growing profitable, almost irrespective of price.

The South's future was never so bright. Never has there been so much "home money" seeking investment. The outlet is obviously in manufacturing—to take advantage of the South's cheapness of effective labor, her cheap fuel and raw material, and of their nearness to each other. W. Collier Estes.

Memphis, Tenn., February 29, 1896.

LORD LEIGHTON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Chicago *Tribune* of February 16 contains a paragraph suggesting that "the late Lord Leighton must have been very extravagant" to have left so little of this world's goods "when we consider the vast sums he must have received for his works." Firstly, I doubt if Leighton ever received "vast sums" for his works. Those halcyon days are limited to the Athenian, not to the nineteenth-century, period of art. Secondly, it is due to the memory of Leighton, and upon the authority of a life-long friend, to state that more than half of his annual income was devoted to his less prosperous brethren in art. No artist ever appealed in vain to Lord Leighton for aid. Well do I remember that, so long ago as 1853, when Leighton was making his studies in Rome for his picture of Cimabue and Giotto, and before fortune had in any way smiled upon him, his name was synonymous with helpfulness and kindness to those less fortunate than himself. And so it was to the end. It was enough for Leighton to know that others were in greater want than himself—and his purse was theirs; and it was this ever-kindliness and generosity of heart—this first quality—which endeared him to his friends, and which excited their admiration far more than even his most brilliant achievements. Harriet G. Hosmer.

Chicago, February 25, 1896.

A TRANSATLANTIC PLAGIARIST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A bold case of plagiarism has come under my notice, which demands public censure. There has lately appeared 'A Handbook of the Drama, its Philosophy and Teaching,' by P. J. Cooke, Lecturer in Elocution and the Drama to the Battersea Polytechnic, the London College of Music, Science, and Art, Highbury Institute, etc., etc. In the preface the "author" makes a general acknowledgment to the work of his American predecessor, Mr. Hennequin's 'Art of Playwriting,' published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., in the following words: "The author is indebted for much valuable information contained in 'Hennequin's Playwriting,' and other works of a similar nature, which he now comprehensively acknowledges." Another reference to Hennequin is contained in the index: "Hennequin, his definition of a play, p. 119," and on the latter, or rather on p. 120, the only reference reads: "In the broader sense, according to Hennequin, a play is . . . ."

What is our surprise to discover that all the matter from page 117–131 is bodily stolen from Mr. Hennequin's work, with here and there the addition of a word. The last sentence is characteristic:

Hennequin.	Cooke.
Others, and by far the greatest number, must be absolutely reconstructed, the characters altered and re-named, the minor incidents *invented* anew, the whole play denationalized and worked over on the *American* plan.	Others, and by far the greatest number, must be absolutely reconstructed, the characters altered and re-named, the minor incidents *created* anew, the whole play denationalised and worked over on the *British* plan.

Thus, with the exception of a page and a half, the whole of the chapter on "Playwriting" is bodily taken from Hennequin. It would not at all surprise us to discover that even the rest of the book has been similarly pilfered, for does not the author make the same "comprehensive acknowledgment" to unnamed authors as to Hennequin? And to this dishonest compilation the "author" had the courage to prefix his photograph, that we might the better know him, and he had the further courage to dedicate it to Sir Henry Irving. Leo Wiener.

New England Conservatory of Music, Boston, February 25, 1896.

THE COLLEGE TERM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Does not President Eliot's latest annual report suggest a possible solution of a problem which is at present furnishing much trouble to the Harvard Faculty? It appears there (page 271) that the average age of the students entering the freshman class in 1865 was about 18¼ years, while in 1895 it was only 18¾, with a marked decreasing tendency during the last eight years—and this in spite of very much increased requirements for admission since 1865.

This showing is evidently brought about by better work on the part of schools. But, according to competent critics such as Prof. Goodwin, our American schools do not now accomplish anything like what foreign schools of the same nominal rank do. Cannot, then, better schools make it possible for a student to be prepared for college at an earlier age than at present, or to be admitted to advanced standing, and thus take an uncheapened bachelor's degree seasonably enough not to entrench upon the time that should be devoted to purely professional study? Even at present, under favorable circumstances, a student may be ready to begin the practice of a profession at from twenty-three to twenty-five. That, surely, is

as young as the public cares to have its doctors and lawyers. G. W. LATHAM.

AUBURN, N. Y., February 29, 1896.

"CARRY," AS A NOUN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I happen just now to be working upon the MSS. of one Alexander Henry, Jr., a fur-trader of the N. W. Co., whose journal extends from 1799 to 1814. *Portage* and its equivalents occur so incessantly in this narrative that I am sometimes put to it for synonyms to vary the monotony of these locutions. The same will be found the case with all the narratives of voyaging on the old trade routes in British America, where the highways were invariably waterways, usually with repeated interruptions to canoe navigation. I think it most probable that *portage*, as a French word for any place where the canoe and its load had to be taken out of the water, and for the act of such land-transportation, was used by the voyageurs from the very beginning of finding the obstructions and doing the thing; and that it passed into English unchanged as soon as it fell upon English ears. Also, that it could not have been long before *carrying-place* suggested itself spontaneously as an English translation of the word. *Carrying-place* soon appeared as a phrase, *Carrying Place*, capitalized as a locative geographical term. It was so common as to be often abbreviated C. P. in itineraries; C. P. being of frequent occurrence, for example, in the inedited MSS. of David Thompson, before and after 1799. *Carry*, verb, translated *portager* from the start; and *carry*, noun, would be likely to assert itself immediately, for both the place and the act. The 'Century Dictionary' rightly gives *carry*, n., for the place and for the act, without remark; but enters no *carrying-place*. I have not hesitated to use also *carriage*, for the act.

Those old voyageurs had a full French vocabulary of their business, and all the terms got English translations in their special senses, in the H. B. Co., N. W. Co., X. Y. Co., and other associations of fur-traders. One of the most special is *discharge*, from F. *décharge*, as distinguished from *carry=portage*. The *discharge* was a carry where only a part of the freight had to be unloaded, the rest of the cargo and the canoe being floated through; also, the act of so doing was a *discharge*. If the thus lightened canoe had to be let down rapids with a rope, it was said to be *handed down;* to pull it up with a rope was to *track*—what we call *cordelling*, out West, though I do not think I have found *to cordel* among the writers in English who were so closely associated with the French voyageurs. Those people went so constantly by water that they had a number of terms we consider applicable only to land-travel. Thus, they *marched* when they paddled their canoes, and extra good time was made *at a trot*. But I have occupied too much space already for some samples of a curious vocabulary which could be displayed to advantage only in several columns of the *Nation*.

ELLIOTT COUES.

WASHINGTON, February 27, 1896.

"HIRED MEN AND WOMEN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To inquire into the origin and use of the terms "hired girls" and "hired men" seems to me like inquiring into the origin of the English language! As soon as men and women are "hired," of course the term would be used. It can be found in old wills, contracts, and in the early town and church records of Maine, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. I have found it in old family letters and the earliest almanacs, and considered it so inevitable that I should not remember it if it were not associated with some misdemeanor. From the earliest times, there were "apprentices" and "hired men," and later, "slaves."

I cannot here quote papers, but I remember that Harlakenden Symonds of Ipswich, son of the Deputy Governor of Massachusetts, born, I think, in 1623 (who was once up before the authorities for some such heinous offence as driving his "ox or his ass" to pasture on Sunday), made use in a letter elsewhere quoted of the phrase "hired man" in connection with that event. There were "hired men" and "hired women" on my grandfather's farm in Kensington, N. H., long before the Revolution, and probably would be to-day if men could be "hired" on any terms to go into a "far country." CAROLINE H. DALL.

WASHINGTON, D. C., Feb. 27, 1896.

Notes.

THE Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, have in press the fourth volume of 'Sketches of War History, 1861-65,' edited by W. H. Chamberlin for the Ohio Commandery of the Loyal Legion; and 'Queen Móo and the Egyptian Sphinx,' by Dr. Augustus Le Plongeon.

The Levytype Co., Philadelphia, will publish this month 'Cuba and the Cubans,' translated by Laura Guiteras from the eighth edition of Raimundo Cabrera's 'Cuba y sus Jueces,' with numerous illustrations and a map of the island.

A. Blanck, No. 4 West Twenty-eighth Street, will publish immediately 'Sarah Bernhardt, Artist and Woman,' by A. L. Renner, with numerous illustrations.

A volume of Verses by Miss Mary Wright Plummer, of Brooklyn, N. Y., is on the point of being issued in an edition of 300 copies by Messrs. Paul Lemperly, F. A. Hilliard, and Frank E. Hopkins—associates as widely separated in residence as Cleveland and New York. Orders may be sent to Mr. Hopkins at the De Vinne Press, 12 Lafayette Place, where the volume will be manufactured.

Among the attractive serial reprints we note the progress of Balzac's "Comédie Humaine," edited by George Saintsbury, with two volumes, 'Ursule Mirouët' and 'The Quest of the Absolute' (London: Dent; New York: Macmillan); the "Temple Shakspere," with 'Coriolanus' and 'Troilus and Cressida' (same publishers); and Kingsley's stories, with 'Water Babies' (Macmillan).

After an interval of seven years, Drs. Lindley and Widney have prepared a renovated (third) edition of their 'California of the South' (Appletons). In this period the lower part of the State has undergone great changes, with marked progress, in spite of "booms" that collapsed. Los Angeles, for example, has increased its population from 50,000 to 80,000, equal to that of Boston sixty years ago. New settlements have sprung up demanding recognition for the sake of tourist, invalid, and investor. In every way, in short, the old information needed to be corrected and supplemented, and this has been done by rewriting and not by simple patching of stereotype plates.

With much labor and accurate historical investigation, Mr. William S. Appleton of Boston has recovered the names of the 848 Senators in the first fifty Congresses, and conveniently displayed them in folded tables entitled 'A Century of the Senate of the United States' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.; New York: Putnams). It appears that the first half-century is a closed book, as no Senator of that period is now living, or indeed of the next decade, except that three Senators of the Thirtieth Congress survive; and these with four others are the only ones who sat in the Senate before March 4, 1861. Benton's term of fifteen Congresses has not been equalled. The great majority of the names are now quite forgotten, and this tradition is notoriously in a fair way to be maintained. Ten Senators and one Senator-elect (Garfield) were also Presidents; fourteen were Presidents *in petto* and defeated candidates. The end of each term is marked by a star, and deaths, resignations, expulsions, and unseatings are also indicated. If each State had received a number to be repeated in each column, reference would have been greatly facilitated; and we are even so unreasonable as to wish that the blank space in the chart had been employed for an alphabetical list of the 848, with full name and with State affixed.

The 'Catalogue of the Fossil Fishes in the British Museum (Natural History), Part III.,' by Arthur Smith Woodward, F.G.S., F.Z.S., is one of the most important scientific publications of the year just elapsed. It is indispensable to all palæontologists or geologists who have to do with the fossils of these vertebrates. It includes the Actinopterygian Teleostomi of the orders Chondrostei (concluded), Protospondyli, Aetheospondyli, and Isospondyli (in part). According to the preface, it carries us through the great series of the Actinopterygian Fishes of the Chondrostean type, and completes the Catalogue to the end of the Jurassic series, including also some of the later survivors of these older forms. In approximation to the natural order, it traces the phases of development and the variations of these Mesozoic fishes at the time of their dominance, and as they were gradually replaced in the Cretaceous by advances toward modern teleostean types. The work is not merely a catalogue; it contains a great amount of important new matter, resulting from the author's researches during the four years that have passed since the appearance of Part II. Besides those in the plates there are numerous illustrations in the text. The book is of the class that does most to render science available, and the many students whose labors are lightened by its aid will rejoice at its author's success.

The Annual Report of the New York Forest Commission for the year 1894, just published, is well calculated to win sympathy and encouragement for the Commission under its new title. It is a volume of 263 pages and about 25 plates, with shapes and growths of trees, logging processes, forest scenes, camps in the woods, etc. Altogether it forms a valuable treatise on forestry. Besides pointing out the best directions for efforts in preservation of the forests, it indicates the most judicious methods of treatment for purposes of income. In connection with reports on the destruction by fires in the State, the needs of legislative precautions are vividly brought forward by means of accounts of the terrible effects of the fires in Minnesota, Wisconsin, Michigan, and elsewhere during the latter part of 1894, by which so many lives were lost and such a vast amount of property blotted out of existence. The laws relating to matters in the province of the Commission are included. On April 25,

1895, this Commission was consolidated with the Fish and Game Commission under the present name, Fisheries, Game, and Forest Commission.

The sixteenth annual report of the U. S. Geological Survey for 1894-'95, Part III. 'Mineral Resources of the United States; Metallic Products' (David T. Day, geologist in charge), has for its object to show the use made of the mineral deposits of the United States, and particularly the amount of each useful mineral produced and its value. It also summarizes the additions made to the known mineral deposits of the United States. As is shown by the titles of the various papers, not only have the resources of this country been considered, but much valuable information has been collected from other countries, by which interesting comparisons can be made. The different papers have been prepared by specialists of recognized standing in their respective fields, and, in connection with the statistics, form a valuable addition to our mining literature. Full bibliographies accompany several of the papers. In accordance with a recent act of Congress, the former nominal charge for this report is no longer made. The edition is now distributed to such as may desire copies through the Senators and Representatives in Congress.

The eighth part of Mr. William C. Harris's 'Fishes of North America' (New York: The Harris Publishing Co.) continues its description of the sucker tribe, with the aid of ten illustrations in the text. The large plates, colored from life, which accompany each part, are in this instance the Bluefish and the Long-mouthed Black Bass. The editor has a good word for the gamey qualities of some at least of the suckers.

When all is said and done, nothing could have justified the recent sensitiveness of this country regarding the confines of Venezuela but a thorough knowledge of and lively interest in the facts of the case. It is not too late now for Senators and Representatives to cram with a view to a show of knowledge whenever what remains of the dispute comes before them; nevertheless we do not expect to see them pester their librarian, Mr. Spofford, with calls for books, charts, or magazine articles. That another portion of the public may like (or ought to wish) to be instructed, was evidently the thought of Mr. William E. Foster, head of the Public Library of Providence, R. I., when he devoted the 26th reference list of his Monthly Bulletin (January, 1896) to "Venezuela and its Boundaries." Nine pages are thus occupied, with copious annotations, and one finds itemized not only the ill-starred Address of the English men of letters, Mr. Watson's cabled verse to the "towering daughter, Titan of the West," but also the origin of the term Jingo, in "the song sung in [London] music-halls by McDermott"—"We don't want to fight," etc.

Mr. James Means's *Aeronautical Annual* for 1896 (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.), "devoted to the advancement of the neglected science," contains a large amount of interesting matter well illustrated, beginning with that persevering and progressive man flyer, Otto Lilienthal, who describes and pictures his own aims and achievements in mid-air. Mr. Maxim too is heard from again respecting his machine, and records incidentally some very interesting and original observations on the flight of birds as well as on the movement of the atmosphere. Kite-flying is another leading topic of the *Annual*.

The Calendar of the Imperial University of Japan in Tokyo for 1894-'95 shows depth and strength in the older faculties and departments and bright promise in those that are newer. In December, 1894, there were 1,468 students in the various colleges of Law, Medicine, Engineering, Literature, Science, and Agriculture. Taking the year 1878 as that in which the previously existing school reached the grade of a European university, we find that 781 graduates in full course (not counting 152 deceased persons) have gone into active life well prepared for varied usefulness. The evident thoroughness of the curricula in the newer departments of science and agriculture, and the happy combination of the theoretical and practical, are striking facts in the higher education as here given. The eighteen pages which set forth the titles and contents of scientific monographs, mostly by native authors and investigators, are also very suggestive. Almost every department of human knowledge, with its appropriate apparatus of books, instruments, laboratories, and observing stations, is organized in this Teikoku Daigaku (Imperial University of Japan). To study this modest pamphlet in the perspective of the past quarter of a century is to understand largely the secret of Japan's life and power on the threshold of the year 1896.

The question of university reform in France, and more especially of the substitution of a certificate of maturity for the bachelor's degree, is discussed with great warmth by M. F. Brunetière in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1. This threatened innovation would, in the writer's opinion, be a serious blow to the free (*i. e.*, non-state) secondary schools, in which he sees, in the present juncture, the "last bulwark" of classical studies. The complete equivalence of "modern" and of classical instruction would be a further consequence, much to be dreaded on account of the "gross utilitarianism" of the former. This writer also argues strongly in favor of a more heterogeneous membership of the Superior Council of Public Instruction.

The latest step in the liberalization of British educational institutions is the decision of the authorities of the Royal Irish University to throw open the scholarships and prizes at Belfast, Cork, and Galway to students of both sexes. A recent M.A. graduate (with honors in political economy) of this Irish University, Miss Rita Oldham, has been awarded the Joseph Hume scholarship of £60 at University College, London; this scholarship is open to students of either sex who have attended for at least one session the lectures on political economy.

In answer to an inquiry made by the Italian Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce as to the necessary expenses incurred by students of law and medicine in the University of Berlin, the *Akademische Revue* publishes the following statements derived from official sources. The cost of matriculation is 18 marks; examination fees in the medical faculty are 242 marks; promotion or graduation fees in the law faculty 355, and in the medical faculty 440 marks; for courses of lectures obligatory in order to pass the "Staatsexamen" and thus be admitted to practice or to hold office under the Government—in the law faculty 400 to 500, and in the medical faculty 900 to 1,200 marks; for printing doctor's dissertation, 150 marks; for the books of a law student 300, of a medical student, including instruments, at least 500 marks. These items would make the expenses of a law student, for fees of all kinds, in round numbers, 1,300 marks, while those of a medical student would be about twice as much. In Erlangen and Giessen they are estimated respectively at 1,200 and 1,300 marks for a law student, and at 2,200 and 2,500 marks for a medical student, and this is probably the average for other German universities. To this amount must be added the cost of food, lodging, and clothing, making a total of 5,000 marks for a law student during a course of four years, and 7,600 to 8,000 marks for a medical student during a course of four and a half years. The entire expenses of a student of civil engineering during a course of four years are about 6,000 marks; those of a student in the philosophical faculty during a three years' course of study are considerably less. Indigent young men are exempted from fees by presenting a proper certificate from the authorities of their native place, and in some cases are even furnished with a "Freitisch," or free dinner.

At the beginning of the present year there were 16,606 students at the Russian universities, divided as follows: Moscow 3,888, St. Petersburg 2,625, Kiev 2,244, Helsingfors (Finland) 1,875, Dorpat 1,654, Warsaw 1,335, Kharkov 1,200, Kazan 825, Odessa 555, and Tomsk 405.

Hermann Sudermann, whose novels have been found by some to be rather uninteresting reading, but who has some force and vigor as a writer of plays, has just begun a series of little dramas, in one act, in which he proposes to study "how men behave some hours before going to certain death." He has just read some scenes from the first of these dramas at a meeting of representatives of the Berlin press. From a sketch of the play given in the *Tageblatt* one receives an impression which at this distance is less than overwhelming The play does not come to any real conclusion, nor does it seem to treat with thoroughness the problem which the writer set for himself. But the journalists to whom it was read appear to have been satisfied, and they applauded the reader vigorously.

Lemcke & Buechner send us the first number (for January, 1896) of the *Centralblatt für Anthropologie, Ethnologie und Urgeschichte*; the editor being Dr. G. Buschan, and the German publisher Max Müller at Breslau. It is another of the numerous publications designed to keep specialists in touch with what is being done in their lines, through bibliography and reviews embracing the products of all languages. Each number will also contain a short original contribution. There are 112 signed notices, or *précis*, in this number. These are followed by two reports of anthropological meetings and conventions, a list of lectures announced to be delivered in the high schools of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, and a *Chronik*.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February contains an account of the towns of northern Mongolia by Dr. A. Markoff, who was attached to one of those "commercial expeditions which are often dispatched by rich Russian merchants to inquire into the markets of Asia." His forecasts of the future of the trade between this region and Russia are not very encouraging, as Japan, "whose aim is to destroy the foreign trade," is seriously threatening its existence. In view of the danger to "European trade and Christian principles," an alliance is earnestly advocated between Great Britain and Russia—the greatest naval and the greatest military Power—an alliance which would also be "the surest guarantee of European peace." There is also in this number a useful map of the boundary lines of British Guiana.

—Although *Scribner's Magazine* for the current month is by no means a bad number to kill time with, there is—barring discussion of the instalment of Mr. Barrie's "Sentimental Tommy"—little or nothing in it to detain attention or call forth serious comment. Illustration and text are fairly well matched in value throughout, the balance inclining, perhaps, in favor of the former. Carnations, whether "firsts," "extras," or "fancies," or however prettily diversified their grouping, look uncommonly alike in process-pictures, even when these are printed in blue, and it needs an unusually lively interest in their growing and marketing to bear one out to the end of the space allotted them in the letter-press. "Florentine Villas" are, each in particular, a charming subject for either illustrator or writer to dilate upon, yet the chances are many to one that, if passed in summary review, their history or structural features, rather than their peculiar charm, will, as happens here, find a way into picture and page. H. C. Bunner's sketch of "The Lost Child" sets out with a promising flourish of circumstantiality and novelty, but wanes by degrees into a slightness which is not to be covered up by either the general readableness of the whole or a final, sentimentally arranged peep at suburban trampdom. Miss Mary Cassatt has been given the frontispiece for her "Child Picking Fruit," and William Walton for critic and commentator. For the profit of this number's contents to the reader, it is probably safe to select as foremost Miss Prideaux's bird's-eye view of "French Binders of To-day."

—The secretary of the New York Tenement-house Commission contributes to the *Century* an article on "Stamping out the London Slums" which, in view of the battle royal pending between the base and civilized elements in modern cities, is as interesting as it is instructive. Although Mr. Edward Marshall writes here of the work successfully undertaken by the London County Council in acquiring and rebuilding fifteen acres of plague-spot in the notorious parishes of Bethnal Green and Shoreditch, he is forced to point to the disastrous results which would flow from intrusting such a work to any of our own municipal corporations. His facts and figures, however, are strong appeals to the individual enterprise for which we are fortunately almost as conspicuous as for stupid blundering in our methods of city government. As a matter of business, and leaving out of consideration the saving in poor rates, in the cost of police and health boards, and the unfigurable saving in the morals of a community, sanitary tenements are shown to be a remunerative investment, even when, as in Bethnal Green, a park and generously wide, shaded streets are included in the provisions for outdoor life. In "A Personally Conducted Arrest in Constantinople" F. Hopkinson Smith deals attractively with mosques and Moslems, depicting several of the former in graceful drawings, and describing with humor some characteristics of the latter as he studied them in dragoman and police officer.

—Prof. Woodrow Wilson, besides a brief essay in the *Century* on "An Author's Choice of Company," supplies in *Harper's* an example of the way in which an author may, in his own words, "write himself back to his masters," since both vocabulary and phrasing, in the somewhat freely named paper "Colonel Washington," admit of little doubt what his own immediate choice of company has been while writing it. In this account of the incipient stages of the French war, the picturesqueness of the novelist so interfuses the precision of the historian that there is often small difficulty in imagining that a posthumous chapter of 'The Virginians,' rejected by George Warrington's literary executors as out of proportion to the rest of his narrative, has at length found its way into the omnivorous contemporary magazine. Except this paper, after subtracting the large proportion of serial matter, there is little of significance in the number. Owen Wister's story "Where Fancy was Bred," though laid in the region of which he has become the interpreter, lacks the stronger features of his delineation of the Western borderland of civilization; somewhat more force, although it is unpleasantly harsh in character, is to be found in the bleak story of "Jane Hubbs's Salvation," by Helen Huntington.

—In the *Atlantic*, John Fiske writes about the brave earliest beginnings of our national life, and Henry Childs Merwin about some of the unforeseen and unprepared-for complications that have arisen from the introduction into it of a single one of the several unassimilated alien elements of population. It is encouraging and stimulating to look with Mr. Fiske, in "A Seminary of Sedition," away from the sorrier aspects of to-day to the time when the last defenders of the London Company's rights in Virginia made their determined stand against King and Privy Council, losing their cause in the mother country, it is true, but passing it on to indomitable younger hands in the colony. Mr. Fiske's sympathetic portraiture of the men, Nicholas Ferrar and his colleagues, who played the last round in the match with King James, imparts to this fresh chapter of history from his pen the vividness of recent events. Mr. Merwin, far from appearing as the antagonist of the Irish, in "The Irish in American Life," does cordial justice to their vivacious Celtic qualities, and forecasts the probable advantages of these qualities in fusion with the more sober Anglo-Saxon basis of the nation. Nevertheless, his summing up on the political side is depressing reading. In this connection it is worth while to remark another of the instances, more and more frequently to be met with, where opportunities of observation in the Old World have produced a frank seceder from the ranks of self-congratulatory patriots who believe we have the best possible conditions of existence, in the best possible world. This time it is Mary Hartwell Catherwood, who, through force of contrast, is reminded by the excellence of the dustless, smooth, ribbon-like "French Roads" of the "indifference of a rich nation to its bestial mire," and of the "bottomless ways" through which we flounder in "open winter or wet summer."

—Those who are interested in the theory of Weismann will not fail to study with the attention that it deserves a paper by Prof. Minot, which appeared first in the *Biologisches Centralblatt*, and then in the *American Naturalist*, and has now been issued as a separate reprint. His theory (which is not here brought forward for the first time) is naturally suggested by the remarkable capacity for the regeneration of lost parts which is common among the lower animals, which exists in man, and which has lately been found to be a property also of unicellular organisms. It follows from this that every cell is furnished in some way with the pattern of the complete organism, and with the power, more or less complete, to reproduce that pattern when occasion arises. Inheritance is therefore not an isolated phenomenon, and the idea that a continuity of germ plasm is essential to its carrying out is a pure fiction, wholly unsupported by fact. It is not a special substance, but a special *condition* which any cell may come into, which is the basis of reproduction and regeneration; this condition may be recognized anatomically by the fact that the protoplasm present is small in amount relatively to the size of the nucleus, and also highly undifferentiated. Physiologically such cells are known by the fact that they multiply rapidly. But he who runs as he reads will not find it easy to see why Prof. Minot regards the continuity of the germ plasm as a conception "which we prize so highly" when it is in the hands of Nussbaum (p. 91), and which we should unhesitatingly reject when it is urged by Weismann, nor yet in what way the theory of "panplasm" is fundamentally different from Darwin's theory of pangenesis. The "pattern," which each cell carries with it, it cannot carry in its head; if it is there, there must be some physical substratum for it, and if so, why may it not be called a collection of gemmules? But these are points which no doubt Prof. Minot would very readily be able to make plain.

—Of recent German works descriptive of African exploration and colonization, three deserve special mention. In 'Nama und Damara' (Magdeburg: Baensch) Lieut. H. von François gives a full account of what is known as "German Southwest Africa," including geography, botany, zoölogy, climate, agricultural productions, domestic animals, moral character and intellectual capacity of the native tribes, their religious conceptions and cults, family and social life, political institutions, prevailing customs, and the influence of European civilization. The maps and illustrations are excellent and there is a good index. Oscar Lenz's 'Wanderungen in Afrika' (Vienna: Litterarische Gesellschaft) is a careful and condensed record of studies and experiences made by the author, now professor in the University of Prague, during extended travels in the dark continent. The first of these expeditions was undertaken in 1874 and the last some ten years ago. The most interesting and instructive chapter for manufacturers and merchants is that on "Geld und Waare in Afrika," while that on "Thierische Kleinarbeit in den Tropen" is a cleverly written and valuable contribution to the important subject discussed by Darwin in his dissertation on worms. There is an impartial and not altogether favorable chapter on missionaries, and another on the Congo State, for the edification and instruction of European colonial politicians. Finally, we have a stately volume, 'Adamana' (Berlin: Reimer), by Dr. Siegfried Passarge, who accompanied, as physician and scientist, the expedition organized and sent out by the "German Cameroon Committee" in 1893-94 and conducted by Von Uechtritz. Although the expedition was undertaken chiefly from political motives, for the purpose of enlarging the sphere of German influence in the countries bordering on Cameroon, the scientific results attained through the energy and ability of Dr. Passarge are alone sufficient to justify the difficult enterprise. The clear and comprehensive manner in which they are presented is also highly commendable. Besides several excellent maps and geological and ethnographical charts, the work contains

twenty-one tables and nearly three hundred illustrations.

—A conspicuous feature of these recent records of African exploration is a more or less hostile attitude to missionary efforts, both Catholic and Protestant. Dr. Passarge is especially fierce in his denunciation of all attempts to diffuse among the negro tribes the Christian religion and even Christian civilization. The timely application of twenty-five lashes with the hippopotamus whip he deems a far better means of education and enlightenment than all the talk of missionaries about equality before God and brotherhood in Christ, which only serves to turn the head of the poor black and to make him an insolent and utterly useless individual. The spread of Islam, however, he regards as highly desirable, and thinks it should be encouraged by the European Powers as a mediating influence between negroes and whites, and an efficient aid to the maintenance of governmental authority. The republic of Liberia he characterizes as the "incredible abortion of philanthropic lunacy." In the German colonies the aborigines should have no opportunity of learning the German language, since this knowledge would bridge the gulf between rulers and subjects and undermine the supremacy of the former. Slavery, or rather serfdom (*Hörigkeit*), he declares to be the proper condition of the African, and that it ought not to be abolished. Slave-hunting should be limited and controlled, unless such restraint should prove to be disadvantageous from an economical point of view. German capital is sent to Africa to be productive, and not to be squandered in humanitarian schemes. Dr. Passarge ridicules the German *Frauenvereine* on account of their lively interest in the welfare of their dark sisters. As the chief aim of these associations is to prevent the debauchery of native women by German officials, for which one of these gentlemen was recently tried and dismissed from the service, are we to infer that the author approves of such conduct? That a man of superior culture should in these days advocate such methods of dealing with the lower races is certainly a very strange and anachronistic phenomenon.

DEAN STANLEY'S LETTERS.

Letters and Verses of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, D.D., between the years 1829 and 1881. Edited by Rowland E. Prothero, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, late Fellow of All Souls College, Oxford, author of 'The Life and Letters of Dean Stanley.' Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 8vo, pp. 454.

THE name of Arthur Penrhyn Stanley was once great in the theological world of England, and to a strange degree terrible to the orthodox; but he has left little trace of his influence on thought. In truth, he was not a thinker. He was a Liberal, perhaps a rationalist, but he did not come to definite conclusions. As a religious philosopher he was more dubitative than even his illustrious yoke-fellow Jowett. He was not deep in research. He was not an accurate scholar. From want of accuracy his edition of the Epistles to the Corinthians was almost a failure. His Sermons and Essays on the Apostolic Age were saved from failure, not by their value as historical criticism, but by their power of awakening interest and by the graces of his style. His weakness as a scholar was seen when he entered the lists of controversy against a man like Pusey, truly learned, however irrational and narrow. Stanley's great gift, as was truly said, was his picturesque sensibility. In painting historic characters, scenes, and occasions, he might almost have looked in vain for his peer. Apart from his biography of Arnold, his best work is his 'Sinai and Palestine'; his next best is his work on the 'Eastern Church.' But in historical topography he was always excellent. If he influenced theology, it was not by his theological writings so much as by the humanizing realism with which he treated Scripture characters and events. In this way he may be said to have produced a considerable and lasting effect.

The best letters, accordingly, in this collection are descriptions of historical scenes or of memorable occasions in France, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Egypt, the Holy Land, Asia Minor, Constantinople, Athos, Scotland, Sweden, and Russia. The description of Carnac is particularly vivid and impressive. Full of interest are all the notes of travel in Palestine, with the topography of which Stanley was so familiar beforehand from his studies that he was able to guide his guides. Here, as in the 'Sinai and Palestine,' he is curiously uncritical, and devoutly traces the locality of events which science has long since consigned to the region of myths. If he was a rationalist in religion, in sacred topography he was none. He fully believes that he has identified the spot at which Abraham parted with Lot, and we almost expect to find that he has identified the pillar of salt. About the scene of Jacob's rest, Jacob's well, or the graves of the Patriarchs, he has no sceptical misgivings, and he stops short only at the graves of Seth and Noah. He is the Boswell of historical topography, and distances all competitors by his unique possession of gifts somewhat akin to those of the unapproachable biographer. He describes occasions not less vividly and sympathetically than scenes: witness his descriptions in this volume of the All Saints' service in the Sistine Chapel and the "Doseh," or festival of the nativity of Mahomet, at Cairo. Catholic and Mahometan specimens are equally welcome to his ecclesiastical and historical museum. Stanley it was who discovered Ammergau.

Not all the fleas and robbers of Asia Minor could deter the enthusiast from going to the theatre at Ephesus where the worshippers of Diana shouted against Paul. Not all the risks of a revolutionary crisis could deter him from making his way to Paris in 1848. In the outward signs of difference he was rather disappointed, though he saw tricolors and trees of liberty everywhere, Gardes Mobiles in their white blouses shouldering muskets which they seemed too young to bear, and the windows of the Tuileries occupied by patriots in red nightcaps under the glitter of royal chandeliers, as well as shot-marks and other traces of the conflict. Inquiring into opinion, he found much misgiving about the Republic and a general feeling that it would be transient. His hero was Lamartine—a weak hero, as events showed. He had interviews with Guizot, whom he found inclined, if events had not been so serious, to sit down and laugh over the follies of the people. Stanley remarks that a statesman had little chance of exercising influence over a people whose follies he did not share. Had he said "whose follies he did not affect to share," the remark would have been true.

Arnold, of course, appears. His influence over Stanley never ceased even after his death. Those who heard Arnold's inaugural lecture at Oxford can witness to the truth of the following:

"Imagine that beautiful building [the Sheldonian Theatre] with the whole of the area and the whole of the lower gallery completely filled; the Vice-Chancellor in state; the Professor himself distinguished from the rest by his full red doctorial robes. It was certainly one of the most glorious days of my life. To listen once more to that clear, manly voice in the relation of a pupil to a teacher, to feel that one of the most important professorships was filled by a man with genius and energy capable of discharging its duties, to see him standing in his proper place at last and receiving the homage of the assembled university, was most striking and most touching. The lecture lasted just an hour. It was listened to with the deepest attention, and began and closed with a burst of general applause. I will not describe it because it is to be printed; but every one seemed perfectly satisfied. The most cautious man in Oxford was heard to break into an enthusiastic declaration that the two ideas which the sight of Arnold always, and especially on that day, suggested, were the ideas of truth and power."

To feel the full force of this we must remember that Arnold's name was the bugbear of High Church Oxford, so that the impressiveness of the homage was doubled by its being an involuntary tribute to a hero. A true Christian hero Arnold was, in his death as through his life. The account in this volume of his death is very touching. He died of *angina pectoris* in great pain. "Mary," he said to his wife, "I feel that God has been very good in sending me this chastisement. I felt such a rush of love towards God for the last two or three days." There is something in Arnold's deathbed which recalls, though remotely, the deathbed of Cromwell.

A very curious passage in Stanley's life is his intercourse with Jenny Lind, his adoration for whom seems to have gone the utmost length of purely Platonic love. This was the more remarkable, as her singing made no impression on him, he being, like Johnson, devoid of an ear for music. "Jenny Lind's arrival at Norwich," he says, "made a sensation not inferior to that made by the arrival of the Queen at Cambridge. But it was nothing compared with Jenny herself."

"However, all this, interesting as it was, was nothing compared with the interest of Jenny Lind herself. Her first appearance, except for its extreme simplicity and retiring bashfulness, is very plain and homely, much more so than you would suppose from the portraits of her. She was very much fatigued, and spoke but little at first, and was altogether so much occupied in preparing for the concert that the first day we saw but little of her. It was her appearance at the concert that first showed her extraordinary powers—I do not say of singing, for that produced no impression upon me—but of the fascination of her manner, of her attitude, of her curtseys, above all of her wonderful smile; and although this was all through most conspicuous in the animation of singing, yet it was to be seen more or less always when she became more familiar with us, and when we saw more of her. If I were to fix on the one epithet which characterizes her I should say it was *gifted*. Of course it is not often that one sees any one possessed with what is obviously a gift, and with all the circumstances of extreme delicacy and sensibility of organization corresponding; but it is still more rare to see any one possessed with such a perfect consciousness that it is a gift—not her own, but given her by God. Hence the deep conviction of responsibility, of duty of using it for the good of others; hence the great humility. Conceive a young girl having now for ten years lived in this whirlwind of enthusiasm and applause, and yet apparently not in the least spoiled by it, but always retiring to the lowest place, like a servant or a child. At the same time there were a dignity and resolution about her by which one could easily see at what an immeasurable distance all the evil

would be kept which must be otherwise constantly in her way. 'C'est un don, pas un mérite'; and when my mother spoke to her, on the last day, of her hope that, after having now successfully overcome the difficulties of ten years, she was for the future safe, 'Par la grâce de Dieu,' she said, 'oui.'"

In the United States Stanley, notwithstanding some misgivings, had a good time, found the hotels not bad and the society pleasant. He met the notabilities, Winthrop, Phillips Brooks, Longfellow, Endicott, and others, and saw the historical places. He also studied American history for the first time in his life enough to be able to tell the meanings of Democrat and Republican. "Democrat," he informs his sister, "is Liberal, and Republican is Conservative; and, at the time of the war, Democrat was for slavery and Republican against it." He was particularly struck by some speeches which he heard at Salem, in which the political follies and corruptions of the United States were denounced with a vigor that he would have thought impossible, amidst a profound attention which seemed to him even more significant than the burst of enthusiasm. It is singular that the sight of the free-church system operating perfectly well in the United States should have had no effect in curing him of the inveterate establishmentarianism which he inherited from Arnold, though both of them were latitudinarians, and which he carried to the length of half-sympathizing with a persecuting establishmentarian like "bloody Mackenzie." In America he might have seen the churches living peacefully side by side, and even co-operating in good works, without the state control which he apparently believed to be indispensable not only to harmony but to order, though in his own country it was too plainly leading not only to unseemly litigation, but sometimes to indecent strife.

Stanley's Life having already appeared, Mr. Prothero and his coadjutors have judiciously given the greatest space in this volume to letters of general interest. Yet there is enough to recall to the minds of the few survivors of Stanley's circle his personal lovableness and social charms. If any one could have effectually poured oil on the waters of theological strife, Stanley would have done it; but the waves were running too high. In fact, his own indifference to dogmatic (if not to definite) conviction led him to underrate the value set upon it by others. Nor could he understand the natural alarm of Protestants at the attempt of Newman and his followers to convert a national establishment into an engine for restoring the dominion of the priest. At length he was himself, as a leading Liberal, inevitably drawn into the fray, in which he fought as hard as the rest, though always like a Christian and a gentleman.

Stanley's "Gipsies" is the best of all the Oxford prize poems, Heber's "Palestine" not excepted; but the specimens of his later poems included in this volume, while they show his grace and feeling, do not fulfil the early promise.

RECENT POETRY.

Emerson once wrote to a youth who had daringly submitted some verses to him for the last volume of the *Dial*, "They have truth and earnestness, and a happier hour may add that external perfection which can neither be commanded nor described." The perpetual conundrum, What constitutes a good poem or determines which poem should be called good? never came nearer solution than by this seemingly vague formula. The merit which constitutes it can neither be commanded nor described. Mr. Stedman may select well among his Victorian poets, or even criticise well; but when he gives a course of lectures to enunciate the positive laws of poetry, he succeeds no better than the rest. Even the laws of painting and sculpture are far less elusive. The much derided defence of the ignorant, "I know what pleases me," becomes, when sublimated, the essence of most of the criticism of the wise. "Toute discussion littéraire revient à ceci; j'ai plus de goût que vous." How can the critics be expected to agree about the poets when the poets do not agree among themselves? How can the critics assign their position when the poets cannot? Southey ranked his 'Madoc' with the 'Odyssey' and "Coriolanus," and thought that his poetry was to that of Wordsworth as turtle soup to "sparagrass with plain butter." Matthew Arnold, in his letters, assigns himself a place between Tennyson and Browning, with certain advantages over either. Even in his judgment of individual poems, the author's preference usually traverses that of the public or of the critics. Dr. Emerson tells us that his father was with difficulty induced to retain in his volume those fine early verses, "Goodbye, proud world, I'm going home"; and Whitman looked askance at his one poem which comes nearest to a classic, "O Captain! my Captain!" and did not like to be asked to copy it; it doubtless seemed to him too much of a concession to the ordinary laws of metre and rhythm.

All this is worth remembering in presence of a row of new volumes of verse, when we consider how much each meant to the author, and what a different thing it may represent to the reader. In William Watson's new volume, for instance, 'The Father of the Forest, and Other Poems' (Chicago: Stone & Kimball), American readers will note chiefly the courageous sonnet in which he called England to account for the forsaking of Armenia (p. 45)—a sonnet which lost him the laureateship, as an apocryphal rumor said, and thereby forfeited for him the honor of singing the glory of the Jameson raid. Yet the rest of the thin volume offers little to vindicate the early hopes which Watson created and which were enhanced perhaps by his period of illness; and the final Apologia shows a morbid consciousness rather than that simple joy of living which a chaste and healthy-minded young poet should feel.

A new English poet, C. W. Daimon, in his 'Song Favours' (London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams), has a good deal of the flavor of his immediate sect, and also of that which belongs, ever welcome, to English country lanes. But he also has a stroke that must rather astonish Americans when, in celebrating young English poets, "The Sussex Muse" mentions Richard Realf, and thus curiously mistakes his position (p. 55):

> "Realf I loved too, and fondly hoped that he
> Would sing for me alone, and in my name
> Please all the world, but very soon he left
> My arms to go and seek another fame;
> Leaving me of my latest bard bereft.
> Still, he is dear to me.
> And I was proud, when in America,
> He struck for liberty with old John Brown,
> Fighting beside him when he took the town
> Of Harper's Ferry, in Virginia."

The peculiar inappropriateness of this appears to be that Richard Realf was not with Brown at Harper's Ferry.

The endless love of variety which marks Mr. Andrew Lang has now brought back to light one of the most utterly frightful books that ever appeared in print and then dropped out of it. 'The Death-Wake, or Lunacy, a Necromaunt in Three Chimeras,' by Thomas T. Stoddart (London: John Lane; Chicago: Way & Williams), was first printed in 1830, and is now reprinted as a tribute to a man who combined the merits of being a Scotchman, a man of genius, and an angler. The power of the book in its phrasing and cadences is perfectly undeniable. It is curious to note how prolific Scotland has been in men of genius *manqués*, each of them *imperii capax nisi imperâsset*, just falling short of the crown. Stoddart belonged to this class, as clearly as did the Sydney Dobell and Alexander Smith of a later day; and Mr. Lang's critics would perhaps predict that another name might yet be added to the list. The story itself has, as the editor himself points out, "leprosies and lunacies" enough; and Professor Wilson rated it, on its first appearance, somewhere between "the weakest of Shelley and the strongest of Barry Cornwall," although the analogy to this last author is not clearly manifest. Those who were brought up on *Graham's Magazine* may remember this fearful poem as audaciously reprinted by Louis Fitzgerald Tasistro, under his own name, in that magazine for January, 1842 (and following), with the title "Agathè, a Necromaunt"; the theft being discovered by Poe, who condemned it, while praising the poem, although it beat him in his own line of horrors.

Whatever may be said for good or evil about the various men whose poems emanate from the Bodley Head, there can be no doubt whatever about the high quality of the women. 'Vespertilia' (London and Chicago) offers no ballads of such extraordinary power as those printed in 'The Bird Bride' under the name of Graham R. Tomson—although "The Wrecker of Priest's Cove" comes near them; but the new book has the special quality which it shares with 'A Summer Night,' by the same author—that of making the London streets thoroughly and essentially poetical. This, for instance (p. 43):

NOCTURN.

> O the long, long street and the sweet
> Sense of the night, of the Spring!
> Lamps in a glittering string,
> Pointing a path for our feet.
>
> Pointing and beckoning—where?
> Far out of thought, out of view,
> Deep through the dusk and the dew:
> What but seems possible there!
>
> O the dark Spring night and the bright
> Glint of the lamps in the street!
> Strange is their summons, and sweet,
> O my beloved, to-night!

This lady inscribes her volume "to Alice Meynell"—formerly Alice Thompson—and the latter, also from the Bodley Head, issues a reprint of her remarkable early volume 'Preludes,' with some additions and subtractions, under the general name of 'Poems' (London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day). The two poems that drew especial attention to her on their earlier publication are both here. Rossetti pronounced her "Renunciation" to be one of the three most perfect sonnets ever written by a woman. It has, however, been quoted so often that we will cite by preference the beginning and end of what Mr. Ruskin called, with some exuberance, "that perfectly heavenly 'Letter of a Girl to Her Own Old Age'"—a conception so wholly imaginative and tender as to recall some of the verses of that unique and fascinating child of genius, the Ellen Hooper of the old Emersonian days—she who wrote "I slept, and dreamed that life was Beauty." The English poem runs thus (placed with an appropriateness, perhaps accidental, on pp. 17-20):

A LETTER FROM A GIRL TO HER OWN OLD AGE.

> Listen, and when thy hand this paper presses.
> O time-worn woman, think of her who blesses
> What thy thin fingers touch, with her caresses,

O mother, for the weight of years that break thee!
O daughter, for slow time must yet awake thee,
And from the changes of my heart must make thee.

O fainting traveller, morn is gray in heaven.
Dost thou remember how the clouds were driven?
And are they calm about the fall of even?

Pause near the ending of thy long migration,
For this one sudden hour of desolation
Appeals to one hour of thy meditation.

Suffer, O silent one, that I remind thee
Of the great hills that stormed the sky behind thee,
Of the wild winds of power that have resigned thee.

Know that the mournful plain where thou must wander
Is but a gray and silent world, but ponder
The misty mountains of the morning yonder.

. . . . . .

Oh, hush: oh, hush! Thy tears my words are steeping.
Oh, hush, hush, hush! So full, the fount of weeping?
Poor eyes, so quickly moved, so near to sleeping?

Pardon the girl; such strange desires beset her.
Poor woman, lay aside the mournful letter
That breaks thy heart; the one who wrote, forget her.

The one who now thy faded features guesses,
With filial fingers thy gray hair caresses,
With morning tears thy mournful twilight blesses.

'Fleet Street Eclogues,' by John Davidson (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is a reprint of a book first published two years ago; and it now comes to us in a form so simple and attractive externally, with such quiet distinction of paper, typography, and presswork, as instantly to suggest to the prejudiced mind a London origin, until a further glance reveals the imprint, now quite as trustworthy, of the University Press at Cambridge, Mass. The poetry itself has a more disappointing London flavor—that slipshod and whimsical handling now so common there. Yet the conception is good enough—a long series of conversations, on or before holidays, among a group of young journalists, some longing for the country, some bound relentlessly on toil. Here and there are charming bits of wayside landscape, like this (p. 107):

"*Brian*—Who has been out of London?
Basil—Once in June
Upstreams I went to hear the summer tune
The birds sing at Long Ditton in a vale
Sacred to him who wrote his own heart's tale.
Of singing birds that hollow is the haunt:
Never was such a place for singing in!
The valley overflows with song and chaunt,
And brimming echoes spill the pleasant din.
High in the oak trees where the fresh leaves sprout,
The blackbirds with their oboe voices make
The sweetest broken music all about
The beauty of the day for beauty's sake."

Then we slip into such sing-song as follows, which is at least interesting to Americans (p. 64):

"*Sandy*—And when the soul of England slept—
Basil—St. George for foolish England then!—
Sandy—Lo! Washington and Lincoln kept
America for Englishmen!
Basil—Hurrah! The English people reigns
Across the wide Atlantic flood!
It could not bind itself in chains!
For Yankee blood is English blood!"

Another admirable piece of typography from the Cambridge University Press is 'Esther, A Young Man's Tragedy: together with the Love Sonnets of Proteus,' by Wilfred Scawen Blunt (Boston: Copeland). There are no love-sonnets in the English language, since Shakspere—not even Rossetti's—finer, profounder, or of nobler cadence than some of these by Proteus, and they deserve their sumptuous setting. Whether they speak of longing, of happiness, or of remorse, such poems as those entitled "On a Lost Opportunity," "To One on her Waste of Time," "Sibylline Books," "Morte d'Arthur," and "What have I done? what gross impiety!" are entitled to this praise. It is to be regretted that they are prefaced by the sonnets called "Esther, A Young Man's Tragedy," which are on a distinctly inferior plane, though not without merit.

We cannot say so much for still another superb piece of bookmaking from this same press, 'Fringilla, or Tales in Verse,' by Richard Doddridge Blackmore, M.A. Oxon., with sundry decorative picturings by Will H. Bradley (Cleveland: Burrows Bros.). Mr. Bradley's long black-and-white women, although a shade less brutal in expression than Mr. Beardsley's, are not less ugly; and it will be a standing wonder, a few years hence, that such beautiful typography should have been thus disfigured. The letter-press of the book is a bit of whim, like the illustrations, the "tales in verse" being written as prose. It contains many pretty descriptions, but the mode of printing does nothing to enhance them, except in the few humorous ones at the end.

American critics are now disposed to take the view that, while habits and manners tend to assimilate in the different English-speaking countries, we must expect, at least for a time, "a continued divergence in our literatures." This was the phrase used by Mr. Warner, a dozen years ago, in an acute paper on England in the *Century* magazine, the opinion being based on the steady accumulation, on this side of the Atlantic Ocean, of a body of associations, traditions, and studies of nature which no Englishman who has not lived long in America can even comprehend. Other authors, as Lowell, Higginson, Howells, Scudder, and Matthews, have at different times committed themselves to similar statements. If we were asked by an Englishman to show him the latest American volume that illustrates this view, we should select without hesitation the 'Poems' of Ernest McGaffey (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It is not that the author writes—and writes well—of crow and meadow-lark instead of nightingale and skylark; it is not that he describes Indians and frontiersmen; but that there is a broad outlook as over prairies and sierras, a wideness, as between ocean and ocean, a vast inland flavor, unmistakable as the smell of the sea. The author's very name is new to us—there is no key to his dwelling-place except one poem which seems to place it in Missouri; the volume has some of the crudeness of a first book, but also of its frankness and freshness. Mr. McGaffey is free from the turgidness and imitativeness of Mr. Cawein, and from the self-conscious pose which is spoiling the fine promise of Mr. Garland; but he has the sense of American atmosphere and American life, and produces something indigenous and true. Moreover, what he writes is terse, and leaves a picture on the retina, as in this example (p. 244):

OVERLAND.

A treeless stretch of grassy plains,
Blue-bordered by the summer sky;
Where past our swaying, creaking stage,
The buffaloes go thundering by,
And antelope in scattered bands
Feed in the breezy prairie-lands.

Far down the west a speck appears,
That falls and rises, on and on,
An instant to the vision clear,
A moment more, and it is gone—
And then it dashes into sight,
Swift as an eagle's downward flight.

A ring of hoofs, a flying steed,
A shout—a face—a waving hand—
A flake of foam upon the grass
That melts—and then alone we stand,
As now a speck against the gray
The pony-rider fades away.

To this theory of diverging literatures Mr. Wallace Bruce would not be a convert. With a name of double-barrelled Scotch patriotism, combined with a Yale diploma of Bachelor of Arts and four years of residence in Edinburgh, he is surely that "star-spangled Scotchman" whom Mr. Black created out of another gentleman similarly situated. One of his poems was read at the Scotch-Irish celebration at Columbia, Tennessee; he addresses verses equally to Longfellow and Blackie, and strikes an average between the Hudson and the Tweed. His verse is not inspired, but is what may be called bi patriotic; and perhaps, after all, the function of such verse is as essential as that of genius. Mr. Charles Reekie, who was born in Scotland, is also pleasantly bi-patriotic in his 'Day Dreams' (New York: L. D. Robertson & Son).

It is due to Mr. Cawein to say that he has taken the very best way to remedy his own early defects by cultivating the habit of translation, and especially by dealing with German lyric poetry, as in his volume, 'The White Snake, and Other Poems,' translated in the original metres (Louisville: Morton). The title-poem fails to interest us, but the other translations show ability, and as the class of poetry with which he deals is usually simple and brief, it is a capital discipline. Yet we find still better translations from a wholly different source. Bishop Spalding of the Peoria (Ill.) diocese, whose prose work has long had more of the literary note than that of any Roman Catholic ecclesiastic in this country, has published 'Songs, chiefly from the German' (Chicago: McClurg). The poems are varied, and though he has had the indiscretion of publishing many new attempts at the old untranslatable Heine favorites, yet many are both new and good. Some are from Hugo, too; and there is shyly inserted at the very end this sonnet, apparently untranslated, and well worth quoting:

SUBLIME FOLLY.

Sublimest folly!—from their camps uprise
Two mighty armies, eager for the fray;
The drumbeat rolls, the brazen trumpets bray,
And guns and bayonets flash against the skies.

Now shall be shown on which side victory lies;
Swords gleam, the booming cannon hurl dismay,
The quick, sharp rifle-shots for death make way,
On high the bird of evil omen cries.

Men fall as in the field the full ripe grain
Where bending reapers swing the sickle's blade.
In ranks they fall, never to rise again—
But wherefore the dread holocaust thus made?
That past all doubt man may make this truth plain,
On honor, more than life, his heart is stayed.

In Messrs. Copeland & Day's new "Oaten Stop Series" the first volume is handicapped by a self-contradictory name. 'Dumb in June' is a bit of complaint that would be piquant enough for a verse or two, but becomes depressing when carried at the head of every other page through even a miniature volume; we feel at last that the poet has been dumb too garrulously. The poems themselves are meditative, sometimes arch, always neat, and occasionally graceful; under a more felicitous name they might even have a charm when collected. This is a good example (p. 29):

YESTERDAY.

My friend, he spoke of a woman face;
It puzzled me and I paused to think.
He told of her eyes and mouth, the trace
Of prayer on her brow, and quick as wink
I said: "Oh yes, but you wrong her years.
She's only a child, with faiths and fears
That childhood fit. I tell thee nay:
She was a girl just yesterday."

"The years are swift and sure, I trow"
(Quoth he). "You speak of the long ago."

Once I strolled in a garden spot
And every flower upraised a head
(So it seemed), for they, I wot,
Were mates of mine; each bloom and bed.
Their hours for sleep, their merry mood,
The lives and deaths of the whole sweet brood,
Were known to me; it was my way
To visit them but yesterday.

Spake one red rose, in a language low:
"We saw you last in the long ago."

. . . . . .

'Tis the same old tale, though it comes to me
By a hundred paths of pain and glee,
Till I guess the truth at last, and know
That Yesterday is the Long Ago.

The second volume of the Oaten Stop Series is 'A Doric Reed,' by Miss Zitella Cocke; it has the attraction of some good Southern landscape, with a local coloring quite fresh to us; indeed, her "Sunrise in an Alabama Canebrake" has much of the flavor of Lanier,

while this child picture is graceful enough for Austin Dobson (p. 63):

WHEN POLLY TAKES THE AIR.

A little wicker basket rolls
Along the pavement walk,
And at the sight the young and old
Begin to laugh and talk.
And wave fair hands, and kisses throw,
And cry: "Look here!" "see there!"
"This way it comes!"—and all because
Sweet Polly takes the air!

The newsboys run and shout with glee,
And follow on behind;
The coachman and the footman gaze
As if they had a mind
To do the same; the good old priest
Stands still with solemn stare—
As down the shady avenue
Sweet Polly takes the air!

. . . . . .

And all the while sweet Polly sits
In dainty gown and hat,
And smiles on one she loves the best—
Her pretty Maltese cat—
And softly coos, when pussy purrs,
Without a thought or care
How all the town turns upside down
When Polly takes the air.

'Under the Pines,' by Mrs. Lydia Ann Cooley (Chicago: Way & Williams), has some good touches of local coloring here and there, from East to West, and also, rather unexpectedly, a Harvard class-day poem in honor of the author's son. She has also this bit of terse philosophy, worth more than many that are longer (p. 15):

HEREDITY.

Why bowest thou, O soul of mine,
Crushed by ancestral sin?
Thou hast a noble heritage
That bids thee victory win.

The tainted past may bring forth flowers
As blossomed Aaron's rod.
No legacy of sin annuls
Heredity from God.

'Pebbles and Shells,' by Clarence Hawkes (Northampton: Picturesque Publishing Co.), is remarkable as being the work of a young blind poet, who, of course, speaks of "seeing" nature with that curious and touching familiarity the blind employ. The portrait and biography precede, the latter expressing an admiration which the reader perhaps cannot wholly follow, even if assured that "the merits of some part of its [the book's] contents have been so signal as to elicit an autograph letter of approbation from Hon. Robert T. Lincoln, ex-Secretary of the Navy." Mr. J. E. Hayes's book 'The Old-Fashioned Garden' (Philadelphia: Winston) comes dangerously—but perhaps unconsciously—near to trespassing on the title of a volume by Mrs. Deland; it has pleasing descriptions, a tranquillity as of the Society of Friends, and is inscribed to Swarthmore College. 'Nature in Verse,' by Mary I. Lovejoy, is a rather meritorious "Poetry Reader for Children" (Silver, Burdett & Co.).

Mr. William W. Newell, in his 'Words for Music' (Cambridge: Sever), gives a vivid bit of local coloring in what follows (p. 45):

THE SCARLET TANAGER.

A flame, a wandering fire,
With wavering desire
From bough to bough,
Thou winged, wondrous thing!
Of glad, of golden spring
The soul art thou,
A flame, a wandering fire.

Thy strange, thy scarlet gleam
Will glisten through my dream
The livelong year;
O pure, O holy May!
O blithe, O blessed way
I travel here!
A flame, a wandering fire.

Dr. Frank W. Gunsaulus of Chicago issues a volume, 'Songs of Night and Day' (McClurg), which is, like his previous volumes, thoughtful and cultivated, as well as high in tone, but which has not, perhaps, enough of free and lyric movement to justify its title. "Between Mine Eyelids and Mine Eyes" (p. 86) has perhaps the most of this desirable quality.

The late Eugene Field has undergone the fatality that follows any literary man much beloved and admired, in the immediate publication and exaggerated praise of his slightest works. In this case the 'Echoes from a Sabine Farm' (Scribners), by himself and his brother, is reprinted in costly style, with illustrations—a dress, in short, which reveals the intrinsic poverty and triviality of these parodies on Horace, which might have been far more tolerable if seen, a scrap at a time, in the corner of a Chicago paper. We might then, by a bare possibility, have found some fun in the following, which we take at random and which is founded on Horace's "Persicos odi" (I. 38):

THE PREFERENCE DECLARED.

Boy, I detest the Persian pomp;
I hate those linden-bark devices;
And as for roses, holy Moses!
They can't be got at living prices!
Myrtle is good enough for us—
For *you*, as bearer of my flagon;
For *me*, supine beneath this vine,
Doing my best to get a jag on!

If there is fun in the slang of the bar-rooms, might it not permissibly stop this side of the masterpieces of the world's literature?

To revert once more to the Bodley Head, Miss E. Nesbit, before well known by her 'Lays and Legends,' gives us a volume under the title of 'A Pomander of Verse' (London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co), a fairly pretty conceit, yet not quite substantial enough for a volume containing so many good things. These she classifies under the several ingredients of Ambergris, Lavender, Rose, Rosemary, Myrrh, Musk, and Bergamot; and we close with one of her gayer touches, which must chime with the impulse of many feminine fellow-sufferers (p. 83):

THE LAST DITCH.

Love, through your varied views on Art
Untiring have I followed you,
Content to know I had your heart
And was your Art-ideal, too;

As, dear, I was when first we met.
('Twas at the time you worshipped Leighton,
And were attempting to forget
Your Foster and your Noel Paton.)

"Loves rhymes with Art," said your dear voice,
And at my crude, uncultured age,
I could but blushingly rejoice
That you had passed the Rubens stage.

When Madox Brown and Morris swayed
Your taste, did I not dress and look
Like any Middle Ages maid
In an illuminated book?

I wore strange garments, without shame,
Of formless form and toneless tones,
I might have stepped out of the frame
Of a Rossetti or Burne-Jones.

I stole soft frills from Marcus Stone,
My waist wore Herkomer's disguise,
My slender purse was strained, I own,
But—my silk lay as Sargent's lies.

And when you were abroad—in Prague—
'Mid Cherets I had shone, a star;
Then for your sake I grew as vague
As Mr. Whistler's ladies are.

But now at last you sue in vain,
For here a life's submission ends;
Not even for you will I grow plain
As Aubrey Beardsley's "lady friends."

Here I renounce your hand—unless
You find your Art-ideal elsewhere;
I *will not* wear the kind of dress
That Laurence Housman's people wear!

Waterloo: A Narrative and a Criticism. By E. L. S. Horsburgh, B.A., Queen's College, Oxon. London: Methuen & Co. 12mo, pp. 312 with maps.

THE study of military history at Oxford is one of the interesting features of university development. The demand would naturally arise out of the zest with which educated Englishmen have taken hold of their volunteer system, as well as from the fact that a university education helps to open the door to places in the regular army. In conformity with the modern tendency to specialize one's course of study from an early stage in it, young men looking for army commissions have sought instruction in subjects connected with a military career. Modern authorities in military science are of one accord in asserting that generalship is to be learned only in a diligent and intelligent analysis of military history. More than one course of lectures upon this subject have been delivered by university teachers, and Mr. Horsburgh's book is the outgrowth of such a course upon the campaign of 1815.

His aim, as he tells us, has been to give, in a form easily intelligible to the ordinary reader, a comparative study of the events of the Waterloo campaign, with the criticisms of commentators upon them, reaching his independent conclusions when he finds expert authorities in collision. The task has been performed with admirable temper and judicial spirit. The author's knowledge of the principles of strategy is sound, and as he differs or agrees with one or another of the critical historians he gives weighty reasons for his conclusions. The presentation, therefore, of a candid and competent summing up of the latest opinions in a great controversy which has lasted eighty years, will find a welcome among all who love historical investigation, whether they be special students of the military art or of history in general. American students will particularly enjoy it because the author joins issue, on several of the burning questions of the campaign, with Mr. Ropes, whose book has already taken rank in Europe as a notable contribution to the great debate. They will be able to compare with great ease the arguments on both sides of such points of controversy, and, as both books are full of statements of the ground taken by other authorities, a very lucid understanding of the whole discussion may be got from these two works alone.

Rambles in Japan. By H. B. Tristram, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1895.

BEYOND the allotted period of three-score years and ten, but full of that sunny philosophy which comes from long travel in many lands, the Canon of Durham, whose name we associate with the Land of Moab, has visited the Land of the Rising Sun. In modest and unassuming style he tells us of his rambles over what for the most part are well-beaten tourist tracks. Like the average writer on Japan, he describes "some parts of the country seldom visited by foreigners," and, of course, he "had special advantages," etc. The value of the book does not consist in any novelty of experiences or observations, but is welcome and important because Canon Tristram is a naturalist. He loves life in all forms, whether of plant, fish, bird, beast, or man. His daughter, a missionary, was his cicerone and interpreter. His simple, limpid style makes his ten chapters pleasant and easy to read. A lambent humor plays over his pages. When a native gentleman given to tall stories tells of the growth of bamboo, as discernible between measurements made before and after his breakfast on the same morning, the Canon suspects that clogs have been changed for sandals, and that the case was one of human shrinkage of stature rather than of vegetable growth. There are not a few inaccuracies of statement and some mistakes in the book, but these are of no consequence, for, with the wisdom of the genuine scholar and keen observer, the Canon builds no high towers of speculation on scant observation of facts.

The work is liberally illustrated by Edward Whymper, from sketches and photographs.

Some of these provoke in the reader the delight of novelty and are very effective. Others, though we are bound to say but few, are old stagers upon which the curtain ought long since to have been rung down. Mr. Whymper's fault is that of Anglicizing the faces of Japanese in a way that will certainly please any native Anglomaniacs who may be strutting around Tokio or Osaka—which latter city the Canon calls "the Manchester of Japan." The naturalist will enjoy the book for its many informing references to birds, shells, flowers, and fauna. The Canon explodes false theories as well as adds knowledge of facts. Showing that resemblance is not identity, he pricks the bubbles of rhetoric and science so called. The shells on the shore of the Sea of Galilee and in Japan are *not* the same. Much of interest is told about the missionary and native Christian work in the empire. The Canon, like a true philosopher, believes there is no real anti-Christian popular sentiment in Japan, but only an antipathy to things foreign and to a Christianity that smacks of the Yankee, Briton, and Frenchman, rather than of the Christ himself.

The book has a tolerable map and index. It is well worthy of its excellent ink, paper, print, and binding. The cover decoration in gray and silver, dashed with red, reminds one of a pretty Quakeress with enough color on her cheeks to blend all tints into a unity of charms.

The Book-hunter in London: Historical and Other Studies of Collectors and Collecting. With numerous portraits and illustrations. By W. Roberts. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1895. Pp. xxi, 333.

Rare Books and their Prices: with Chapters on Pictures, Pottery, Porcelain, and Postage Stamps. By W. Roberts. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xxviii, 156.

LONDON is so important a book-market, and has been for 250 years such a place of resort for all who have books to sell or to buy, that any treatise on the subject is sure to contain a great deal which will be interesting to any reader. Such a treatise is hard to arrange in any logical way, and almost as hard to index in a satisfactory manner. The reader, therefore, finds that he must dip into it here and there, that he cannot select with certainty the chapter he desires to examine, and that this desultory way of reading has its own reward. Many curious bits of information which exactly answer some of his requirements will come in his way in the course of his casual reading of Mr. Roberts's 'Book-hunter' which it would never occur to him to look for. This is the good side of a book composed like the present one, but it is also necessary to state that the 'Book-hunter' is rambling enough. The author keeps close to the subject of his chapter, the subject he has announced, whether "Book auctions and sales," or "Book-hunting localities," or another; but beneath such title almost anything may be written down. Thus, in the chapter on book auctions, we are reminded that the first one known to have taken place in London was held on the last day of October, 1676, or, in other words, just at the time when King Philip's war was past, for the American colonists, and when Charles II. was feeling rich with the first instalment in his pocket of the pension which Louis XIV. had to agree to pay him. The chapter on Book-stalls is the natural place for anecdote, and accordingly anecdotes abound in it. The favorite, of course, is the one which relates the purchase of a ten-pound book for "thruppence," and the finding of a rare tract in the sixpenny box outside "Old Brown's door" after the proprietor had stated that he possessed no copy and that it was very dear. Curious if saddening anecdotes are gathered together under the heading "Book Thieves, Borrowers, and Knockouts," but these are in no way more extraordinary than the stories which any old bookseller can tell from his own experience. Under "Humors of Book Catalogues" we come upon the following entry:

"Shelley—Prometheus, unbound, etc.
"—— —— another copy, olive morocco, etc."

A very considerable number of illustrations are inserted in the volume, some of them "portraits" which no man could recognize, but some, also, interesting pictures of interiors and exteriors of shops. Further examination shows that there are a few half-tone portraits which *must* look something like the originals, and one of Mr. Quaritch that certainly does so.

The same author's 'Rare Books' is tastefully printed and bound, and is pleasant to handle and to read. Fifty pages are devoted to the book-market and as many to pictures, old and new. Pottery and porcelain have half as much space, and postage stamps occupy as much space as ceramics. The preface states that parts of the different chapters have appeared in the *Fortnightly Review* and the *Nineteenth Century*. So small a book cannot be asked to serve as an encyclopædia of prices, even of those obtained at auction sales. The chapters are essays on the subject of the constantly changing money value of works of art and curiosity, a subject very interesting to many people, and rather closely connected with the real or intrinsic value of those objects. It is agreeable to find that our author never forgets to insist upon real value as distinguished from price, and the personal character of many of his criticisms, although they may have the air of *obiter dicta*, or opinions for which he was not asked, adds immensely to the interest of the book. The opinions thus set forth will command attention as being well founded and based upon a large knowledge of the subjects under consideration. The only exception we should take is to the dissatisfaction which Mr. Roberts expresses at high prices for rare pieces. It seems to him that a Gubbio plate at a thousand pounds is a case of misunderstood valuation. But the great ease with which a thousand pounds is gathered in by many a "captain of industry," and the absolute impossibility of duplicating, in any really complete sense, the Gubbio plate, go to make the bargain less absurd than the bare statement of it may sound. Why should not the Mazarin Bible bring four thousand dollars? Many more people have the money to spare than can possibly own the book. On the other hand, Mr. Roberts's remarks on the exact amount of good sense there is in the broad-margin craze and the first-edition craze are most judicious. It need not be said that the book is extremely entertaining.

The Land of the Nile Springs. By Colonel Sir Henry Colville. New York: Edward Arnold.

THE literature about Uganda is considerable and increasing, but additions to it are still welcome, especially when they are as well written as the present one. Col. Colville succeeded to the special mission of the late Sir Gerald Portal as representative of Great Britain in Uganda, and it was he who definitely proclaimed the English protectorate. His duties as resident were of the most varied kind. Thus, he not only had to go campaigning against Kaba Rega of Unyoro, who has given so much trouble to every European in these regions from Sir Samuel Baker down; he also in Uganda itself had to put pressure on the wretched King Mwanga, besides with difficulty preventing the outbreak of a new religious war between the Catholic and the Protestant factions of the country. He had by turns to act as judge, diplomat, house builder, general—in short, in the various capacities demanded of a European ruling over inferior races, and requiring all the qualities which Englishmen have shown to so high a degree in building up their empire. He has narrated his experiences and adventures under these circumstances in a very "breezy" manner. If at times the wit is a little elaborate and fatiguing, it is generally amusing enough. Here is the account of his first arrival in his province:

"As we descended into the valley on the farther side of which Kampala fort is situated, I saw the troops turning out ready to receive me; and feeling that I was not looking my best, either as regards clothes or features, began polishing myself up as well as I could, and was just beginning to feel that, although I was not exactly smart, an imaginative man might guess at the possibility of better things beneath the dirt, when my horse gave a flounder in a boggy stream which I had been too preoccupied to notice, and landed me fair on my head in a pool of black mud. Two minutes afterwards, with bugles sounding, drums beating, and the troops presenting arms, I entered the headquarters of my command, returning the salute with what dignity I could, and then hurriedly rushed into Arthur's hut and plunged my head into a basin of clean water."

In his campaign against Unyoro the only reliable portion of his troops were some Sudanese:

"When about an hour's march from the fort, I came upon the band of the Sudanese regiment drawn up along the roadside. After presenting arms (bandsmen carry rifles in Uganda), they turned to the right and followed me, whacking their drums and tootling on their old cracked bugles at their loudest. I wish I could have seen that procession—it must have been a very funny one. First, a big Sudanese soldier carrying a Union Jack; then a very seedy-looking Englishman in an old karkee coat, dilapidated breeches and gaiters, his feet bandaged in dirty rags, limping along with the help of a walking stick; then a small Sudanese boy laden with a field-glass, a camp-stool, and a big bunch of bananas: and lastly the full band of the regiment in single file, swaggering on with that sense of importance which only comes to those whose good stars lead them in the way of hitting drums."

Later he was enabled to add to them some recruits who had been in the service of the Congo Free State:

"I have said before that our troops presented a curious appearance, and although I had got accustomed to rather strange turn-outs, I confess I was fairly startled by the bewildering variety of these warriors' costumes, equipments, and appearance. To begin with, they were of all possible ages, colors, and sizes—doddering, grey-bearded old men, fine strapping youths, and pigmies, apparently from Stanley's forest, Abyssinian, Egyptian, and pure-blooded negroes, and strange crosses of each and all of them. The variety of their clothing was infinite, ranging from the nearest approach to nothing in which a military-minded person will appear before his commanding officer, to cherry-colored trousers and blue frock-coats with gold braid. And then their arms! breech-loaders, muzzle-loaders, double-barrelled 'scatter' guns, some with locks and some without, all were duly brought to the present on my arrival, and all their owners seemed equally satisfied that they were in possession of highly effective weapons."

Col. Colville has not attempted to produce

a work full of valuable information; he has merely written a record of his experiences and the chief events that took place during the time of his rule, until it was brought to an abrupt end by a sudden attack of fever. He has given us a very readable book. The paper and print are excellent, perhaps too excellent. Especially in a work of this sort, one would be willing to have thinner pages, less margin, and even a little smaller print in order to obtain a lighter, more convenient volume.

Crystallography: A Treatise on the Morphology of Crystals. By N. Story-Maskelyne, M.A., F.R.S., Professor of Mineralogy, Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 8vo, xii, 521.

This first part of the long-expected 'Crystallography' of the veteran Oxford professor, treats of the morphology of crystals "in the simplest form compatible with strict geometrical methods," and with such fulness as to make it the best book in the English language from which to obtain a full knowledge of the forms of crystals, their classification, their measurement, and their delineation. It is everywhere precise rather than concise, but for one who must help himself rather than depend upon teachers, and who will master crystallography, but is not able to use German or French books, the work is admirably fitted.

Advanced students will generally prefer the more logical method which deduces all the forms of crystals directly from the one law of rational indices, as developed in the last edition of Groth's 'Physicalische Krystallographie.' Most teachers, on the other hand, will sympathize with the author, who takes account of hemihedrism, or mero-symmetry, as a second law, and so reaches a natural grouping of the many forms of crystals in a way more easily appreciated by the beginner. It is significant of the conservative position of Prof. Maskelyne as a crystallographer of the old school that a second volume, treating of the physical problems connected with crystals, is to *follow* this; in a modern German work this order would be reversed. The definition of the crystals, also, as "polyhedra with plane faces and without reëntrant angles," stands in contrast to the definitions which put in the foreground the differences of elasticity of the crystal in different directions.

After a very brief statement of the physical properties of crystals, the author proceeds to develop the geometrical groundwork for the consideration of the crystal as a complex of planes obeying the law of rationality of indices and the law of mero-symmetry, and proposes many theorems, several of which are new, relating to axes and the change of axes, the rotation of planes, the relations of zones, and the stereographic projection of the faces. Then follows a full treatment of the measurement and drawing of crystals, with an exceptionally large series of illustrative examples. Next comes the fullest and the most interesting and original portion of the book, the treatment of crystal symmetry, and a thorough discussion, from the point of view of this symmetry, of the six systems, their whole forms, their half-forms, their combinations, and their twins. The schoolmen's "Deus cogitat mathematice" is exemplified, if anywhere, in the growth of the crystal, to the study of which the student will not easily find a more attractive guide than the book before us. Prof. Maskelyne writes not as one searching for the shortest methods to obtain the name of a mineral for further use, but rather as aiming to bring forward all the questions his subject suggests, and to devise the most elegant methods for their solution within the mathematical limits he has set himself.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adam, Paul. La Force du Mal. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Allen, Ethan. Washington; or, The Revolution: A Drama. Part second. F. T. Neely.
Arrowsmith, Prof. Robert, and Knapp, Charles. Selections from Viri Romae. American Book Co. 75c.
Catalogue of Scientific Papers (1874-83). Compiled by the Royal Society of London. Vol. XI. Pet—Zyo. London: C J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Clark, Mrs. S. R. G. Herbert Gardenell, Jr.; or, Yensie's Oldest Son. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1 50.
Commons, Prof. J. R. Proportional Representation. T. Y. Crowell & Co $1.75.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 12, 1896.

The Week.

On Monday the Senate showed signs of recovering from the fit of emotional insanity to which it fell a victim two or three weeks ago, when it dropped the affairs of Venezuela in order to take up those of Cuba. The speech of Senator Hale in opposition to the resolutions now pending was the first outright declaration of truth that has been heard in that body. He smote the heap of lies, piled up by Sherman, Morgan, and others, by which the ear of the country has been so grossly abused, and knocked it into bits. He has furnished a rallying-point for the higher intelligence of the country, and he was not in the least degree daunted by the mob in the galleries, who attempted to influence the course of debate by signifying their disapproval of what he said. The most popular untruth now afloat is a statement endorsed and promulgated by Senator Sherman, although not first set going by him, that Gen. Weyler, the Spanish commander in Cuba, is a brute and a butcher of defenceless men, women, and children, an enemy of the human race sent out by Spain expressly for the possession of these qualities. Senator Hale exposed this falsehood in a manner most painful to those who have propagated it. When he sent to the clerk's desk, to be read, a newspaper statement made by the Spanish Minister at Washington, which convicted Senator Sherman of glaring error, to call it by no worse name, there was a deal of squirming on the Jingo side. Objections were raised to the reading of the statement because it affected the character of a Senator—as though his character could be affected by an interview in a newspaper if it were not true. Objections were made on the score of the undiplomatic character of the communication—as though Mr. Sherman were exposed to injury from bad form rather than on the score of veracity. Finally, however, the newspaper extract was read at the clerk's desk, so that the answer to the charges made against Gen. Weyler goes into the record along with the charges themselves.

The cablegram published by the *World* on Saturday from Señor Cánovas, the Prime Minister of Spain, is well calculated to soften the asperities that have been aroused lately by the resolutions passed by our Congress, and especially by the intemperate language used by Senators and Representatives in debate. The substance of Señor Cánovas's dispatch is that Spain considers her relations with the United States unbroken until some act of hostility is committed. While the present status continues she will avoid everything that tends to a rupture, and will suppress every demonstration in her own territory that can be considered insulting to the United States. She has already closed the universities at Madrid, Grenada, Barcelona, and Valencia, where the students have made hostile demonstrations, and will close all universities, schools, and establishments where like demonstrations take place. This repressive action on the part of the Spanish authorities is so contrary to all our ideas and practices that it may not be appreciated here, yet it is customary and necessary on the Continent of Europe, where countries, by reason of their nearness to each other, are in danger of taking fire from the thoughtless acts of irresponsible persons. Reference is made to the false charges of inhumanity against Gen. Weyler and the Spanish authorities in Cuba. Señor Cánovas says also that the insurgents have set at defiance the rules of civilized warfare, have repeatedly violated the treaties between Spain and the United States, and especially that of 1877, respecting the lives and property of American citizens in Cuba. Finally, he repeats what Señor Castelar said the other day, that no government could exist in Spain which should tolerate foreign intervention in the affairs of Cuba by a government which had previously recognized the rebels as belligerents.

We see evidences of some resentment on the part of those who think we ought to confine our hostility to England and not fritter away our energy by extending it to Spain. Admiral Meade is one of these. He delivered a lecture at Chickering Hall on Wednesday week illustrated by bloodthirsty stereopticon views. He had primed himself for Great Britain, and was evidently disturbed to find Spain filling so large a part of the Jingo horizon. For this reason he gave a considerable part of his time to showing that the action of Congress on Cuban affairs was unjustifiable and ill-timed. If we grant belligerent rights to the Cuban rebels, he said, we give the Spaniards the right to board and overhaul and capture on suspicion American vessels anywhere outside a marine league of our coast. The exercise of this right would so exasperate our citizens that it might lead to a war with Spain. Indeed! We fancy we hear Bill Chandler asking why that should be considered an objection. Some Princeton students, with a lack of taste that ought to be rebuked by the professor of æsthetics, on Thursday evening hanged in effigy the heir to the throne of Spain, who is about nine years of age. A crowd of miners in Leadville, Colorado, built a bonfire in the street in order to burn the Spanish flag. They had great difficulty in identifying it in the stock of a dry-goods dealer in that town, but they found something that answered the purpose and they put it on the funeral pile. These students and miners will be much surprised to learn that Admiral Meade is not in favor of a war with Spain. Isn't war the thing we have been ramping and raving for, ever since the middle of December? But we ought to discriminate, says Meade, because Spain was friendly to us during the Revolution and during the civil war. She did not sent out any *Alabamas* or any blockade-runners. Chandler and the students and miners might very well reply that that was probably because she didn't have any, and at all events that Great Britain paid for her fun with $15,000,000 gold. Would you take her money and then fight her for the same score afterward? No, Mr. Meade, you cannot divert us from the Hidalgoes and the Inquisition by any such chaff as that.

"What is the war news to-day?" is the inquiry which citizens habitually ask each other nowadays. On Friday it was this, according to the *Tribune's* Old Pensioner at Washington:

> "The feeling of irritation with the President and his associates has been growing more and more acute at the capitol for some time. Thus far there has been nothing but talk on the subject. Bitter speeches have been made in both houses, and still more bitter talk has been indulged in the cloak-rooms. The general discontent has ripened, and the situation seems favorable for a direct issue to be made, now that Mr. Cleveland indicates a purpose to disregard the practically unanimous expression of opinion by both houses on the Cuban question. By the most outspoken opponents of the President it is now said that if the Administration pockets the Cuban concurrent resolutions, a joint resolution will be passed and repassed over the Presidential veto, and that if Mr. Cleveland still further persists in ignoring the wishes of Congress, the proper remedy will be found in the institution of proceedings for impeachment."

We cannot think of anything more wholesome at the present time than an impeachment of somebody for something. Anything which will draw attention away from foreign countries and fix it strongly on our own concerns will be a great blessing, and we can imagine nothing so well calculated to cure the prevailing hysteria and to cause introspection and searching of hearts as an impeachment of the President. The grounds for impeachment are unimportant. Nothing could be more silly than the idea of impeaching him for the exercise of a discretion committed exclusively to the executive. But that is of no consequence—nothing is of any consequence in these times. What we need is a change of excitement. We have become raw on our foreign side, and we want to be bruised in a new place. Give us an impeachment by all means, if not of the President, then of Secretary Carlisle for awarding the leavings of the bond sale to Mr. Morgan, or of Secretary Morton for

stopping the free distribution of cabbage seeds.

The furious (or feigned) indignation of Western Congressmen over the President's home-missionary address is truly comic. Mr. Cleveland's remarks were but the ordinary platitudes of such occasions, only made a little more wooden and meaningless than ordinary. He drew it exceedingly mild compared with many an impassioned address on the same subject. The usual form of appeal is to picture the West as hotly contended for by the devil and good angels, with the chances decidedly in favor of the devil unless the mission debt is speedily paid off and contributions increased. Home-missionary gatherings are so accustomed to having the battle of Armageddon fought before their very eyes, with horns, hoofs, and forked tail well in evidence, that the President's gentle arraying of "tendencies" and "dispositions" against each other seems tame enough. Moreover, the free-silver Westerners are ludicrously ignorant of Presbyterian home-mission work if they think an endorsement of it means a fling at their benighted condition. Quite the majority of Presbyterian home missionaries are, we believe, laboring east of the Mississippi. Some are in New England, many in New York, hundreds in Ohio and Indiana and Illinois. How do the raging Montana and Idaho statesmen know that the President did not refer to the need of converting the gold-bugs of the East from the error of their way?

How completely public interest in the legitimate work of Congress has had to give way to the artificial excitement over congressional fireworks, is well instanced by the general indifference to the highly important amendments to the legislative appropriation bill passed by the House last week. These amendments involved a complete readjustment of the salaries of United States Marshals and District Attorneys. It is estimated that a saving to the Government of $200,000 a year will be effected by the changes. The labor expended in drawing the bill was arduous, and the task of piloting it through the House most difficult. Yet the men who did this important work, and the whole discussion, in fact, were all but ignored by the press. The Washington correspondents report eagerly and minutely all the pyrotechnics, send out all sorts of rumors about wars, and dissensions in the cabinet, and partisan and Presidential manœuvring, but have only to say, wearily and with an air of huge disgust, of this real work of Congress, "The House then resumed consideration of the legislative appropriation bill."

The memorial of the Chamber of Commerce, addressed to the commercial bodies and business men of the United States, on the subject of sound money may have the effect possibly of helping some of the Presidential candidates to make up their minds on the question. It invites the co-operation of the bodies and persons addressed "in an effort to create a strong public opinion in behalf of an unequivocal declaration by the political conventions of both of the great parties in favor of the maintenance of our existing standard, and of the elimination of all doubtful expressions in respect to the reopening of the mints of the United States to the free coinage of silver." All citizens are urged to exert themselves in favor of the election of delegates to the national conventions who will favor such a platform declaration. An organized movement of this kind by the men who represent the business interests and property of the land cannot fail to have a beneficial effect both upon the conventions and upon candidates. The spectacle of ten or a dozen Republican candidates "standing dumb" upon what is the leading issue of the day is one which is not to be contemplated with indifference. No man can be trusted to withstand bad financial legislation after he has been elected President who has not the moral courage to say he was opposed to it before election.

The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* had a most tempting headline on Monday week—"The Financial Question: Views of the Leading Republican Candidates for the Presidency." At last, then, we said to ourselves, the dumb have found their voice. The *Gazette* went on to say that it had telegraphed to all the candidates for "a clear definition of your position on the money question," and that the replies would be found below. Below was found a telegram from Quay saying that "if possible we must preserve the unity of the party"; one from Elkins declaring that he was "in favor of sound money"—and that was all. In derision of its own tongue-tied candidate, the *Gazette* published a telegram from McKinley perfectly blank; another from the bold Reed, also blank; Davis, Manderson, Allison, Cullom, and Morton—all blank. Such scornful treatment is well deserved. As far as the country knows, the minds of all these candidates are as blank as their telegrams on the money question. They are all your true metaphysicians' *tabula rasa* on which the majority of the convention can write whatever it pleases—16 to 1, or 60 to 1, gold, silver, or lead. If their views do not suit, they can be altered. But was there ever before a party of great moral ideas, only three months away from its national convention, left absolutely in ignorance of the opinions of its leading men and Presidential candidates on the one great question at issue?

Secretary Hoke Smith's wise action in regard to forest preservation is worthy of the heartiest commendation. He has called upon the first forestry experts in the land, with Prof. Charles Sprague Sargent at their head, to make a thorough personal investigation of the present condition of our preserves and report to Congress the results of their inquiry, including in their report a comprehensive forestry policy for adoption by the Government. This is the use of expert ability which we have so often advocated in reference to matters of much less public importance, and which is to be hailed with joy wherever it appears. In the face of a report from such a committee, Congress will have no excuse for listening to the specious arguments of the champions of timber thieves, railway grabbers, and other depredators of our forest preserves, but will be obliged to adopt for the country a scientific and adequate policy which will protect and develop the preserves for the enjoyment and benefit of the whole country. Secretary Smith has performed a genuine public service which will be remembered in his favor long after he has passed out of office. It is so seldom that anything in the way of really enlightened public policy comes out of Washington that one feels like appointing a day of thanksgiving when it appears.

Mr. Joseph Nimmo, jr., formerly Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, publishes a pamphlet on the subject of the Nicaragua Canal which ought to gain some attention in Congress. He says first that there "has never been any investigation made by a committee of Congress, nor by the executive branch of the Government in pursuance of any order of Congress, for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of tonnage which would annually pass through the proposed Nicaragua Canal." This is true. In like manner the promoters of the Corinth Canal in Greece went on without making any inquiry of this kind, and now that their work is completed they find that the traffic is not sufficient to pay the cost of keeping the canal in operation. It is true that the two cases are not parallel, since the journey around Cape Malea is an affair of only a few days, while around Cape Horn it is an affair of months. On the other hand, there is a Panama canal in actual progress, which is pronounced feasible on the present plan of lockage, and which will be in competition with that of Nicaragua. Therefore the whole traffic cannot be assigned to one of them. Mr. Nimmo estimates the whole amount of shipping passing through the isthmus at not more than 500,000 tons annually. He says that in the year 1890 the Nicaragua Canal Company asked the New York Chamber of Commerce to endorse their project on the basis of a statement that their traffic would be six to eight million tons annually. "This statement having been referred to me," he continues, "I found it to be the merest statistical juggle. I have a copy of that statement and should be glad to submit it to an official investi-

gation. In making up their prospectus, the Nicaragua Canal Company appears to have divided the cost of their project by *two* and to have multiplied the tonnage likely to pass through it by *twenty*."

Other objections cited by Mr. Nimmo are that the calm belt on either side of Nicaragua forbids that sailing vessels shall ever be employed on the Nicaragua Canal route; that no analogy exists between the Suez Canal and that of Nicaragua, because the former is a sea-level canal and has no railway competitors, while the latter requires 220 feet of lockage and will have thirteen railway competitors; that all fast freight and nearly all passenger traffic between the Atlantic and the Pacific Coasts of America must continue to go by rail; that none of the commerce of Europe with Asia will seek the Nicaragua route since the distance is greater than via Suez; and finally that "a fair investigation of the supposed political and military aspects of the Nicaragua Canal scheme will prove that it is of very small importance from those points of view." Accordingly, Mr. Nimmo proposes that before the Government is committed in any way to extend pecuniary aid by lending its money or its credit to the Nicaragua Canal, it shall order an investigation embracing the whole question of traffic and cost, set forth in detail, so that the figures can be tested by statisticians and engineers. This is surely a reasonable request, but Congress is laboring under emotional insanity to such a degree that nothing which looks like deliberation, if it relates to foreign affairs, has much chance of success.

Agitation in the South against the homicidal pistol-carrying habit makes slow progress against the prevailing sentiment which would not deprive a citizen and a "gentleman" of the right "to carry a gun." To date there is to be recorded the passage by the Mississippi Legislature of a law increasing the penalties for carrying concealed weapons, and the defeat in the South Carolina Legislature of a somewhat similar bill. The current belief at the South is that the law against the pistol-pocket places the law-abiding citizen at the mercy of the lawless. This belief finds expression in newspaper editorials and in the published views of officers of the law, and now it has been given place in the report of the grand jury of the Criminal Court of New Orleans. The judge having directed the attention of the jury to the subject, that body declares that, although the eleven cases of shooting which came before them emphasized the truth of the opinions expressed by the judge, yet they believe that "the best good to the community can be done by the repeal of the law," and "by allowing any man the right to carry weapons, concealed or not, the right which the Constitution of the United States granted him in token of his individual freedom and responsibility as a citizen." The law should be abolished, the jury urges, because it "does not protect the law-abiding citizen, but the criminal." Only as an alternative proposition, "if the law must stand," is there a suggestion of more rigorous penalties. There is no doubt that this presentment of the New Orleans grand jury expresses the sentiment of very many people of that and of other places in the South—people, too, who would be offended if told that they were not good citizens. It is a manifestation of that lack of respect for and reliance upon the law which has its more emphatic expression in the execution of the judgments of the mob.

We regret to have to say that the outlook for a peaceable settlement between the American and British contingents of the Salvation Army is gloomy. Ballington Booth has opened a headquarters for the new American Army in this city, and is now looking for a name for it. Seceders from the British ranks are reported daily, and they will be put into a new uniform as soon as the style of it can be decided upon. In the meantime the relations between the rival camps have been much strained by the arrival from England of a Salvation Commissioner who is said to be the "ablest financier in the whole Army." He is going to examine the accounts and to see to it that all the property of the American Salvation branch is transferred to the British authorities. There is something decidedly ominous in this proceeding. Everybody familiar with the British character knows that there will be a desperate fight for every penny of that property. Not a cent will be yielded without a struggle, no matter how good American its quality may be. In fact, its American quality will add fury to the pursuit of it.

If the Italian disaster serves no other purpose, it is to be hoped it will help to call the attention of modern nations to the results of the military mania which is now disturbing the Christian world. Italy is one of the poorest countries in Europe. Taxation has there reached the last limit of endurance. After the unification of the kingdom, there was everything to be done in the way of reforms in education, administration, taxation, and communication, for Italy came out of the hands of her oppressors a hundred years behind the rest of Europe in many of the essentials of civilization. But she had hardly got free and independent when she set up an army of 600,000 men, and a navy of 12 battle-ships, 4 "port-defence" ships, 61 armored cruisers, and 147 torpedo-boats, and joined the great military "Triple Alliance." We know all that may be said for this, as matter of public policy—the use of the army in assimilating the population, and the danger from French jealousy. We will admit that it may be defended; but we beg our Jingoes to mark what followed. Finding herself in possession of the army and navy, just like a poor man who has moved into a large house, she concluded she must have what other nations possessing the same armed force had, in the way of "colonial expansion." She must have some "natives" to fight and subjugate, as the French and Germans and Russians and English had. She must have "colonial expansion," as the mediæval kings had to have their wars, and as our Jingoes must have "keys" and islands and canals and trembling Dago dependents. So she went into Africa to found colonies. She established by hook and by crook an Italian protectorate of Menelek, King of Shoa, in May, 1889, and in October of the same year "a mutual protectorate." But Menelek is warlike, has secured plenty of rifles since then, has a powerful and fairly disciplined force, and does not want to be protected. To make a long story short, he thinks he can clear the Italians out of Africa, and he has defeated them in several serious encounters, and now in a great battle, with a serious loss in men, guns, and above all in prestige and self-confidence. All is dismay, confusion at home, the Crispi Ministry is overthrown, and the kingdom is on the verge of bankruptcy; but reinforcements are rushing forward, and there will probably be other battles and more defeats. It is no longer sufficient for a people to be happy, peaceful, industrious, well educated, lightly taxed. It must have somebody afraid of it. What does a nation amount to if nobody is afraid of it? Not a "fico secco," as King Humbert would say.

The thing which is making the Italian Government most uneasy is the effect of the Abyssinian defeat on the Triple Alliance. Seeing how Menelek tasks their powers, Germany and Austria may well ask what they could do against France and Russia. It is the more annoying and depressing because Italy has not been able to achieve a single military or naval triumph, small or great, since she became a kingdom. She was defeated at Custozza, the one land battle of 1866, and at Lissa, the one naval battle, and though the army is a very fine one as far as physique goes, there is said to be wanting that sternness of temper which gives a fighting force its edge. It has been remarked that the stories and essays of De Amicis, who is the leading military writer in Italy, deal almost exclusively with the tender side of army life—the love of mothers and sisters, the longing for home, the affection between officer and orderly, the loneliness of the conscript, the friendliness of the people for the soldier; in fact, nearly every emotion but the martial ones. The grim side of war does not seem to present itself to the rank and file till they see the enemy coming down on them.

THE JINGOES AND THE BRITISH CASE.

THE reception of the British Case by our Jingo contemporaries reminds us of a story told by Gen. Thiébault, in his recently published Memoirs, of his reception at one of the Paris barriers when returning to the city during the Terror. At that time everybody moving about had to be furnished with a passport certifying to a number of qualifications necessary to constitute good citizenship. He presented his with a cheerful confidence, and the officer scrutinized it carefully. There was not a flaw in it,but the observation of the functionary was, "Canaille, tu es trop en règle; je t'arrête" ("Rascal, you're too regular; I arrest you"). In like manner the chief fault found with the Case is that it is too good. Some papers maintain that it "proves too much"; others say that it is good till the other side is heard. As it consists almost wholly in the citation of historical documents purporting to come from public archives, if the other side upsets it it must be in the main by showing that the documents in question are forged or garbled, or have not come from the place from which the British say they have come, or have been overridden by other documents lying in Venezuelan archives, and nowhere else. As a general rule, in default of actual occupation, the only proof of ownership of territory is long undisputed claim; but, of course, where the territory is largely wilderness the question of constructive occupation arises—that is, the question how much wilderness does occupation of one part carry with it. This has, we believe, come before our own courts more than once with regard to the territory transferred to us by Mexico on the Pacific Coast—such a question, for instance, as whether the ownership of the mouth of a river carries with it the ownership of the headwaters. Such questions are, however, comparatively easily settled.

We have no intention at present of going into any examination of the merits of the Case. We merely wish to point out the light which the general acknowledgment of its goodness throws on the way in which we have been carrying on this controversy for the past year. It is now plain, as we pointed out last fall, that not one of our writers on the Venezuelan side knew anything about the merits of the case. The articles in the newspapers and magazines were all *a-priori* concoctions, that is, deductions from the writers' conceptions of the general disposition of the English to "grab" territory and oppress small Powers. Whether the English were doing so in this particular case, neither Lodge, nor Chandler, nor Morgan, nor Roosevelt had the smallest idea. But they argued away as if they were in full possession of all the British could say for themselves. Mr. Roosevelt furnishes, in an article in the last number of the *Bachelor of Arts*, an amusing illustration of the muddle-headed way in which they did their work. Writing on the Monroe Doctrine, he maintains throughout two contradictory theses, one that "the Monroe Doctrine is not a question of law at all, but a question of policy," and the other that there is a right and wrong in the matter, and that the facts might "show England to be in the right" in the Venezuelan matter, in which case "well and good." He adds, too, with delightful gravity:

> "A very able member of the New York bar remarked the other day that he had not yet met the lawyer who agreed with Secretary Olney as to the legal interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine. This remark was chiefly interesting as showing the lawyer's own limitations."

He further remarks that this dictum of "the very able lawyer" had "little more significance than if he had said that he had not yet met a dentist who agreed with Mr. Olney." It is difficult to treat these enfantillages seriously. They make one sorry for a very useful and upright man, but as they appear in print they compel the observation that if the Monroe Doctrine were all policy and no law, the Venezuelan Arguments and Commissions and Cases would be as ridiculous as the Jingo articles. All the argumentation on both sides is an attempt to extract a rule of right from a heterogeneous mass of facts.

The true rule for volunteer and amateur publicists, when turning their attention to international questions, would seem to be, to avoid rigidly the assumption of two differing characters. If you appear as an advocate of your country or a defender of her policy, and a promoter of justifiable hostile feeling to some other country, you should not also appear as a jurist, and profess to know the law of your own pretensions. It is vary rare indeed that policy and law can be argued in the same breath. When a man says, I care nothing about your law, my policy is to do so and so no matter what you say, you meet him with one set of arguments. You denounce him, and if need be fight him. When he says this matter is one of law, and my case is so and so, you meet him with another set. He appeals to a tribunal, seen or unseen, at which he must be met with facts, and before which abuse of his character and aspersions on his designs are out of place. For over a year, men occupying a position which ought to be high and semi-judicial, that of United States Senators, have been engaged in quasi-legal attempts to settle a dispute about property between two foreign Powers—without, as now appears, even slight knowledge of the evidence in the case—through newspapers, magazines, and stump speeches, in which they maintained that Great Britain could not be the legal owner of certain territory in South America, because we disliked to see European settlements on this continent and had said so freely seventy years ago.

If there were any use in talking to our esteemed contemporaries on the same subject, we would point out how much our press, and our mental apparatus, which is known to foreigners mainly through the press, are discredited by this same application of our vituperative processes to quasi-judicial questions. Invective is ruled out of all courts in the world which sit on questions of law, and it is not asking too much of newspapers to confess their incompetency to pass on the legal rights of even the most disliked and despised foreign nation by means of general denunciation. As we have heretofore more than once pointed out, Great Britain and Venezuela stood before us, as regarded their historical claims, on precisely the same footing morally. Lord Salisbury was entitled to exactly as much credit as Señor Crespo, but no more. Great Britain was just as likely to be right as Venezuela—most travellers would say more so; but we were not travellers, we were simple observers or mediators. Weakness has no more to do with right than strength. The big man is just as much entitled to his watch and purse as the little one.

These are the obvious moral objections to our goings on about Venezuela during the last twelve months. The political ones are still stronger. We have, while nominally trying to see justice done, roused the greatest of all enemies to justice, the one which cares least for the distinction between right and wrong, the war spirit. We have seriously dimmed in the minds of a large body of the American people the idea of our own subjection to the moral law in our international relations. We have developed a fierce desire to display anywhere, and for any reason, our power to do violence, to drown arguments, to silence law, to strengthen throughout the world the reverence for might as against right, and to treat the services or uses of foreign nations to civilization and humanity as of small consequence compared to the demonstration of our ability to destroy their commerce, ruin their cities, shut up their colleges, and slaughter their young men, without similar damage to ourselves. This, and more, we owe to our pinchbeck jurists, and they ought to be, and we hope are, ashamed of their work.

CHANGE WITHOUT VARIETY.

THERE was a general expectation, which we confess we shared, that the present Congress would be a great improvement on its predecessor, to which, on account of its ignorance and obstinacy, we gave the name of "brutish Congress." We were compelled to admit that the country had made a great mistake in expecting more from the Democrats than it got from Mr. Reed's business Congress which passed the McKinley bill. The Fifty-third Congress turned out to be made of just the same material as the Fifty-first. It differed simply in having a different direction for its evil activity. Instead of devoting itself to levying enormous tribute

from the community for the benefit of the manufacturers, it devoted itself to playing tricks with the currency, and trying to fleece people who had more than $4,000 a year. But each of these lines of action having turned out disastrously for the party which pursued it, we felt sure that the Fifty-fourth Congress would either hit on some middle course, or do nothing at all, and adjourn early.

There were signs early last year that an attempt would be made to get excitement out of foreign questions, but the promoters of this policy made little impression on the popular mind. The total failure of the Hawaiian enterprise showed how little prepared the country was for any sort of Jingo activity. The way in which the President dealt with that question, which we happen to know was the conception of Mr. Gresham's thoroughly upright and loyal mind, gave the public a most comforting assurance of four years of peaceful and legal relations with foreign nations, and of stern preoccupation, as far as the executive could command it, with our own sadly muddled domestic concerns. Had Mr. Gresham lived, we feel very certain these expectations would have been realized. We should have sat in tranquillity under the shadow of international law, of American precedents, and of a decent regard for the good opinion of mankind.

We are bound to presume that when Mr. Olney wrote his despatch in July last, he was under the impression, as we were, that the new Congress was in some way better than the previous one, made up of better material, and, in virtue of a longer experience, filled with more concern for the real interests of the country. But we can hardly make this excuse for Mr. Cleveland's message in December. Congress was then sitting, and the President must have known how little it differed from its predecessors, how small a stock of knowledge of public affairs, or credit, or finance, or currency it brought to the work of legislation, and how ready it would be to drop such things for a prize-fight, a bull-fight, a cock-fight, or a war, and how difficult it would be, if it once got away on a junket of this kind, ever to bring it back to sober business. There is a story in the life of the Vicar of Morwen, a wild Cornish parish, of the impossibility in the last century of keeping a congregation in church on Sunday, after the news came in that there was a wreck ashore. All the clergyman asked under these conditions was, that they would give him a fair chance by waiting till he got down from the pulpit. When Mr. Cleveland sent in his Venezuela message, he virtually announced that there was a wreck ashore, but he has found out that he must take his chance of getting down to the beach with the rest. There is no consideration for him on account of his pastoral character.

We hope he now sees the character of the body into which he flung this terrible firebrand. He suggested to a body of idle, ignorant, lazy, and not very scrupulous men an exciting game, which involved no labor and promised lots of fun, and which would be likely to furnish them with the means of annoying and embarrassing him. They are richly, as he must see, availing themselves of their opportunity. They are determined to find somebody to threaten or challenge, and even if he gets Spain away from them, they will find another victim. They are out for a lark, and if they can do nothing else will "clean out a saloon." We are sorry for him in his trouble about these concurrent and joint resolutions, but we should have been sorrier if he had got off without any trouble. It would be a bad thing for our government if the "digging of holes" were pure pastime. Governments cannot be carried on for any great length of time in this way. We cannot convert our whole territory into a rabbit warren, with Presidents and Congressmen sticking out of the ground here and there. Agriculture, trade, and commerce and all the serious business of life have to be attended to.

But one thing is certain, neither the Fifty-fifth, nor the Fifty-sixth, nor the Fifty-seventh Congress will be any better than these last three, or so good as these last three, if there is not a strong and general effort by all classes and conditions, and above all by those who have the ear of the public, with voice and pen, to revive the practice of honest and frank popular discussion. There is not much use in correcting the errors of the present Congressmen with regard to war, because they are sure to begin to commit fresh ones in some other field. Their goings on about war are the products of precisely the same mental conditions as the goings on about currency and taxation. Childish in one, childish in all. The reason why a Congressman is so ready to fight England or Spain is the reason why he thinks the Almighty has put silver and gold in the ground in the proportion of 16 to 1, and why he thinks credit is an invention of the money power for the oppression of the poor. We are not contending with political errors so much as with sheer, crass ignorance, with imperfect civilization, and incomplete mental development. And the next Congress will be just as bad as this one, and some great calamity will overtake us if everybody does not get into the way of speaking out his honest thought.

Our present Congressmen are the product of thirty years of government by intrigue, concealment, and bribery. Open discussion, in which public men say exactly what they think without fear, seems to have died out with slavery and the war. There are many men in Congress who think about all this tomfoolery exactly as the civilized world thinks, but either hold their peace about it or pretend to admire it, because they fear that if they did not "take a hand in the racket," they would lose their influence. There are others, like Mr. Sherman, who excuse themselves for fathering some monstrous folly, like his silver bill or the Cuban resolutions, by pretending that they did it to "head off" something far worse. The result is that both Congress and the public are left without that instruction on the great topics of the day, from competent men in public life, without which no government of a great nation can go on. Those who speak out among us are a mere handful, and generally do it with bated breath and many placatory clauses. Our present Government, for instance, is simply impossible for a community with an immense system of credit and foreign trade. To have an assembly of breech-clouted warriors, who are daily shaking their tomahawks at all strangers, presiding and legislating for a nation which has a stock exchange and banks in every town, and in which the poorest man is interested in the condition of the money market, is an absurdity. No such régime can last. But we shall have no change for the better as long as our leading men are afraid to let the warriors know that we have definitively broken with the old savage life, live by trade and industry, and take no scalps.

A CUBAN CATECHISM.

(1.) Q. What is belligerency? A. Waging war.

(2.) Q. What is a belligerent state? A. A state waging war.

(3.) What is a state? A. Any sovereign political organization having a definite territorial extent, regularly organized military forces, and an established government.

(4.) Q. Does it matter what the origin of this organization is? A. Not at all. It may originate in the peaceful division of one state into two, or it may be established by revolutionists, cut-throats, and pirates.

(5.) Q. Does it matter whether the organization has been lawful as regards the original state from which the new state has become separated? A. Not at all. If unlawful, the new state is a state *de facto*, or in fact; otherwise, it is a state *de jure*, or legally. It may be both.

(6.) Q. Why must such a state have the features described in the answer to Question 3 to be recognized as a belligerent? A. Because without such features other states cannot have any dealings with it.

(7.) Q. How is that? A. Without political organization, at the head of which some human being or body of human beings stands, it is impossible to communicate with it; without a definite territorial extent, it is impossible to find it; without regular military organization there is no discipline or responsibility, and acts of violence become robbery on land and piracy on the seas.

(8.) Q. What difference does all this make to another state? A. It cannot compel justice to its own citizens who may reside or transact business there.

(9.) Q. Explain this. A. Unless it can collect taxes, it can pay no claims against it; unless it has efficient machinery for the administration of justice, it can redress no wrong, enforce no contract, and protect no property; unless it has a regular army, it cannot insure domestic tranquillity or obedience to its commands.

(10.) Q. Supposing an insurrection not to have military and political organization, who is responsible for it to other states? A. The state against which the insurrection is made.

(11.) Q. In case of such an insurrection in Cuba, who is responsible for destruction of American property, the lives of American citizens, and the interests of such citizens having business relations with the island? A. Spain.

(12.) Q. If Cuba were recognized as a belligerent? A. Nobody.

(13.) Q. If the United States should recognize Cuba under such circumstances as a belligerent, what would its own position become? A. That of a neutral.

(14.) Q. Would the obligations of our citizens be increased or diminished? A. Increased.

(15.) Q. How? A. By the fact that whereas now we can sell arms and munitions of war to any purchaser in Cuba, such arms and munitions would, in case of a recognition of belligerency, become contrabrand of war, and liable on any attempt at importation to seizure and confiscation by Spain.

(16.) Q. Might American vessels be confiscated? A. They might under certain circumstances.

(17.) Q. What redress would American owners have? A. None whatever.

(18.) Q. Is there any proof that a belligerent state now exists on the island of Cuba? A. None whatever.

(19.) Q. Assuming that to be the fact, to whom can we look for protection to American interests, or redress for wrongs to American citizens, if belligerency is recognized? A. To nobody.

(20.) Q. Why? A. Because the recognition of belligerency releases Spain from responsibility, without putting any one in her place.

(21.) Q. Why does it release Spain from responsibility? A. Because it is an announcement by us that we believe Cuba is a government capable of assuming the responsibility that we demand of every state. If Cuba is not such a government, so much the worse for us.

(22.) Q. What is the statement that the Cubans form a belligerent state? A. If made knowingly, a falsehood.

(23.) Q. That being the case, what can you say of the Senators and Representatives who pass a resolution that the fact exists? A. Some have made a false statement, and embodied it in a solemn public act; some have behaved like fools; some have done both.

(24.) Q. To give this resolution practical effect, is what they have done sufficient? A. No; their resolutions are mere words.

(25.) Q. What more is necessary to accomplish recognition? A. Action by the President.

(26.) Q. Upon whom, then, does the responsibility now rest? A. Upon him.

(27.) Q. Would recognition by him lead to war? A. Very likely.

(28.) Why? A. Because the commerce between the United States ports and those of Cuba is constant, and some collision between Spanish and American ships would almost certainly occur. An armed collision having occurred, it might easily become impossible to restrain the war feeling excited on both sides by Congress and the press. When two countries go to war, it is not generally the result of a deliberate act on both sides.

(29.) Q. What is the most terrible responsibility that any one can assume? A. That of involving his country in a needless war.

(30.) Q. Is there any reason for thinking that the President will do this? A. No.

(31.) A. Why? Q. Because he knows, first, that Cuba is not a belligerent state; second, that Congress knows it; third, that the object of Congress in passing belligerency resolutions had nothing to do with Cuba.

(32.) Q. What was their object? A. To "put Grover Cleveland in a hole."

(33.) Q. Have they tried this before? A. Yes.

(34.) Q. Have they ever succeeded in doing it? A. No.

STYLISH OPINIONS.

AGAIN have we an example of how much better they do these things in France. To the lucidity and logic of a Frenchman, M. Pierre Lalo, does the world owe the discovery that we as much need a manual of fashionable opinions as we do of etiquette and dress. He has accordingly issued proposals for a 'Petit Guide des Opinions Élegantes pour 1896.' Instead of following the praiseworthy "society" editor of the *Tribune* into such discussions as "What Men are Wearing to Afternoon Teas," he addresses himself to the much more needed task of telling them what they shall talk about, and what views they shall maintain, after they get to afternoon teas. Clearly perceiving that a last-year's opinion is really more damning in the eyes of truly cultivated people than a last-year's hat, he applies himself to the work of giving opinions, to go with clothes, of the latest cut.

A few samples of the literary and artistic trousseau he stands prepared to furnish will show the merit and usefulness of his plan. Shakspere, he tells his French patrons, you will still do well to praise moderately; all you need to know is that *Lear* was not a gay young lover, and that *Lady Macbeth* was for some reason desperately anxious to wash her hands. This amount of knowledge, with assorted epithets, will amply fit one for moving in the most select circles. As for Goethe's works, all you need to remember is that they contain "a complete philosophy of life"; to read the books themselves would be a wholly unnecessary trouble. At the mention of Ibsen's name a sacred enthusiasm should glow upon your face, and broken interjections—"What daring!" "What force!"—should fall from your lips. It will be considered quite the thing, this year, to call him Henrik the Northman, and to speak of the "vast intellect" of this modern seaking. D'Annunzio is going out, and this season they will not speak of him in the most refined society. Shelley and Swinburne will be casually mentioned, but only in certain drawing-rooms—which, it will take no little social tact for you to make sure of in advance. The Russians are quite gone out, and so you need not trouble yourself to know even their names.

We cannot follow M. Lalo through his descriptions of musical and artistic fashions, valuable as they are. They are directed to French readers, and hence scarcely fitted for columns so carefully guarded from foreign contamination as these. But his idea is eminently worthy of praise and imitation, with such modifications as may be needed to fit it for this climate. Americans are certainly like Frenchmen in not being born with a full set of literary and artistic opinions. These, with their changing styles, have to be acquired, even in this country of unsurpassed opportunities, just as knowledge of fashions in dress and furnishings has to be acquired. With labor-saving guides and royal roads to knowledge provided so abundantly in the one case, why should they not be introduced in the other? It may be too late to catch this year's market, but a 'Guide to Polite Opinions for 1897,' prepared betimes, would be sure to meet with an enormous sale. We throw out the hint, with characteristic generosity, for what it is worth.

Such a guide would be only a fit recognition of the way in which literature and art have become socialized, so to speak. We refer to the great truth that books are now valued mainly for their social function. They are read only because they are talked about, and only in order to talk about them. Even so, and with the limits thus happily narrowed, an unpleasant deal of reading has to be done by those who aim to acquit themselves creditably in the best society. But a safe and condensed guide would serve all purposes and save much valuable time. Index-learning of this kind, that makes no student pale, would recommend itself mightily to those who are compelled to give as much thought to their complexion as to their conversation. This is the age of literary pemmican—of books about books, condensed masterpieces, shortened college courses, and learning while you wait—and why should we not have the thing carried

to its logical conclusion, and ready-made opinions put within reach of the humblest purse?

It may be demanded that we should ourselves essay an outline of the kind of manual we have in mind. But we cannot prophesy so far before the event. We can only say what we wish might be fashionable. If it were in our power, most gladly would we ordain the literary fashions for 1897 as follows: Criticism this year will all be "genial"; all book-notices will be "handsome"; foreign fiction will not be so much as mentioned in good society; the long-sought American novel will be found, twenty or thirty strong—. But we forbear. "The apprehension of the good gives but the greater feeling to the worse." Such a millennium can scarcely be due next year.

But though our courage and capacity are unequal to the task, we can see in the work of others bright promise of just the sort of thing needed. Here is Prof. Matthews's 'Introduction to American Literature,' for instance, which needs but a slight extension in order exactly to meet the case. He has a "brief chronology" at the end, in which we learn that the leading literary events of 1895 were the publication of Fuller's 'With the Procession,' Howells's 'My Literary Passions,' Roosevelt and Lodge's 'Hero Tales of American History,' and Stockton's 'Captain Horn.' This seems primarily designed to show how far we have got on since, say, 1841, when such crude pioneers as Cooper, Emerson, Longfellow, Lowell, and Poe were all we had to boast of in the publishers' lists. But it is clear that a little jump forward in this "brief chronology" would at once land us in 1896 or 1897, and, by simple expansion and due provision of graded adjectives, give us in American socio-literature just what M. Lalo proposes to furnish in French. We have Mr. Roosevelt's word for it that this work of Prof. Matthews's, which we should like to see extended in this way, is, as it would need to be, thoroughly American. (It should be said, in passing, that Messrs. Lodge and Roosevelt are just as firmly determined to found a patriotic literature as they are to have a patriotic war.) Mr. Bunner, too, has lately explained how this author got his truly American culture direct, as it were, and not in the painful and roundabout way via England which Lowell and Hawthorne had to pursue. That Mr. Bunner is an authority is clear from his figuring in Prof. Matthews's "brief chronology." So does Mr. Roosevelt more than once. Hence, of his warm commendation of Prof. Matthews, we can say with Dr. Johnson, "This, if not criticism, is at least gratitude."

POPE ALEXANDER VI.'S BULL, AND THE TREATY OF MUNSTER.

GEORGETOWN, February 11, 1896.

ON opening the volume entitled 'Venezuelan International Law,' the first document that presents itself is the Bull of Pope Alexander VI., dated May 4, 1493, in which that Pontiff fixed the line of demarcation of the domains of the Crowns of Spain and Portugal in America. Of Roderigo Borgia, who filled the Holy See at that time, the world has held but a poor opinion; but this particular act of his has rendered him famous, while other acts have proved him infamous. The manner in which the historian Robertson characterizes the granting of the Bull is such as will not be dissented from by Americans. The following are Dr. Robertson's words:

"The Pope, as the Vicar and representative of Jesus Christ, was supposed to have a right of dominion over all the kingdoms of the earth. Alexander VI., a pontiff infamous for every crime which disgraces humanity, filled the papal throne at that time. As he was born Ferdinand's subject, and very solicitous to secure the protection of Spain in order to facilitate the execution of his ambitious schemes in favor of his own family, he was extremely willing to gratify the Spanish monarch. By an act of liberality which cost him nothing, and that served to establish the jurisdiction and pretensions of the papal see, he granted in full right to Ferdinand and Isabella all the countries inhabited by Infidels which they had discovered or should discover; and, in virtue of that power which he derived from Jesus Christ, he conferred on the Crown of Castile vast regions, to the possession of which he himself was so far from having any title that he was unacquainted with their situation and ignorant even of their existence."

Pope Alexander having given to Spain what did not belong to him, one cannot be surprised that the other European sovereigns did not admit the exclusive right of the most Catholic King to the New World. When Cabot went forth from England in 1497, he was commissioned by King Henry VII. (a very good son of the Church) to take possession of such lands as he might discover in the New World and to set up the royal standard there. King Francis the First of France not only desired to "see the clause in Adam's will which entitled his brothers of Castile and Portugal to divide the New World between them," but sent out Verrazzano, in 1523, to prosecute discoveries in the northern parts of America, whence came the colony of New France. The Dutch traded to South America while yet they were subjects of Spain. When the Dutch threw off the yoke of Spain they were "not Christians, but Hollanders," as they are said to have told a sovereign of Japan. As early as 1581 the States-General of Holland passed *resolutions* (June 10 and 14 and July 7 and 22) declaring certain persons privileged to trade to the coast of Guiana.

In the latter part of the sixteenth century and in the early part of the seventeenth century, the three maritime nations set to work in earnest to found colonies in the New World. This movement was not confined to North America. It was in active operation in South America at the same time. There it was confined to Guiana, which was also known as the Wild Coast. While Englishmen, Frenchmen, and Dutchmen were severally building up a New England, a New France, and a New Netherlands, in North America, their respective countrymen were engaged in making settlements in various places in Guiana. In the case of England, it was one and the same man, Sir Walter Raleigh, who promoted colonies in Virginia and at the same time hankered after establishing English rule in Guiana. Owing to the difference in the conditions of life (notably as to climate), the results were unequal; but the colonizing intention was identical in the two regions. In either case settlements were made in despite of Pope and Spaniard. It is to the absolute repudiation of the Spanish pretension to an exclusive right to North America that the republic of the United States owes its existence. The colonies whence it sprang were mainly founded at a time when Spain claimed the whole of North America. Did not Spain threaten to send ships to Virginia to remove the English colonists? (Bancroft's 'History of the United States,' 1876, vol. i., p. 111.) The Spaniards, indeed, recognized the Dutch settlements in Guiana before they recognized those of the English in North America. Even the Venezuelans admit that, by the Treaty of Munster, the Spaniards were good enough to permit that the Dutch might keep such colonies as they held in Guiana. The Treaty of Munster was made in 1648. Now what does Bancroft say as to Spanish recognition of English colonies in North America? Here are his very words:

"The first treaty relating to England and America between Spain and England was ratified in 1667 and made more general in 1670. Before that time, Spain had claimed not the territory of the Carolinas only, but that of Virginia, New England—in short, of all North America. By this convention she recognized as English the colonies which England then possessed; but the boundaries in the South and West were not determined." ('History of the United States,' 1876, vol. i., p. 523.)

There cannot be one standard for judging the rightfulness of making settlements in North America and another for making settlements in South America. If it was wrong for European nations to colonize in Guiana, it was equally wrong for them to colonize in North America. If any Americans hold that Pope Alexander's Bull gave the Spaniards an exclusive right to the New World, they must perceive that the only logical conclusion to such an admission is that the great Republic is possessed of much territory that was stolen from Spain. If restitution is to be made for the great wrong done, a beginning might well be made by handing over the State of New York to the republic of Venezuela; for did not England obtain the Dutch colony whence grew the Empire State by giving Surinam in exchange for it? And who does not know that if the Venezuelans "had their rights," Dutch Guiana (including Surinam) of to-day should form part of that republic? To Americans the situation should be a painful one. They have consciences. The Briton, unscrupulous and unprincipled, "always grabbing what does not belong to him," still carries a brazen front. He will probably tell you that when the Irish in America respect the Papal Bull which erected Ireland into a kingdom for the King of England, and not till then, will he have reason to think of respecting Pope Alexander's authority to give away what did not belong to him.

Venezuelans set great store by the Treaty of Munster, in 1648. It is hard to see how that treaty upholds their present "claims." By its fifth article, provision was made that each party should retain possession of what it "held and possessed." This, surely, did not refer to lands then unoccupied by any Christian Prince. Now, what were the respective possessions of the Spaniards and the Dutch at that time in Guiana? The Orinoco was "a forgotten Colony." Putting aside the missionary settlement of San Thomé, which was made on the Orinoco in 1576 and was destroyed by the Dutch in 1579 (a settlement, be it noted, only of Indians, besides the two religious fathers), it was not until 1591 that Berreo's settlement of ten Spaniards, at his town of San Thomé, was formed. That was eleven years after the Dutch had

made their settlement of Nova Zealandia, on the Pomeroon. Before this, the Spaniards had sent some expeditions into the Orinoco, which had suffered at the hands of the Caribs and by disease. The Venezuelans say:

"The first discoveries of the Spaniards had not, however, extended at first beyond the shores of the Orinoco, nor had those of the Portuguese extended further north of the Amazone; and it was only by virtue of successive and partial expeditions that both countries gradually extended their dominions with the right of first occupants" ('Venezuelan International Law,' p. 169).

But where is the proof of extension of dominion, or of occupation? The insignificance of the Spanish "holdings and possessions" in the neighborhood of the Orinoco may be gathered from the subjoined extract from the well-known work of the French philosopher, Raynal:

"In 1771, thirteen villages were seen upon the banks of the Oroonoko, which contained four thousand two hundred and nineteen Spaniards, Mestees, Mulattoes, or Negroes, four hundred and thirty-one plantations, and twelve thousand eight hundred and fifty-four oxen, mules, or horses."

After stating that Columbus had discovered the Oroonoko, Abbé Raynal says:

"The Spaniards, who could not pay attention to all the regions they discovered, lost sight of the Oroonoko. They did not attempt to sail up this river again till the year 1535, when, not having found there the mines they were in search of, they neglected it. Nevertheless, the few who had been thrown upon this spot devoted themselves with so much assiduity to the culture of Tobacco that they delivered a few cargoes of it every year to the foreign vessels which came to purchase it. This contraband trade was prohibited by the mother-country, and this weak settlement was twice plundered by enterprising pirates. These disasters occasioned it to be forgotten. It was recalled to mind again in 1753. The Commodore Nicolas de Ytuniga was sent there. This prudent man established a regular system of government in the colony that had formed itself insensibly in this part of the world" ('History of the European Settlements in the East and West Indies,' by the Abbé Raynal. vol. iv., p. 73).

Such as they were, the Spanish settlements were identified with the Orinoco rather than with Guiana. Raynal's view covers the period of the Treaty of Munster and comes down to 1771. It is well to be borne in mind that the scanty settlements of the latter date were on both banks of the Orinoco, not on the Guiana side only. Raynal's account confirms that given by the New Englander, Bancroft, in 1768, when he wrote that the Spaniards had then "no other possessions in this country, except their settlements on the eastern side of the River Oronoque, near the confines of its limits, and therefore can hardly be included among the proprietors of Guiana" ('Essay on the Natural History of Guiana,' London, 1769, p. 273).

As with the English colony of Carolina, in North America, in the seventeenth century, so, in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries in South America, did the Spaniards deem their possession of some isolated place "proof of the actual possession of an indefinite adjacent country." In South America the puny settlement at San Thomé, on the Orinoco, gave them a pretence to claim the whole of Guiana, a country of about 900,000 square miles, extending from the Orinoco to the Amazon. In North America they claimed Carolina, in like manner, as Bancroft tells us:

"It was included by the Spaniards within the limits of Florida; and the Castle of St. Augustine was deemed proof of the actual possession of an indefinite adjacent country. Spain had never formally acknowledged the English title to any possessions in America; and, when a treaty was finally concluded at Madrid, it did but faintly concede the right of England to her transatlantic colonies and to a continuance of commerce in the accustomed seas" ('History of the United States,' 1876, vol. i., page 484).

When the Dutch were establishing their colony of New Netherlands in 1621–1622, they were regarded by the New Englanders as "intruders." The Privy Council in England was appealed to by the English colonists, and representations were made in February, 1622, by Sir Dudley Carleton, the English Minister at The Hague ('History of the U. S. A.,' 1876, pp. 38, 39). All was done in vain. The Dutchmen remained in possession. Although North America had been discovered by a Venetian serving the Crown of England, as South America was discovered by a Genoese serving the Crown of Spain, it was physically impossible for the English of that time to occupy, hold, or possess the whole of that vast region. Hence, the French, the Dutch, the Swedes, and the Spaniards had each possessed themselves of portions of the northern continent. Each claimed more than it did, or could, possess, excepting, perhaps, the Swedes, whose settlement on the Delaware was looked upon as an encroachment by the Dutch. As the New England settlers had not occupied the Hudson and its neighborhood, the Dutch had a right to settle there. With even stronger rights could the Hollanders and Zealanders make settlements in Guiana, where vast regions were unoccupied by any Christian prince or people. They rightly held that Spanish possessions in Guiana meant little more than a mere château in Spain.

N. Darnell Davis.

NAPOLEON AND ALEXANDER I.

Paris, February 27, 1896.

You see sometimes, at the end of a warm summer's day, two large clouds moving slowly towards each other, gradually extending and getting darker and darker; they finally meet and the first peals of thunder are heard. I could not help thinking of this preparation for a great convulsion of nature while reading the third volume of M. Albert Vandal's great work on Napoleon and Alexander I. of Russia. The volume has for its sub-title "La Rupture." Like its predecessors, this huge volume of 600 pages consists of ponderous and elaborate diplomatic documents, drawn from our archives; it has a certain sort of solemnity which easily becomes fatiguing. The details of the incessant negotiations between the courts are often wearisome, and the author indulges in a profusion of considerations which are almost a burden on the mind of the reader. The style, too, is often pompous and elaborate, and is always wanting in simplicity and alertness; but you feel, at the same time, that the author has great sincerity and is constantly striving after historic truth. He spares no pains, he is absolutely impartial, and his seriousness is that of a judge.

The events he has to deal with, the actors whom he has to endue with life, deserve such a great effort. There was perhaps never in the history of our time a more extraordinary, a more solemn hour than that in which the fate of Europe seemed to be in the hands of these two men alone, Napoleon and Alexander. They divided the civilized world at Tilsit; they formed an alliance which for a time was irresistible. M. Vandal has told us in his two former volumes how this alliance was induced and how it was formed; he has shown us, also, what dangers threatened it from the first hour, and what secret motives were actuating the two sovereigns who, in the eyes of the world, had become united on all points. Poland was the sore spot, the cause of a growing distrust between Napoleon and Alexander. Napoleon wished, in order to keep his hold on Germany, to make of Poland a sort of *tête de pont*, an advanced sentinel; whereas Alexander looked upon a new Poland, rising resuscitated at the summons of Napoleon, as a sword piercing the vitals of Russia. He could not bear the idea of the reconstitution of the ancient kingdom which had been dismembered in the eighteenth century, and as soon as this dread entered his mind he prepared himself to put an end to the alliance.

Alexander complained first of the incorporation of the Duchy of Oldenburg in the French Empire. The duchy belonged to a prince who was connected with the Russian imperial family. "The true reason," says Joseph de Maistre, "which induces two men to cut each other's throats, is almost never the apparent reason which is given." M. Vandal is right in showing that the true reason was Poland. "The monstrous development of the French power, the progress of a frontier which moved and changed constantly, the recent seizure of Holland and of the Hanseatic cities, the extension of the territory of the Empire to the shores of the Baltic, the enslavement of Prussia, the growing exigencies of the Continental blockade, denoted a plan of universal domination which Alexander felt it incumbent upon him to resist. But the Duchy of Warsaw was the vanguard of France in the north, and at contact with it Alexander lost patience." In great secrecy he sent Prince Czartoryski to Warsaw, offering to the Poles to transform the duchy into a kingdom, united to his own empire, if they were willing to join the army of 200,000 men which he was silently forming against Napoleon—for he was then thinking of an offensive war. He knew that Spain was absorbing a great part of the French forces; he believed that the Saxon, Bavarian, Westphalian, and other German troops which were mixed up with the French troops, would not remain faithful if he could cut his way in Germany. He had first, however, to deal with the Duchy of Warsaw, with Sweden and with Turkey; if he made an offensive war, he could not leave enemies behind him. Bernadotte hated Napoleon, but was not yet absolute master in Sweden. Russia was carrying on a war with Turkey and negotiating at the same time. It was necessary, further, for Alexander, if he made an offensive war, to secure the neutrality of Austria; but since 1810 the relations of Napoleon with Austria had become intimate and were the scandal of Europe. The Emperor Francis had given his daughter to Napoleon, and Metternich was living in intimacy with him, turning a deaf ear to all the advances of Russia.

Alexander soon renounced the idea of an offensive war. Czartoryski sent him a disguised agent with a letter full of objections to the plan which Alexander had confided to him; Alexander sent to Czartoryski a second letter. "The difficulties are great, I confess; as I had foreseen them in great part, and as the results are of such vital importance, to stop half-way would be the worst thing to do." Alexander in this second letter said that he counted chiefly on "the general exasperation of Germany" against the French Emperor, and he set over against the 150,000 French and allies whom

Napoleon could find in Germany, 200,000 Russians, 130,000 Poles, Prussians, and Danes, perhaps 200,000 Austrians. As for Austria, he was prepared to buy her neutrality by the offer of Wallachia and Moldavia, in exchange for Galicia. His own armies were in complete readiness; everything was calculated and combined; it remained for the Poles of Warsaw to choose if they wished to abandon the French cause or to remain on the side of Napoleon.

M. Vandal shows us how Alexander was preparing the ground in Austria, where he had accredited a secret agent, just as Louis XV. used to have (read the 'Secret du Roi' by the Duke de Broglie). This agent delivered to Stackelberg, who was the Russian Ambassador in Vienna, letters from Alexander which had not been shown to Alexander's minister, Romanzoff. A secret correspondence of the same sort was kept up with the Prussian Court. In Paris, the official representative of Alexander was Kurakin, old, infirm, and of feeble intellect; behind this phantom was young Count Tchernitcheff, colonel of the guards, who had organized a complete system of military information. Tchernitcheff was one of those spies of society with whom Paris is well acquainted, and by whom it likes to be half deceived; he was a great favorite in society—it was said that Pauline Borghese, the handsome Pauline, was not insensible to his homage. He was in reality the vigilant eye of Alexander.

Alexander maintained mysterious relations with Talleyrand after Erfurt, and had accredited near him young Count Nesselrode. Soon after the interview, Nesselrode, who was then secretary of the Russian Embassy in Paris, presented himself to Talleyrand, and said to him in proper terms: "I am officially employed under Prince Kurakin, but I am accredited to you. I am in private correspondence with the Emperor, and I bring you a letter from him." Ever afterwards, they saw each other regularly. The secret was well kept. The French Ambassador in St. Petersburg was a soldier, Caulaincourt, recently made Duke of Vicenza; he suspected nothing. He was treated at court as *persona gratissima*, and was the object of the most delicate and constant attentions on the part of the Emperor. In the first days of 1811 Caulaincourt dined at the palace. The news of the incorporation of the Hanseatic cities in the French Empire had just arrived. "Do you know," merely remarked the Emperor to Caulaincourt, "that you have again new departments?" Caulaincourt tried to justify Napoleon: France was going to do a great work, to open a canal between the Baltic and the North Sea; the commerce of Russia would be greatly benefited by it. "Well," said Alexander, "it will not be Russia who will put an end to the amicable relations between the two countries." A few days afterwards Oldenburg was seized. Within a fortnight Alexander ceased to invite Caulaincourt; when he saw him again, he assured him that he would himself keep faithful to the treaties. "If Napoleon," said he, "comes on my frontier, if he wishes for war, he must make it, but he will have no cause of complaint against Russia. I give you my word of honor." Caulaincourt was under the charm of the Emperor. He did not understand him and perceive that the grace of his manner concealed a fixed and resolute purpose. We read in the memoirs of Countess Trembicka that Alexander's eyes never smiled like his lips: "His fixed gaze, almost alarming by its fixity, was never on his interlocutor, and seemed absorbed in the contemplation of a mysterious phantom."

Napoleon, at the height of his power in the beginning of 1811, felt, nevertheless, that all he had tried against England with a view to obtain a general peace had been vain; he felt that the Continental blockade was useless so long as it was not universal and complete. Masséna was powerless before the lines of Torres Vedras, and Napoleon could not strike a decisive blow in Spain. A reconciliation between England and Russia was always possible. A Russian ukase, prohibitive of French goods, was considered by Napoleon as a sign of hostility, all the more that it had been signed by Alexander before the seizure of Oldenburg. Napoleon said, speaking of Russia, "There is a great planet taking a false direction." During three sleepless nights he meditated on the situation, and came to the conclusion that Russia was preparing for war and that he must prepare himself also. He will not await an attack, but forms privily the plan of a campaign in Russia. As usual, he fixes all the details of his enterprise; nothing is forgotten. He has to conceal carefully the importance and the object of his preparations, but this time his designs are understood. Alexander watches all his steps. Diplomatically, the advance is taken by Alexander, who secures Bernadotte and prepares the ground in Austria and in Turkey. M. Vandal enters into the minutest particulars regarding the diplomatic preparations and negotiations which preceded the great struggle. Napoleon was becoming more and more convinced that it was his mission to break the power of Russia; he was the representative of civilization, the true successor of Cæsar and Charlemagne, the true successor, also, of the kings who had always felt it their duty to place obstacles in the way of Muscovite ambition, and to surround the Slavic empire with a chain of allied Powers—Sweden, Poland, Turkey. Napoleon, with the clearest head and one most capable of entering into the smallest details, was also a man of imagination; if Alexander would not be his obedient ally, his power must be broken for ever.

The military preparations continued on both sides. Napoleon became convinced after a while that Alexander was getting ready for war, for a long and terrible war if necessary. The French Emperor had not allowed the public to know anything of his projects, his fears, his hesitations; but, once having made up his mind, he struck, as usual, a great blow, and felt a desire to expose publicly the intentions of his rival. The occasion he chose was the 15th of August, his birthday. On that date a grand reception took place at the Tuileries. After the mass the diplomatic audience began. Napoleon took his place on his throne. The princes, the great dignitaries, the great officers of the Empire paid their respects first; then came the diplomatic body. Old Prince Kurakin, who was, as usual, covered with diamonds and decorations, was next to Prince Schwartzenberg and the Spanish Ambassadors. The Emperor made what is called "the circle," having here and there a foreigner presented to him by the Grand Chamberlain; on that day three American citizens were presented. After a while the Emperor walked towards Kurakin and began to converse with him. The Russians were very brave, but they had, he said, been obliged to evacuate Rustchuk, their *tête de pont* on the Danube. It was always better to be on both sides of a river, as he had learned at Lobau. And why did the Russians withdraw their troops from Rustchuk? It was because five divisions had been sent from Turkey to Poland. He did not understand these movements of troops in Poland. "I am," said he, "like the natural man; what I don't understand alarms me." Becoming more excited, he continued: "It is not the Duchy of Oldenburg that occupies you; you think I have designs on Poland; I begin to think that you want to be masters of Warsaw. Don't flatter yourselves; no, if your armies were camped on the hill of Montmartre, I would not cede an inch of the Varsovian territory. I have guaranteed it. You shall have not a village of it, not a mill. I do not think of reconstituting Poland—the interest of my people is not bound up with that country; if you force me into a war, I will use Poland against you." He could bring 800,000 men into line; he had every year 250,000 conscripts at his disposition. Kurakin could not get in a word, he was so moved and terrified. "Why did Russia," said Napoleon, "leave Turkey and turn on Poland? You are like the hare who has received some shot; he rises half mad on his hind legs, exposing his whole body to a new discharge." He thus entertained Kurakin for three-quarters of an hour, giving himself up to a premeditated passion. The poor Prince went away, sweating in his gilded coat, but merely muttering, "It is very warm at his Majesty's!"

Correspondence.

CAPT. JAMES MACKAY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am prompted by the remarks in the *Nation* of the 5th inst., on Prof. Woodrow Wilson's article on "Colonel Washington," in *Harper's* for this month, to mention an error which that writer has fallen into by following too closely the letters of Governor Dinwiddie, who always wrote of Capt. James Mackay and his independent company as from South Carolina. This statement is repeated by Prof. Wilson.

Capt. Mackay came to America as a young officer in Oglethorpe's regiment, and, after serving with that command for some time, he settled upon a tract of land on the Ogeechee River, to which he gave the name Strathy Hall, his home as long as he lived. He held offices of honor and trust in the colony of Georgia, and was for several years a member of the Council of the Royal Governor, Sir James Wright. The frequent reference to him by Governor Dinwiddie as from South Carolina is, therefore, rather remarkable.

General Washington was, however, a little more careful; for, in replying to a letter from Robert Sinclair, a Scotch relation of the Mackays, in 1792, he wrote:

"My acquaintance with Captain Mackay commenced in the year 1754, when I commanded the troops which were sent to prevent the encroachments of the French upon the Western boundaries of the then colonies. Captain Mackay then commanded an Independent Company, either from Georgia or South Carolina, and was captured with me by an army of French and Indians at a place called the Great Meadows. In 1755 he left the service, sold out, and went to Georgia," etc. (See 'Writings of Washington,' edited by Sparks, vol. xii, p. 303.)

Captain Mackay died at Alexandria, Va., early in December, 1785, and his death was thus noticed in the *Georgia Gazette*, Thursday, December 29, 1785: "*Died* lately, at Alexandria, Virginia, James Mackay, Esq., of this State."

Wm. Harden,
Librarian Ga. Hist. Society.

Savannah, March 7, 1896.

THOMAS HUTCHINSON'S 'STRICTURES.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his masterly and noble-minded 'Life of Thomas Hutchinson,' just published by Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Prof. James K. Hosmer gives, on pages 338-339, some account of an anonymous pamphlet issued in London, in the autumn of 1776, entitled 'Strictures upon the Declaration of the Congress at Philadelphia; in a Letter to a Noble Lord, etc.' Very properly, this pamphlet is attributed to Hutchinson by Prof. Hosmer. "The document, though unsigned, gives indisputable internal evidence of its authorship." "That Hutchinson was the author is also the opinion of Dr. George E. Ellis." I have in my hand at this moment the means of placing Hutchinson's authorship of the pamphlet beyond the need of mere inference from internal evidence, namely, the very copy of it which was presented at the time by Hutchinson to his predecessor in office, and bearing on the title-page the inscription, "To Sir Francis Bernard Bar't From the Author." These words are in the well-known handwriting of Hutchinson.

Yours faithfully, Moses Coit Tyler.

Library of Cornell University, March 9, 1896.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'My Confidences,' the autobiography of Frederick Locker-Lampson; a new biography of Madame Roland, by Miss Ida M. Tarbell; 'A Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States,' by F. J. Stimson; 'Agnosticism and Religion,' by President Schurman of Cornell; a 'Hebrew History,' by Dr. Charles F. Kent of Brown University; 'Shakspere and his Predecessors in the English Drama,' by Prof. F. L. Boas of Oxford; and a Walton edition of Dr. Van Dyke's 'Little Rivers,' limited to 150 copies of exquisite make.

'Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages,' by Geo. Haven Putnam, A. M., in two volumes; a second edition of this writer's 'Question of Copyright'; 'The History of Oratory and Orators,' by Henry Hardwicke; the fourth and concluding volume of the Writings of Thomas Paine, edited by Moncure D. Conway, together with a popular edition of the 'Age of Reason'; and a new and enlarged edition of 'The American Crisis,' by Frederick D. Greene, are soon to be issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Frederick Warne have nearly ready 'By Tangled Paths: Stray Leaves from Nature's Byeways,' essays by H. Mead Briggs, arranged in a sort of monthly conspectus.

'Russian Politics' is the title of a work, by Herbert M. Thompson, shortly to be brought out by Henry Holt & Co. Each chapter will conclude with bibliographical references.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will publish 'Southern Side-lights,' a picture of social and economic life in the South during a generation before the war, by Edward Ingle; 'State Railroad Control,' with a history of its development in Iowa, by Frank H. Dixon of Michigan University; 'Taxation and Taxes in the United States under the Internal Revenue System,' by Frederic C. Howe; and 'Proportional Representation,' by Prof. John R. Commons of Syracuse University.

A volume of translations from Euripides, Theocritus, Anacreon, and Sappho, by Miss Jane Minot Sedgwick, is in the press of George H. Richmond.

D. C. Heath & Co. promise a 'Compendium of United States and Contemporary History,' by Annie E. Wilson.

A volume of psychological sketches, 'Six Modern Women,' by Laura Marholm Ramsden, will be issued by Roberts Bros. Duse, Bashkirtseff, Kovalevsky, are three of the six.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces 'Some Representative Poets of the 19th Century,' by Prof. Melville B. Anderson; 'A Sonnet-Book: Being Sonnets about the Sonnet,' selected by Prof. Anderson; 'Four-Leaved Clover,' Stanford University rhymes by Carolus Alger; 'Na-Kupuna: The Hawaiian Legend of Creation,' a poem in three parts; 'Hawaii: A Missionary Republic,' a history from 1820 to the present day; a 'Guide to San Francisco,' by Arthur B. Barendt; and 'The Wild Flowers of California: Their Homes and Habits,' described by Mary Elizabeth Parsons and illustrated by Margaret Warriner Buck.

The Hubbard Publishing Co. have nearly ready 'Turkey and the Armenian Atrocities,' by the Rev. Edwin M. Bliss and others, with many illustrations.

The *Public Opinion* Co., New York, will shortly begin publication of "The Hamilton Facsimiles of Manuscripts," documents which in part at least have a bearing on the Monroe Doctrine and the Cuban question.

The first gun, so to speak, in the literary celebration of the Gibbon centenary is a new edition of the 'Decline and Fall' in seven volumes, edited by J. B. Bury, M. A., Professor of Modern History in Dublin University (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan). The form chosen is a handy duodecimo; the type, large and clear in a broad and somewhat condensed page. Mr. Bury has not abused his prerogative, either by undue expansion of his introduction or by his annotations and corrections. He adduces some interesting examples of Gibbon's painstaking alterations of the second edition both for greater accuracy and with reference to rhetorical improvement, and in a broad way reviews the quality of this classic work in the light of recent scholarship.

That not more instructive than agreeable work, 'The Burman: His Life and Notions' (Macmillan), which for pure entertainment would worthily find a place on the same shelf with the elder Kipling's 'Beast and Man in India,' has just been issued in a second edition substantially unchanged, and in a single volume instead of two. We spoke our praise of it fourteen years ago, and we shall only add that it merited a well-chosen set of photographic illustrations, in harmony with the elegant letterpress.

A new and enlarged edition of the Rev. Dr. E. C. Mitchell's 'Critical Handbook of the Greek New Testament' (Harpers) has just been issued, advantage having been taken of the completion of Dr. Gregory's 'Prolegomena' to Tischendorf's Greek Testament, and of the recent publication of Miller's fourth edition of Scrivener's 'Introduction,' to improve the first edition, published in 1880. The same general plan has been observed; the several parts treating of the authenticity, the canon, and the text of the New Testament. Part iv., about one-half of the volume, consists of thirteen tables and diagrams for reference; the lists of both the uncial and cursive manuscripts being very complete, with fifteen facsimiles. It may surprise some readers to learn how many manuscripts are owned in this country. In noticing the Apostolic Fathers, as Clement and Polycarp, we miss any mention of the late Bishop of Durham's notable editions, and there is a great dearth of references to German works of criticism. We have observed some misprints in proper names, as *Edensheim* (p. 68), *H. B. Sweete*, and *M. R. Jones* (p. 78). The book will prove useful to the student unprovided with more extensive works.

In 1871 Count Benedetti published a volume entitled 'Ma Mission en Prusse.' It contained the most important of his dispatches as French ambassador at Berlin, and his entire correspondence with the Duke de Gramont (Napoleon's Minister of Foreign Affairs) during his mission at Ems, in July, 1870. Attacked by De Gramont, who declared his explanations to be "inexact," and contested his claim to have succeeded in the prime object of his mission, Benedetti prepared, in 1873, a new and in some points fuller statement of his negotiations with the King of Prussia. This statement, which he decided to hold back at the time, because of the death of De Gramont, now appears as the concluding essay in his volume of 'Studies in Diplomacy' (Macmillan); a large portion of a long preface is also devoted to the same historical episode. Nothing of importance in added to the disclosures that Benedetti made in 1871. The rest of the volume contains articles on the movement of European politics before and after the Franco-German war, reprinted from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. The translation is faithful, but not idiomatic.

In his new novel, 'Dernier Refuge' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), M. Édouard Rod again shows himself a vigorous and clever writer. The subject of the story is the favorite one of French novelists, but the share allowed to soul-life is large, preponderating even; and conscience is assigned a serious rôle. The plot is simple, and the characters are few, but strongly marked. At times the account of the inner struggles of the hero and the heroine is drawn out to a dangerous length, but the story as a whole is interesting and not lacking in true pathos.

"Contributions to Biology from the Hopkins Laboratory of Biology," III., published jointly by Stanford University and the California Academy of Science, is a paper of 70 pages and 29 plates on 'The Fishes of Puget Sound,' by Prof. D. S. Jordan and Edwin C. Starks. The work is one of importance. In connection with the names in the list many notes are given. Mainly the work is descriptive; fourteen new species and eight new genera are described, and, besides, there are six new generic names applied to other species. It is to be questioned whether some of the types are sufficiently distinct to warrant separation and higher rank. For instance, the new genus *Zalarges* is founded on a form which from figure or description is hardly separated from *Maurolicus*, of Cocco, 1838; and, judging from the data given, the four new genera, *Podothecus*, *Stelgis*, *Averruncus*, and *Xystes*, will on revision probably be run together.

No. 2 of the "Hopkins Seaside Laboratory Contributions," Stanford University, is an able article of thirty-seven pages and fourteen plates on 'The Cranial Characters of the Rock-Fishes, *Sebastodes*,' by Frank Cramer. The author, as a result of his investigation, rightly disestablishes quite a number of the genera and species into which the genus has heretofore been divided; but he leaves us to wish his comparisons had been carried further, among the differences seen in the skulls of the sexes, for instance. His statement that these fishes abruptly disappear to the southward of the United States to reappear in the temperate and cold waters of western South America, is somewhat incorrect; they retire to greater depths under the tropics—that is all.

The 'Catalogue of Scientific Papers' compiled by the Royal Society of London (London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan) is concluded in the newly issued eleventh volume (Pet-Zyb). We may remind our readers that the papers here indexed, by author-title solely, are for the decade 1874–1883. Among the weightiest English names is that of Lord Kelvin (Sir William Thomson), and a large number of entries occur under the names of our countrymen, the late C. V. Riley, and Henry A. Rowland, J. A. Ryder, N. S. Shaler, Charles A. White, Burt G. Wilder, etc. A few pages are devoted at the end to anonymous writers, and thus the 900th page of this superb publication is overpassed.

Legislation by States in 1895, briefly summarized and classified and thoroughly indexed, forms the New York State Library Bulletin "Legislation No. 6," a volume of more than 300 pages. This incomparably useful annual comparison is a perfect key to the more or less blind and wayward, largely imitative, and savingly if sparingly original and beneficent law-making in thirty-seven States and two Territories for the year just past. The student of tendencies could have no handier compendium, and it ought to be a check on all contemplated legislation. It will be sent to any address from the State Library at Albany for 35 cents. A new feature is a list of constitutional amendments voted on in 1894 and 1895, as well as those now pending.

Attention has heretofore been called in these columns to the merits of the German literary periodical *Euphorion*. The first number for 1896 (third volume) is fully equal to its predecessors in wealth and variety of material. There are contributions relating to Geibel, Fischart, Lenau, Jean Paul, and several minor writers; a first instalment of a series of papers on W. von Humboldt (including some hitherto unpublished letters to Schiller), by Albert Leitzmann of Weimar; some fifty pages are devoted to Goethe—Richard M. Meyer, one of his ablest recent biographers, contributing a number of "notes," and Georg Witkowski of Leipzig, reviews (not all complimentary) of five recent books on Goethe. As many as two hundred periodicals, journals, "Beilagen," etc., have been ransacked for articles on subjects pertaining to German literature, yielding a harvest so rich and varied that it would be strange if every student of that literature did not find something of especial interest for him. The number of these titles and references cannot be far from a thousand. We renounce the task of even giving a complete summary of the contents of the number.

The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte* for September-October, 1895, makes up for less than usual wealth of reading-matter by a large number of reproductions after unbackneyed works of worthy masters. Several of Gaudenzio Ferrari's altar-pieces are published as illustrations to an article by Signor Giulio Bonola, on a triptych at Borgomanero. Signor Supino continues his admirable study of the Pisan sculptors with a paper on Nino and Tommaso. Sig. Calzini draws attention to the ducal palace at Gubbio, now dilapidated—its best carvings carried off to South Kensington—tottering, like the splendid town it once commanded, to a squalid ruin, but originally built, with scarcely less splendor than its more fortunate rival at Urbino, for the same Duke Frederic and by the same architect, Luciano Laurano. An even more sumptuous structure, built some sixty years later, the castle at Trent, still remains intact, with its exquisitely carved columns of Verona marble, its gorgeous ceilings, and its brilliant frescoes by Dosso, Romanino, and Girolamo da Treviso, cared for by the Austrian authorities, who now use it as a barracks, in a way that should be a lesson to the fussy and slovenly art-commissioners of Italy. Signor H. Semper publishes a number of documents furnishing the names of most of the artists employed on this structure, and the precise date of their employment. Several book notices, with copious reproductions after Borgognone, Cossa, and Girolamo da Treviso, complete the number.

Some weeks ago we noted the discovery at Pompeii of the finest and most richly furnished house which the excavations there have brought to light. Good representations of some of the pictures on its walls appear in a late number of *L'Illustration*. One of these, a "Flying Group," composed of the figures of two women, half nude, veiled only by floating drapery, is most remarkable. It is full not only of grace, but of character and strength. Most of the paintings at Pompeii are no more than copies of celebrated pictures reproduced by clever hands; but this last fresco appears to be the original work of a serious artist. The house, which belonged to the opulent family of the Vettii, is to be preserved with all its luxury of decoration untouched. The pictures will be protected against rain and sun by glasses and awnings; the statues will be left on their pedestals, and the furniture and other objects will remain as they were found. It is expected that the same rule will be applied to all houses discovered hereafter, and this will add greatly to their interest.

The first volume of Henri Rochefort's 'Aventures de ma Vie' has been published by Paul Dupont, and within five days reached its eleventh edition. This is one of the greatest *succès de libraire* for long years. The buyers of the volume can hardly, one would say, have followed its chapters as they have appeared daily in *Le Jour*. There is a distinct lack in them of the vivacity and wit which characterize other writings of M. Rochefort, and they contain, too, a good deal of padding. M. Rochefort means to stretch his memoirs out to the extent of four volumes, and he uses his material with a sparing hand.

Scholars who have consulted at Venice the catalogue of manuscripts in the Marcian Library, have been aware at least of a manuscript appendix summarily describing the Greek codices acquired since 1740. These codices have now, under the auspices of the Minister of Public Instruction and the direction of Castellani, prefect of the library, begun to be described bibliographically in print. The first volume to appear takes up No. 78, being the MSS. relating to the Bible and its interpreters. It is provided with an index of codices and another of names. Such of the codices as are dated have their characters facsimiled, with obvious advantage to the study of palæography.

The Museum of Natural History at Vienna has for a long time been in possession of an Egyptian mummy which was a puzzle to the savants. Its case resembled closely those which contain human remains, and yet the inscriptions upon the outside gave reason to suppose that it was the mummy of an ibis. It was so rare an object that the authorities of the museum were disinclined to open it and unroll its bandages Recently, however, the idea seized them of taking it to the new school of photography, or "skiagraphy," whereupon the Röntgen rays revealed very clearly the figure of the skeleton of a great bird.

A national Hungarian Millennium Exhibition will be opened on May 2 at Budapest by the Emperor-King in person, who will also be among the exhibitors in this display, in two sections, of "the intellectual and commercial condition of Hungary in past ages and at the present time." The Sultan of Turkey, by a certain irony, will also be a contributor. Fêtes and historical pageants within the walls of the Exhibition, in connection with a peasant village, will heighten the general interest. The architecture of the great building will be commemorative. Tourists may, therefore, well direct their steps to an historic city which in itself amply repays a visit.

—A remarkable collection is to be offered the coming week by auction. It is known as "The Frossard Revolutionary Collection," and includes, among other things, the so-called Trumbull collection of sketches, with a large addition of arms, relics, and mementoes belonging to Trumbull, the artist, and to Gen. Washington and his family. We looked with some curiosity at the owner's "proem" to the catalogue, hoping to find some proofs of the authenticity of these relics. They have been in the market for some years, and all efforts to trace them through a rather doubtful financial operation to Trumbull have failed. The internal evidence is against their being genuine productions of Trumbull's pen or brush; their historical value is worthless, as they represent impossible scenes and depict individuals in grotesque forms and situations. Astonishing as are the claims made in behalf of the sketches, still more astonishing are the descriptions of the relics and mementoes, each one of which seems to have been carefully described by Trumbull himself, as if he had prepared a full inventory of all his effects, however minute or insignificant. As examples: "Brass fire pan, brought to this country by General Lafayette, and used by him during the war. He presented it to General Lee, who afterwards gave it to me. J. T." An old tray brought from Scotland by P. Henry's father was presented to Trumbull by Patrick Henry, as was a brass blunderbuss. An old lock, presented by Gen. Washington to J. T., purports to have been "brought from England from his (G.W.'s) father's" house! This is but one degree removed from Mark Twain's Fragment of a Russian General. We are treated to Gen. Washington's wash-pan; also to three locks of hair; and an even more remarkable drawing in oil of Martha Dandridge at the age of eight and a half years, painted by John Smybert in 1741! Any one who has even a smattering of Revolutionary history and knowledge of the relations which existed between Gen. Washington and his staff and generals, will find great amusement from a study of this catalogue, and may be recommended to obtain a copy.

—Of late, honors are being lavished upon Herr Adolf Menzel, both at home and abroad; tardy recognition of his greatness as an artist, as well as of the influence he has had upon the development of modern illustration. The most recent distinction, his election as honorary foreign member of the English Royal Academy, is, of all, the most unexpected, since the Academy has always ignored black-and-white, and Menzel, distinguished illustrator as he is, cannot be thought anything but a most indifferent painter. However, the important point is that the attention he deserves has been called to him, so that his name is enjoying a prominence never granted to it before. No moment, therefore, could be

more appropriate for the appearance of the volume on Menzel in the *Künstler-Monographien* series (Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing), prepared by Professor Knackfuss, the but little known artist who suddenly blossomed into notoriety by his collaboration with the German Emperor in that well-advertised, much-talked-about allegorical picture. Whatever may be one's opinion of the painting, there is certainly no question that the monograph is admirably done. No other book about Menzel contains such a representative series of his drawings, and these are, after all, the best and most significative record of his life's work. They begin with his early and not very interesting lithographs, done in the days before he had found French wood-engravers, and had trained German artists, who could reproduce his designs on the wood block. Then follow illustrations from the Works and History of Frederick the Great, which must ever remain the chief monument to his genius. There are a number of his wonderful battle-fields, and of his portraits of famous men; above all, that little masterpiece which shows the famous round table at Sans-Souci, with Frederick and Voltaire sitting side by side. There are single figures from 'The Uniforms of Frederick the Great.' There are numerous studies, leaves torn from his sketch-book. There is, in a word, enough to give those who have not seen the original books he illustrated some idea of his knowledge, his power, his conscientiousness, and his infinite variety as a draughtsman. The reproductions by process are fairly well done and excellently printed, while all necessary facts and dates are duly chronicled in the text by Professor Knackfuss. To its other merits the little book adds that of cheapness: it costs but three marks in Germany. Altogether, it will serve as a useful catalogue to all students of Menzel.

—The French Academy, upon the motion of its venerated *doyen*, M. Legouvé, has just revived what is known as "la discussion des titres." When a candidate presents himself to the Académie des Sciences or the Académie des Inscriptions, it is the custom to discuss his qualifications for membership in the Institute. Then, at a second meeting, his name is voted on. This has not hitherto been the rule at the French Academy. Candidates for the Academy have made, as a matter of rigorous custom, a call upon each of the actual Immortals to ask his suffrage; at the time of election the names proposed were voted on without debate. This will be changed in the future, and the title of candidates to membership in the Academy will be discussed before the vote is taken. This is not the first time that M. Legouvé has put forward the present plan of discussion, nor in fact the first time that he has carried it. He proposed the change in 1868, and it was adopted in spite of the opposition of Guizot, who afterwards, however, changed his mind upon the subject. While it was in force, the names of four candidates came up, each of which gave occasion to fierce debates. Violent opposition was made to the election of Littré, of Renan, of Taine, and of Alexandre Dumas. If there is to be a French Academy at all, it would certainly seem that such men as these should be members of it; but M. Legouvé appears to think that unless there had been free discussion of their titles to membership, not one of them would have been elected. This discussion was given up some time about 1879, after the election of the Duc d'Audiffret-Pasquier, and just before that of M. Maxime Du Camp. "C'est trop tard ou trop tôt," a wit said. M. Legouvé had at the Academy the support of M.A. Mézières, who was his seconder, and of MM. Gréard, Brunetière, and Jules Simon; but the literary men, as a whole, were against him—why, one does not exactly see; or at least one sees no good reason. It was said that they feared, since few of them are good speakers, that they would not be very well able to back their friends in the debates.

—M. Legouvé supported his proposition in a speech full of interest and of charm, which has since been printed at length in the *Temps*. He has just passed his eighty-ninth birthday, and has been a member of the Academy for more than forty years. But the only sign of age which his speech shows lies in its ripe wisdom and in the tolerance and understanding which length of days ought to bring. It is delightful to read what he has to say of Littré, and of Dupanloup as well; of De Sacy and Guizot, as well as of Renan, Taine, and Dumas. Towards the end, he rises to a noble eloquence; pleading for a deeper feeling of confraternity among members of the Academy, and for a wider tolerance of younger men still outside it, and for at least some desire to understand and appreciate their work. No more sympathetic words have been addressed to the younger school of French writers than these of the venerable and venerated dean of the Academy.

—Marceau, the young general of the French Republic who was killed in battle at the early age of twenty-seven, after having risen to the rank of general and distinguished himself in many campaigns and many battles, is one of the most attractive figures in the military history of the French Revolution. Born in the same year as Napoleon, and but a few months later than Hoche, his early career was full of promise for the future, and, had he lived, he might have attained to a fame equal to theirs. But the Fates willed otherwise, and the name of Marceau recalls rather brilliant promise left lamentably unfulfilled than splendid achievement. More than one excellent biography of Marceau has been published in France, and it is with no desire to depreciate the good will and hard work of Capt. T. G. Johnson shown in his 'François Séverin Marceau, 1769–1796' (Macmillan), that we express our opinion that a translation of one of the recent biographies —of that by M. Parfait, for instance, or that by M. Maze—would have been more welcome than his original compilation from their volumes. Capt. Johnson is not very much at home in the recent literature of the French Revolution, and, indeed, it could hardly be expected that an officer bearing the letters I. S. C., indicating that he belongs to the Indian Staff Corps, after his name, should be so, and it would therefore have been wiser for him to translate rather than to attempt an original work. The setting of the biography is somewhat defective, and the author's use of authorities somewhat quaint, quoting, as he does, Alison as an authority, and praising the old-fashioned and theatrical work of Beauchamp on the Vendéan war as "impartial"; but the events of Marceau's life are correctly given, with an enthusiastic estimate of his most attractive personality. Since there exists, to our knowledge, no other biography of Marceau of any length in the English language, Capt. Johnson's volume may be read with interest and profit by those who are so unfortunate as not to be able to read French, but it is evidently not intended to appeal to the scholar or to the student, since it is without that most necessary part of an historical work, an index.

—Excepting an appendix on Superficial Anatomy, the new (tenth) edition of Quain's 'Anatomy' (edited by Professors Schäfer and Thane, and published by the Longmans) is now complete. The three volumes comprise eight parts, which may be had separately. Pending a review of the entire work, it may be said here that the two extremes of excellence are represented by the parts on the Nerves and the Sense Organs respectively. Not that, in the former, inaccuracies or omissions are many or great, or that there are wanting commendable features, *e. g.*, the diagrams and tables on pp. 344–356. But there are fewest evidences of progress in respect to method and terminology. The complex cranial nerves precede the simpler spinal. That anatomic bugbear, the brachial plexus, is portrayed on too small a scale and without designation of fundamental features, the so-called "trunks" and "cords." Instead of the brief yet comprehensive designation, *vagus*, the clumsy yet descriptively incomplete *pneumo gastric* is evidently preferred, although there are perplexing and inexplicable inconsistencies, as on p. 269. The author is apparently in a state of toponymic transition, for, while systematically describing the thoracic nerves as "dorsal," and their ventral and dorsal roots and branches as "anterior" and "posterior," he nevertheless (as at the foot of p. 269) uses the modern and exact phrases "ventro-lateral" and "dorso-laterally," and then, as if alarmed at his own explicitness, suddenly relapses into the ambiguities that have so long constituted the opprobrium of anatomic teachers and the stumbling-blocks of their pupils. Professor Schäfer's account of the organs of sense is admirable and is well illustrated by 178 figures, many of them new. The facts and ideas of the new histology are everywhere apparent. The concluding "comparison of the modes of arrangement of sensory cells and nerve fibres in the different organs of special sense" might well have been in larger type. Professor Schäfer has reëdited the histologic portion of the part on Splanchnology, but the gross anatomy has been largely rewritten by Dr. J. Symington, who has also added many excellent figures. The "Recent Literature" of each subject is a very helpful feature of this as of all the other parts. The phrases "alimentary canal" and "mucous membrane" recur with wearisome effect—the latter, for example, five times in fifteen consecutive lines. Why not use the unmistakable single words, *enteron* and *mucosa*, the latter practically warranted by the use of *submucosa* on p. 90?

—We cannot be too often reminded that no farther away than the waist of our own continent there lies, almost wholly neglected by American archæologists, a vast and splendid range of ancient ruins of the first class. Few tourists there have been so well fitted to judge them as Wm. H. Holmes, who visited Yucatan in January and February, 1895. His 'Monuments of Yucatan' (Part I. of "Archæological Studies among the Ancient Cities of Mexico") is of value as an authoritative fresh reminder how important are the Yucatec remains, and how imminent the need of serious, definitive study of them before the pry of tropic roots and the quarrying *paisano* shall have undone them past understanding. Probably nowhere else are such splendid vestiges going to wrack so swiftly. While Mr. Holmes's tour was too hasty and too conventional to throw much new light

on this impressive field, he has done large service in re-emphasizing so clearly the need of examination on Bandelierian lines—one ruin at a time (not necessarily the most sensational one first); measurement, excavation; study of and through present natives; all lighted by the broadest horizon of documentary and field experience. The proof-reading of the book is hardly creditable to the Field Columbian Museum, of which it is publication 8; and there are traces of other carelessness. Misspellings like "Le Plongon" may happen, but endemic bad grammar should not persist. Verb and substantive quarrel in number with surprising frequency. The Spanish is often incorrect, *e. g.*, "Isla Mugeres" (p. 57). To speak of Indians as "the red race" is no longer tolerable in a scholar. The Indian is brown and calls *us* red, with a perception we might wisely learn. The "tigers" which figure in Yucatec architecture are of course jaguars, not tigers, and the author should hardly have been misled by the loose frontier Spanish *tigre*. To use without quotation-points or other danger-signals such words as "Cities," "Governor," "Palace," "Nunnery," with reference to the prehistoric Indian economies, is hardly more scientific than to say (p. 19) that the Yucatec tribes "finally lost their status as nations." Nor can Mr. Holmes have had in memory the far more numerous and vastly greater *huacas* of Peru when he wrote of Yucatan (p. 31): "No nation of builders, save possibly the Mound-builders of the Mississippi Valley, has ever equalled this people in the number, variety, and size of its terraces and pyramids." The illustrations are effective, though the panoramas are of much license.

THE YELLOWSTONE PARK.

The Yellowstone National Park: Historical and Descriptive. Illustrated with maps, views, and portraits. By Hiram Martin Chittenden, Captain, Corps of Engineers, U. S. A. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1895 8vo, pp. xvi, 397, 66 illustrations.

A WORK which can be appropriately dedicated to the memories of John Colter and James Bridger, "pioneers in the wonderland of the Upper Yellowstone," excites our interest in these worthies, and we enter at once upon the historical part of Capt. Chittenden's admirable monograph. This occupies about a third of the work; it is entirely original, the net result of much conscientious research, brings news to most readers, and possesses permanent value. Most of the voluminous Park literature is merely descriptive, or of the guide-book order, in which patriotism and politics are rapturously invoked with an eye to business; the present work is distinctively a solid contribution to knowledge. The author is one of several engineers to whom we owe the good roads through the Park; he is thoroughly familiar with its minutest details of topography; he has informed himself fully concerning the legislation for and administration of its affairs, as well as of all the schemes for spoiling this eminent domain; he is an excellent practical geographer, and he writes so well that we might suppose the present volume to be no maiden effort, did we not happen to know that it is such. By this single work Capt. Chittenden makes himself our highest authority on the subject, and, as we premised, his special merit is that of the histogeographer.

The origin of the English, French, and Spanish forms of the name is set a little back of Lewis and Clark, and traced to the Hidatsan word meaning "rock yellow river." The obscure trail of Verendrye, about the middle of the last century, is of course crossed, but we have nothing definite to go upon till the time when the traders first came down from the Assiniboine to the Mandan settlements on the Missouri. The visit of the great geographer Thompson, 1799, is a turning-point, but we know that the N. W. Co. had sent men there before, in 1793 or earlier, and it is certain that some of the H. B. Co. were on the spot some years sooner. However, Thompson's Mandan visit was the first that bore any historical or geographical fruit; the word "Yellow Stone" appears in his unpublished MSS., and it seems from calculations furnished to the author by Dr. Coues that he even fixed the source of the great river with approximate precision. The first white man ever in the Park was John Colter, who invaded the haunts of the Tukuarika, or Sheepeaters, in 1807, and discovered the two principal lakes in the Park, which Clark in 1814 called Eustis and Biddle—that is, present Yellowstone and Jackson Lakes. The map opposite p. 11 traces "Colter's route of 1807," among many other historical data of the utmost significance, and removes nearly or quite all the haze in which it was left even in the latest edition of Lewis and Clark. Colter was chiefly known to his contemporaries as the colossal liar who had the race for his life recorded by Bradbury and improved on by Irving; but "Colter's Hell" is located, and Colter takes permanent place in history for all that his Lewis and Clark record proves him to have been before he made on his own account his immortal discovery. This pioneer, of course, opened the whole trapper and trader period; and, passing the enigma of "J. O. R. 1819," we are taken on to the times when the figure of "Jim" Bridger looms up.

Bridger was a remarkable man, who never came fully into his own while he lived. He told the truth about "wonderland," but nobody believed him; he was called the "monumental liar of the Rocky Mountains," and perversely took revenge on his calumniators by deliberately making himself such, till Baron Munchausen must have turned in his grave. Capt. Chittenden tells some of these stories, and in comparison with them the "gyascutus" becomes a tame animal of entire probability! But all that we can understand; Bridger's pedestal is secure, and his further title to fame rests upon the fact that he led on to the next period, that of official exploration and survey, when the soldier and—not the priest, as usual in French and Spanish America, but—the scientist, followed the trapper and trader: for Bridger was guide to Capt. Raynolds's expedition of 1859-60, which Dr. Hayden accompanied as geologist. A small map shows the sources of the Yellowstone as understood at this time, when actual discovery was frustrated—fortunately, as the text proceeds to show, for reasons we can hardly find space to specify: suffice it, they appear clear and cogent. The prospector followed next, and the course of discovery went on in the way which was vainly expected to lead to the yellow sand of the gold-seeker's restless dreams. This wonderland does not exist; and the awakening was due to final discovery by three separate parties who visited the region in 1869, 1870, and 1871, respectively. By discovery the author means, he says, "full and final disclosure to the world" of the Yellowstone wonderland. All the particulars are given with minuteness and fidelity, but it is obviously impossible for us to follow them out here; nor would it be fair to tell so much that anybody should be satisfied without reading the book for himself.

At this point comes up the "park idea." Captain Chittenden handles this delicate theme as the conscientious and impartial historical critic should handle such a topic. The enthusiastic Catlin is easily shown to have suggested some park, but not this one. The specific idea started in camp at the junction of Gibbon with Firehole River, September 19, 1870, among members of the Washburn-Doane expedition, which included Gen. Henry D. Washburn, Hon. Nathaniel P. Langford, Hon. Cornelius Hedges (actually the prime suggester of what then shaped itself in the minds of the whole of them), Hon. Truman C. Everts, Hon. Samuel T. Hauser, and other civilians, with Lieut. G. C. Doane, Second Cavalry, commanding the military escort. The wonders which those great mountain ranges and snowy abysses had guarded for ages in secret were by this time fully disclosed; the rush to clutch laurels became something that neither beaver skin nor gold itself could have caused—it was more like the eruption of a geyser. Captain Chittenden needed all his caution and calmness to tread safely here, but he has come off well. In following up the political history he shows that the bill was steered through Congress mainly by the efforts of three men—Dr. Hayden, Mr. Langford, and W. H. Clagett. In judging the halo of the first of these three, a very ungracious duty at best, we think that Captain Chittenden has not strained his quality of mercy in striving to be just, particularly when we remember that most of the Congressional matters which popular tradition labels "Hayden" have the ear-marks of "Jim" Stevenson and "Black Jack" (Gen. John A. Logan). But this case is a peculiar one. In this part of his task, and also elsewhere in the book, where the biographies of Mr. Langford, Dr. Hayden, and Col. Stevenson are sketched, the author has acquitted himself most creditably; he has shown tact, discernment, and impartiality, and his verdict must be regarded as final.

After discussing the reasons why the Upper Yellowstone remained fortunately so long unknown, the author rapidly reviews explorations subsequent to 1871. They have been many, notable for various reasons; probably the most historically significant matters are those connected with the Nez-Percé campaign, when that great soldier and humanitarian, Chief Joseph, was pursued by such worthy foes as Gens. Howard, Gibbon, Sturgis, and Miles. The administrative history of the Park, including the Park dedicatory and protective acts, is set forth in sufficient detail, and with the same precision which marks the treatment of the other matters upon which we have touched. This concludes the formally historical Part I., but by no means finishes Capt. Chittenden's histogeographic labors. For these are resumed in another part of the book, so important that we wonder why it was relegated to the limbo of Appendix A. It is an integral part of the whole performance, being nothing less than an historical review of the several hundred geographical names of the Park mountains, lakes, rivers, geysers, and miscellaneous topographic and hydrographic features. There are probably more names to the square mile in the Park than in most of our settled districts of equal area, though there is not a single town or even hamlet, and the artificial features are practically restricted to a military post, some hotels, and the roads or trails, including, of course, bridges. The author has taken great pains with the always difficult task of tracing such names to their sources; his work is here entirely original, and he is to be felicitated on the amount of accurate information he has gar-

nered. On analysis of his lists, the names will be found to fall nearly all in two classes—the "personal" and the "characteristic." People had forgotten about the Gardiner for whom a main tributary now appears to have been named, and few could have guessed that "Heart" Lake was named, before 1870, for an old hunter, possibly one of Bonneville's men, named Hart Hunney, killed by the Crows in 1872. Bunsen Peak suggests the great scientist who investigated geysers and many other things; but how many of us knew that Kepler Cascade was so called for the twelve-year-old son of ex-Gov. J. W. Hoyt of Wyoming? No part of the book is better done than this, and none represents so much information in equal compass; it is admirable, and we should wonder why it was never done before, did we not know that in general admirable things are slow to mature. In some of these cases, the author gives extensive biographical data respecting the persons concerned, with their portraits in many instances. But long as is the list of claimants for this sort of fame, the author wittily reminds us, p. 287, that the Devil distanced them all:

"In the race for the geographical honors of the Park, the prize fell neither to the United States Geological Survey nor even to Colonel Norris [the irrepressible second superintendent], though each was a close competitor. It was won by that mythical potentate of whose sulphurous empire this region is thought by some to be simply an outlying province."

The reaction from this sort of thing was healthy and in good taste; it gave us the "characteristic" names, by studied efforts to carry out a system of geographical nomenclature which should shun personalities, with gratifying result In these instances the tracing of a name to its source was generally easy, as it was mainly a mere matter of fixing a date, easily found in official records. The christening of the geysers the author regards as having been "singularly fortunate." There was no system; those interesting objects seem to have named themselves, spontaneously and as a rule felicitously, either in their characteristic modes of action, their shapes, sizes, or colors. One of the neatest names in the whole list strikes us as being that of Solution Creek, as the issue of Riddle Lake; for the latter was never understood till the former was discovered.

About a third of the work is occupied by Part II., which is formally descriptive. It is interesting and attractive, particularly when the author is taking us over the tourist routes he helped to make and pointing out the "objects of interest." The Baedeker feature will commend itself to the average reader, and is an indispensable part of the work, but has not the great value and significance of nearly all the rest, for in the nature of the case it could hardly give us anything new. It is strongest in its general geography, weakest in the fauna and flora, weak in geology, and excellent in describing and explaining the geysers; in scenic effect, of course, the cañon and the falls take precedence. This portion is fully illustrated with views, with most of which the public is already familiar. An excellent folding-map shows by name and with great accuracy almost every point on which the author touches. This is better than any other we have seen, with the single exception of one of probably equal excellence issued by the present Geological Survey; Chittenden's is not quite so large a sheet, but is plain in its minutest details, and these are extremely numerous. Yet we must insist that the little page-size "historical chart" opposite p. 11 is a still more important contribution to knowledge, and the most notable single feature of the work.

Part III. deals with the future of the Park. It discloses all the greed and selfishness of incessant scheming to destroy the place and defeat its purpose, whether by railroad encroachment, change of boundary, "segregation," or whatever specious pretext, as well as by the open lawlessness of poaching. Connected with this important matter, we find in an appendix the legislation and regulations now in force, the appropriations made, and other data for correct appreciation of the political situation. We hope Capt. Chittenden's wise and sound counsels will be heeded; they cannot be disregarded with impunity, unless the Park idea is to be abandoned. The railroad lobby has always been peculiarly plausible, persistent, and pernicious; but it is enough to hear in this case the declaration of the present able and fearless military superintendent, Capt. George S. Anderson: "Six months from the entrance of the first locomotive within the limits of the Park, there will not be one acre of its magnificent forests left unburned." The segregation subterfuge is met by the author in italics: "*Never permit the boundaries of the Yellowstone Park to be brought down into the valleys.*" No one can read his summary of the present case and future prospects without being impressed with its force.

We can challenge the date 1787 assigned (p. 33) to the old Northwest Company, and substitute 1784 with good reason; we also suspect that the Ducharne of p. 41 is one of the many Ducharmes who figure in the fur trade. But we have no disposition to pick small holes in such a piece of work as this. The Bibliography with which the book closes is in very bad form; any other order of the entries, or none at all, would have been preferable to the odd derangement which displays nothing so clearly as it does the hand of a novice at this particular business. It is fearfully and wonderfully compounded of a subject-index by catch-titles with an author-index to itself, in a single alphabet, together with some other surprising strokes of misguided genius which defy description. However, it makes only a dozen pages or so, easily mastered in a few minutes; and one result of our scrutiny is, that probably about 250 separate Park publications are represented by the 162 numbered entries in this curiously constructed puzzle. Aside from the innumerable fugitive pieces which the author did not intend to include, 250 publications may approximate the total of special Park books and articles of any consequence; and in closing we may apply balm to the wound we have just made by saying that certainly no future writer on the Yellowstone National Park can appear before the public in any serious performance without having first reckoned with Capt. Chittenden.

HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN.

Hans Christian Andersen: A Biography. By R. Nisbet Bain. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

Stories and Fairy Tales by Hans Christian Andersen. Translated by H. Oskar Sommer. With 100 Pictures by Arthur J. Gaskin. 2 vols. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

"My life is a beautiful fairy tale, happy and full of incident," wrote Andersen at the beginning of his autobiography; and yet, although it is twenty years since he died, no adequate life of the poet had appeared in English until Mr. Bain took up the fascinating theme. His treatment of the subject lacks, of course, the charm of the autobiographic pen, but it gives us instead a faithful picture of the man, in which, behind the childish vanity, the silly sensitiveness, and the flabby sentimentality, Andersen's genuine worth and amiability are steadily apparent. It was not difficult to make the narrative entertaining, but to preserve a discriminating balance between the whining, gushing, girlish man and the "good old poet" whom the people loved and kings delighted to honor, must have been no easy task. So relentless is Mr. Bain's presentation of the character that we have at times suspected him of a lack of sympathy with his hero; but close beside each instance of Andersen's folly some wholly generous trait appears, and we are drawn to him again, as when for a winning look or word we caress the child whom we thought to punish. The common source of all his faults and follies will be found in his excessive vanity, and as the autobiography of a vain man is the least trustworthy of human documents, Mr. Bain has placed his main reliance upon the extensive correspondence now available and upon the testimony of contemporaries.

Andersen was born in 1805 in the ancient city of Odense on the island of Fünen. Unlike most men of strong imaginative powers, his "Lust zu fabuliren" came not from his mother, though she appears to have had more wit and intelligence than Mr. Bain gives her credit for, but from his father, whose disappointed literary ambition was realized in the career of his son. In his early years Andersen was hampered by extreme poverty and in a measure also by his unprepossessing appearance. He passed through the struggles of his youth with a noble, if somewhat eccentric, perseverance. His personal appearance he himself never regarded as a disadvantage, for he thought himself distinguished-looking; but the vision of this long, lank, strangely clad youth, with his gawky ardor of speech and action, must have given many a would-be benefactor pause. The first person to whom he appealed in Copenhagen, when he went to the capital to seek his fortune, thought him mad and dismissed him summarily. Even in later years his singular looks and manner seemed to Victor Hugo so suspicious that, in response to Andersen's request for his autograph, Hugo wrote his name at the *top* of the sheet of paper. But, throughout his career, the chief stumbling-block was his inordinate vanity. His impatience of criticism, his blind confidence in the infallibility of his genius, his mad outbursts under just censure, excited the contempt and ridicule of his enemies and threatened to alienate his closest friends. He had, it is true, many crosses to bear, but the man who wears his heart upon his sleeve must not wonder if the daws peck at it. Robert Louis Stevenson speaks of Andersen as "thrilling from top to toe with an excruciating vanity, and scouting even along the streets for the shadows of offence." The late Prof. Boyesen called this a "cruel observation," but Boyesen himself, and now with much ampler details, Mr. Bain, have shown that Stevenson's characterization was essentially correct. Andersen's friends were obliged to treat him like a sick child, and, on the occasion of each new paroxysm of wounded vanity, procure for him the means to gratify his passion for travel. Collins, his life-long friend, sometimes took him in hand, condemned his conceit, and warn-

ed him against the dangers of hypersensitiveness; but these salutary counsels only caused a fresh access of "hysterical whimpering." Unfriendly criticism made him "forget his God," and cherish thoughts "which no Christian ought to have." His first wish upon reading an adverse comment was to die, preferably abroad, far from hated and unappreciative Denmark. To him the towers of Copenhagen were "pointed like critics' pens." Indeed, his native land fares ill whenever one of her sons fails to enjoy his poetry. His rage reaches its climax in a letter of 1843: "The Danes are evil-minded, cold, Satanic. They exactly suit their wet, mouldy-green islands. I hate and loathe my country just as much as my country hates and bespatters me." It is fair to say, however, that he regretted this outburst.

Unfavorable criticism he attributed to envy, malice, or stupidity; once he denounced it as flat blasphemy, thus impiously to deny the gifts which God had given him. Although praise usually made him modest, his sensitiveness increased with his fame. He believed himself a great dramatist; his many failures taught him no wisdom, and occasional success confirmed him in his folly. He insisted that he was the victim of a conspiracy; that in his life-long effort to obtain a foothold upon the stage he had been defeated by a clique. Mr. Bain conclusively shows the absurdity and even ingratitude of this suspicion. Never was a man more generously assisted in his dramatic enterprises than was Andersen, but the vagaries of his vanity constantly led him to seek the causes of his failures outside of himself, and so exposed him to the charge of ingratitude. He resented the death of his kind benefactor, the good old King Frederick VI., as a personal grievance, because the *première* of the "Mulatto" had to be postponed in consequence. Similarly, for all the praise with which his novel of 'O. T.' was greeted he had no word of thanks; he heard only the voice of one malignant and anonymous critic. In 'The Story of My Life,' Andersen poses as a man of genius made wretched by cruel neglect, whereas his letters of the corresponding dates frequently show that he was enjoying some of the happiest triumphs of his life.

His vanity was the source of other foibles. It led him, though one of the most refined of men, into offences against good taste and into schemes of self-advertisement which were little short of vulgarity. Nor can he be entirely cleared of the charge of snobbishness. He loved to display the decorations which royal hands had placed upon his bosom, and his fervid patriotism during the Schleswig-Holstein war was yet not fierce enough to induce him to relinquish the Prussian Order of the Red Eagle. He was delighted when kings addressed him; and the moments he had spent beside a Grand Duke, holding his hand and shedding tears, furnished him with the sweetest joys of recollection. He refused to be classed with the common people, and was indignant at being obliged to sit at the theatre "beside the man who trims my hair." And when in his old age a statue was erected in his honor, he strongly objected to being portrayed as an old man, surrounded by children. "Children alone cannot represent me," he exclaimed.

"With all his ridiculous and irritating follies and foibles, Andersen was always the most lovable of creatures." Thus does Mr. Bain judiciously temper his candid statement of the man's faults with a full recognition of his amiable qualities. Simple as Andersen's character was, it was yet full of contradictions. With a nature of transparent truthfulness, his autobiography is a tissue of misrepresentations; generous and warm hearted to a degree, he nevertheless censured severely upon slight provocation; of unmistakable sincerity, he formed ill considered judgments on all manner of subjects, and his opinions were for the most part worthless; deeply grateful for every kindness, the lightest word of remonstrance could turn his thanks into complaints; filled with a childlike faith in all men, he suspected the motives of any who withheld from him unmeasured praise. He was fond of animals, but the revolting cruelties of the bull-fight pleased him by their theatric picturesqueness. Himself a child and always immature, with the keenest appreciation of child life and character, he nevertheless had no love for children, was generally embarrassed in their company, frequently avoided them, disliked to read to them, and was in turn regarded by them more with alarm than affection. His sympathy with childhood was a quality of his art and not of his nature.

This man was the author of the Fairy Tales, the first collection of which appeared in 1835. They won their way slowly. Two only among the leaders of Danish literature seem to have recognized their lasting value. The author himself set no store by them; they are "as good as nothing," he said, "a mere sleight of hand with Fancy's apples." But as their fame spread through Europe, his eyes were opened, and in later times he professed to have known their merit from the first. Fairy tales have been told and sung since speech was and fancy wrought, but never before had the whole of creation, inanimate as well as animate, been invested with such whimsical individuality and powers of appropriate language. Andersen's tales have the naïveté of the natural product with the beauty of artistic finish. They serve one of the highest purposes of literature: they keep the heart young, and in this rejuvenating power lies the assurance of their immortality. During a period of nearly forty years, Andersen continued from time to time to send his "benevolent little house elves" into the world. Though by no means the greatest of Denmark's poets, he was the first to attain universal fame. His Tales found their way to farthest India, where the "Story of a Mother" was a special favorite. America hailed them with delight, and misinformed enthusiasm started a subscription for their author, who was thought to be in poverty. Old and young were alike fascinated. "Won't you give us wee ones another tale?" the burly Thorwaldsen used to beg, and Andersen's readings of his own stories became one of the features of the social and literary entertainments of the Danish capital.

The Fairy Tales have had many translators, but the classic English rendering is yet wanting. Mr. Bain, in an appendix to his work, discusses the chief English translations; he finds them all inadequate, and especially so the version by Dr. H. Oskar Sommer, which has recently been issued by the same firm that publishes the Life. Dr. Sommer has indeed missed much of the charm of the original, which the German translations so admirably preserve; many graceful and characteristic touches are suppressed; others are misunderstood or misrepresented. It is, therefore, not without justice that Mr. Bain condemns what he calls Dr. Sommer's "obliterative method of interpretation." It is well known that Andersen never mastered the grammar of his native tongue; but, as the naïveté of his style is in no wise dependent upon these defects, the translator need be at no pains to hit off the original in careless English. Dr. Sommer's version is often infelicitous and occasionally disregards the laws of English syntax. As a whole, however, the translation reads smoothly enough, and some of the more serious stories are even excellent. In fairness to the uninformed reader, it should be stated that this collection contains only one hundred of the tales; nothing on the title-page or elsewhere indicates that it is not a complete edition. The illustrations, by Mr. Arthur J. Gaskin, are well conceived, if not always firmly drawn, and, with their quaint mediæval accessories, pleasantly preserve the spirit of fairyland.

Mr. Bain has an interesting chapter on Andersen's religious opinions. "I grew up pious and superstitious," wrote Andersen himself. He observed the Sabbath by doing no work on that day; but he preferred the blue sky to the stuffy church. The Scotch Sabbath repelled him. "All the houses are closed," he writes, "and the people sit inside and read their Bibles or drink themselves blind-drunk." He was anti clerical, but not anti Christian. He gloried in the material progress of the age: "it is a scaffolding on which the spiritual edifice is to be built up." And he refused to recognize any antagonism between science and religion. "God can surely endure to be looked at with the little bit of sound sense he has put into our heads," he writes in one of his letters. In his latter years he busied himself with the philosophical aspects of religion, and it was to give the death-blow to materialism that he composed his last romance, 'To Be or Not to Be.' The generous Dickens stood almost alone in praising this work; others congratulated the author upon its failure.

Andersen's passion for travel led him from end to end of Europe. He came into contact with most of the eminent men of his time and has left interesting accounts of them. Mr. Bain's book is particularly rich in anecdotes of this class. For Heine he felt a sort of "devil-worship," a mixture of admiration and hatred which even votaries of Heine will understand. In a letter to Collin he makes this drastic characterization: "Heine is a witty babbler, impious and frivolous, and yet a true poet. His books are elfin girls in gauze and silk, which swarm with vermin, so that one cannot let them move freely about the rooms of respectably dressed people." In the chapter on Andersen in England, Mr. Bain has given the first adequate account of Andersen's relations to his English friends. Their cordial recognition of his genius he regarded less as a personal triumph than as a rebuke to the Danes, who "spat upon the glow-worm because it glowed." Chief among his English friends was Dickens, and the five weeks which Andersen spent at Gadshill in 1857 he considered the happiest period of his life. He published a detailed account of it in the *Berlinjske Tidende* of Copenhagen in 1860; this has recently been reissued in this country in German: 'Ein Besuch bei Charles Dickens' (Henry Holt & Co.), with a brief preface containing three errors of fact on the first page.

In Mr. Bain's work we have noticed but few errors. Travellers in Saxon Switzerland will scarcely recognize the Bohemian village of Herrnskretschen under the form of Herren-Bretchen (p. 89). A singular lapse of memory makes Mr. Bain say on page 152 that Andersen's novel, 'O. T.' took its title from the initials of the hero's name. The real point lies in the fact that these letters were the brand-mark of the Odense penitentiary (Odense Tugthus). With the brothers Grimm Mr. Bain deals

rather cavalierly; he refers to them as "mere collectors," and the story of Andersen's first call at their house in Berlin he relates without a hint that there was more than one Grimm. Turning to the index, we find only Wilhelm entered, with a reference to the page on which this interview is recorded; but Andersen, in the 'Story of My Life,' expressly tells us that it was Jacob whom he met, and the sensitive Dane was indignant when he discovered that, although Grimm spoke Danish, he did not know the name of Andersen. The friends, however, who comforted him by saying that Jacob Grimm was thirty years behind the times, had a greater regard for Andersen's feelings than for the truth. Mr. Bain might have added that the relations between Andersen and the Grimm family subsequently became very cordial. Finally, on page 436, we read: "July 27th, five days before his death." As the date of Andersen's death is not elsewhere stated in this book, we are left to do our own calculating, and arrive at August 1. In point of fact Andersen died on August 4, 1875.

Studies in Early Victorian Literature. By Frederic Harrison. London and New York: Edward Arnold. 1895. Pp. 224.

In one of his delicious but pathetic letters Stevenson confides to Mr. Colvin a "hideous idea" that perhaps, along with himself and his correspondent, Frederic Harrison is now getting old. He adds: "Oh, this infidelity must be stared firmly down." On finishing Mr. Harrison's new book, we applaud this sentiment. Nothing in these brilliant and sensible essays on the Victorian prosaists betrays failing power—unless possibly one were malicious enough to infer a waning memory from the writer's proneness to repeat his own eloquence; or from his notion that the word *scientist* is still a barbarism; or from his writing several pages about 'The Saint's Tragedy' and 'The Spanish Gypsy' after promising to touch "no book of poetry, philosophy, or science." Sixty-four years sit lightly on the prophet of Newton Hall. He is the same vigorous voice, preluding brilliantly upon a thousand themes, and advancing safely into the complexities of a surprising number of them.

The present volume attempts a "mature estimate of the permanent influence and artistic achievement" of Carlyle, Macaulay, Disraeli, Thackeray, Dickens, Brontë, Kingsley, Trollope, and George Eliot. As a body of criticism it is full of knowledge, broad in grasp of historical relations, and measurably free from the bias of Positivism apparent in the writer's former collection of literary essays (1886). Mr. Harrison's attention is first fastened by the social earnestness which colors Victorian prose; but this fact does not prevent him from recognizing and reckoning values purely literary. Far less exacting in his critical ideals than Arnold, and inferior in technical knowledge to several living English critics, Mr. Harrison is outvied by no one in vigor of sympathy. He who erewhile sang the strenuous joys of Auguste Comte's library, who pleaded for a decent hearing for Bunyan, Rabelais, and other permanent people, now avows himself an ardent admirer of Mr. Meredith and Stevenson. He even proves an appreciative reader of Mrs. Wood, Ouida, Miss Broughton, and Mrs. Burnett. Notwithstanding this wide range of loves, Mr. Harrison's valuations are equable, even nice. They are regulated by a trained sense of what permanently interests humanity. They are corrected by a norm too often set aside—the settled judgment of the public. And they take admirably into account that any judgment concerning the absolute value of a book must be tempered with regard to the formative influence of the work and the power required to produce it in its own day.

The date of the Queen's accession forms a curiously good dividing line between two generations of the really great English writers of this century. The Victorian age again divides into two almost equal parts with the year of Thackeray's death, 1863, the first part, as our author shows, being superior to the second in purely literary product. Mr. Harrison's book is concerned with the first Victorian period, but his characterization of the whole age is so comprehensive and in the main so just that we quote one pregnant paragraph. It perhaps over-emphasizes a little the enthusiasm for social reform:

"Our literature to-day has many characteristics; but its central note is the dominant influence of Sociology—enthusiasm for social truths as an instrument of social reform. It is scientific, subjective, introspective, historical, archæological; full of vitality, versatility, and diligence; intensely personal, defiant of all law, of standards, of convention; laborious, exact, but often indifferent to grace, symmetry, or color; it is learned, critical, cultured; with all its ambition and its fine feeling, it is unsympathetic to the highest forms of the imagination, and quite alien to the drama of action."

As *pro-tempore* chairman of the public jury that has thought long and so has presumably attained to think right concerning each great Victorian, Mr. Harrison reports the findings neatly, and usually says the just thing. Of Macaulay: "If he had less philosophy than almost any historian of the smallest pretension, he has a skill in narrative which places him in a fair line with the greatest" (p. 86). Disraeli is properly scored for his vicious manner; but "his painting of parliamentary life in England has neither equal nor rival." The praise of Thackeray's style will strike most students as excessive, but none will deny the power with which the genius of this great, though not supremely great, master of the human heart is brought to analysis. The contention that in Dickens the really permanent thing is the man's humor, the greatest of this century, really seems needed in these days when young people sometimes praise 'Copperfield' for its taste in pathos. Of Charlotte Brontë the future will keep 'Jane Eyre,' a masterpiece "in the rare order of literary 'Confessions'"; "one of the most creative influences of the Victorian literature" (p. 162). Another such influence, Kingsley, "was a kind of ferment" (p. 175); and "'Yeast' is his typical prose work" (p. 176). Of Trollope perhaps only the Barchester cycle will live, with 'Orley Farm' and the two 'Phineas Finns.' Such prophecies as these are perhaps as safe as prophecy ever can be. For it is by the past that they judge the future; and after all a Comtean eternity is not so very long.

The chapter on George Eliot, if judged as the final word of a Positivist Aaron concerning the art of a Positivist Miriam, is a trifle unbrotherly. We have no quarrel with the writer when he declares, "I never could count anything later than 'Silas Marner' as a complete and unqualified masterpiece" (p. 122). But it was a bad slip for him to confess, after dismissing 'Middlemarch' as "tedious and disagreeable," that "he cannot, after twenty years, recall the indefinite, lingering plot" (p. 217).

Mr. Harrison has felt, but not wholly escaped, the danger of impulsively magnifying one man or one piece of work at the expense of another. The 'Cromwell' is "the greatest of Carlyle's effective products"; 'Sartor' is "the most original, the most characteristic, the deepest, and most lyrical of his productions"; the 'French Revolution' "is destined to live long and to stand forth to posterity as the typical work of the master." Thus far we can follow and assent in the maze of superlatives. But we learn with regret that 'Friedrich'—in which we had timidly fancied a certain colossal unity unique of its kind—"is not a book at all." Again, we freely acknowledge a contrast between such a man as Thackeray and such a man as Stevenson in the degree of intensity with which each drank from the cup of life. But to class the latter—the author of the 'Foot-note to History'—as one who looks on life from a private box, where we see his kid gloves and his opera-glasses, is to paint in black and white. We should furthermore like to think it something else than mere patriotism that makes us smile when the beauty of Kingsley's 'Heroes' must be set off by the "sticky dulness" of the 'Tanglewood Tales.' Mr. Harrison is now and then fairly put to it for terms to differentiate the indefectibility he would ascribe. "The paper out of the *Spectator*," in 'Esmond,' "is the most perfect of all parodies in the English language" (p. 114); "'Codlingsby,' the parody of Disraeli's 'Coningsby,' may be taken as the most effective parody in our language" (p. 115). "Perfect," "effective"; *aliud et idem.* The author's large knowledge everywhere stands him in such good stead that when Thackeray as an historian is declared to enter into rivalry with Macaulay, we hope it is meant to compare these men merely in mastery of "the form and coloring of a past age." For 'Esmond' is marred by historical errors that Macaulay in his most remiss moments would hardly have made.

Mr. Harrison's own style keeps its wonted strength and wonted limitations. It is by turns witty, rhetorical, nobly earnest—never languid. Curiously compact of terseness and surplusage, it is prolix on one page, pure epigram on the next. Slight incoherences observable in the original *Forum* articles disappear in the revision. A few slips remain. Does the author mean *more fatal* when he says (p. 96): "Nothing is *less fatal* to true criticism than the habit of blindly overvaluing the inferior work of men of genius"? Mr. Harrison is usually free from otiose short cuts; but, "it is curious *how different a colour* may be seen in the main current of English literature produced before and after" the year 1837 (p. 10). On page 122 the italics seem to quarrel with the verb: "neither *Esmond* nor *The Newcomes*, nor *The Virginians* are in any sense the work of a misanthrope." From page 133 Dr. Hall might cull an example of that "gross vulgarism," the supererogatory *what*: "no criminal was so atrocious but what Charles Dickens could feel for him some ray of sympathy."

Studies of Childhood. By James Sully, Professor in University College, London. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. viii, 527.

Readers of the *Popular Science Monthly* will have become familiar with many of the chapters of this book, which have been reprinted with little or no change. Psychologists will also have found out both the excellences and defects of Mr. Sully's work. For the general reader the book is very interesting on account

of the great humanity of children. For the psychologist it is practically unavailable—a judgment which the following statements and reference may be taken to justify.

First, these chapters are in large part a collection of anecdotes gathered from the reports of parents, from the self-memories of literary people, from uncriticised sources generally. For example, Mr. Sully himself, after a very excellent account of the sort of sources which the child-psychologist ought to treasure in the present state of the science (chapter i.), cites a certain "Worcester collection" as not sufficiently severe in method to be relied on (p. 22); and then goes on in the body of the book to make more use of this collection than of perhaps any other single source, citing again and again a certain child C, who was very smart, and whose reported doings make good stories. We may cite the instances on pp. 66, 68, 74, 89, 102, 111, 114, etc.

Second, Mr. Sully confines himself largely to the period of child-life after the rise of speech (see p. 134), and with it of most of the functions on which fruitful observations may be made by the study of individual children. It is notorious that after the third or fourth year the mental life of the child becomes so complex that nothing but very wide statistical inquiry can be safely relied upon—and even that is of doubtful value. Yet just at this period of boundless variety and endless possibility he cites the occasional smartness or unconfirmed "conceit" of the individual child. Cases of this may be seen on almost any page opened at random (see extraordinary instances on pp. 114, 115, 118).

Third, there is a lack of psychological points of view and illuminating hypotheses which makes the chapters tiresome even to the appreciative reader. The chapter on the development of the thought of "Self," which of all the topics treated in the book might have been expected to contribute something general, since this self-sense is a late growth, has the same old weight laid (pp. 114, 444) on the child's use of the pronouns of the first person (a notion which no amount of criticism seems capable of laying), and no adequate recognition of the social function—possibly the one element on which Mr. Sully's cases might be expected to shed some light. And where Mr. Sully does venture on a general suggestion it seems to us to have all the uncertainty which we should expect from his sources. For example, he finds that the child reaches an anticipation of Berkleyan idealism (p. 118), and supports it with anecdotes which show very clearly, if they show anything, the influence of social imitation and the facts of spontaneous variation in childish conceits. See also the extraordinary aperçu on children's ideas of growth, that "the child cannot accept an absolute beginning of things." . . . "What more natural, then, than the idea of a rhythmical alternation of cycles of existence?"—all based on a few stories of children showing that old men are sometimes thought to grow small again.

Fourth, the anthropological references and analogies are extremely meagre and for the most part undocumented.

Disappointing, however, as the book is to those who had hoped that a psychologist of Mr. Sully's reputation would contribute something to child-study which would in a measure check the flood of superficial "contributions" to this so-called science in this country, yet his book has merits from other points of view. It is written in plain language, the style is entertaining, the children treated of are the choice ones, and the stories selected are the prettiest of the pretty. Furthermore, many parents and teachers who do not aspire to become themselves reporters on their children for print, together with those who do, will do well to catch the spirit of humane and ideal appreciation of child-life which animates the book. We have thought it our duty to point out its essential inadequacy from a scientific point of view, since the air is full of "child-study," and people with no preliminary training think they have only to jot down the occurrences of the nursery, whether at first-hand or not, and report them in a taking way, to contribute to science. That Mr. Sully should have lent the weight of his authority to this kind of science-made-easy, by using the material he has used even in a quasi-scientific and confessedly popular book, is very much to be regretted. We may add that our criticism of the work is mainly a confirmation of the following sentence from the publisher's advertisement of it: "These studies . . . require the reader to follow no laborious train of reasoning, and the reader who is in search of entertainment merely will find it in the quaint sayings and doings with which the volume abounds."

The strictures which we have passed on the material of the book, however, do not hold to the same degree of the reports which the author makes of his own observations in the "Extracts from a Father's Diary" in chapter xi.

An Indian Journalist: Being the Life, Letters, and Correspondence of Dr. Sambhu C. Mookerjee. By F. H. Skrine, I.C.S. Calcutta: Thacker, Spink & Co. 1895.

Travels and Voyages between Calcutta and Independent Tipperah. By Sambhu C. Mookerjee. Calcutta: *Reis & Rayyet* Office. 1887.

Down to comparatively a short time ago, a work like 'An Indian Journalist' would have been markedly exceptional. A noteworthy proof is afforded by it of the change which, within the last two generations, English education has effected in India, and more especially in Bengal. By acquiring a knowledge of the English language and literature, the native has, in many cases, become capacitated to understand the rule under which he lives, and the motives and policy of the far-off kingdom which ultimately determines and shapes that rule. By means of that acquisition he has also qualified himself, not infrequently, for intelligent personal intercourse with those to whom his interests are immediately intrusted; an advantage, equally to himself and to them, of incalculable value. Enabled, consequently, much as if he were an Englishman, to discuss the measures of the Indian Government, and wisely left free to do so, and also to arraign them within legitimate limits, he has now come to figure as a political critic and counsellor, and one with whose deliverances his alien legislators do well to reckon.

As a representative of his fellow-countrymen, rarely has any one hitherto appeared for whom can be claimed a rivalry with the esteem which was the due of the late Dr. Mookerjee, and which was explicitly accorded to his manifold merits. Highly appreciated as he was by those for whose behoof he spent himself in laboring, it was his condign good fortune to win the regard of the leading British authorities in India, and no less that of the numerous persons of distinction, outside his fatherland, to whom, as a letter-writer, he addressed himself. Nor, towards gaining this regard, was he ever known to bate a jot of the sturdiest independence. Yet, at the same time that he thus respected himself, a sense of justice invariably prompted him to treat with befitting respect the opinions of others, even if they were his most virulent antagonists. A spirit of reasoned and reasonable conciliatoriness, while he could not but perceive that, to a patriot, it was the dictate of expedience, seems to have been, with him, a second nature.

After considerable practice as a miscellaneous essayist, Dr. Mookerjee, in 1882, founded, at Calcutta, a weekly newspaper, in English throughout, though bearing the Arabico-Persian or Hindustani title of *Reis & Rayyet*, which may be rendered, not inadequately, "Sovereign and Subjects" or "Prince and People." Chiefly by this and by his correspondence, he has, without question, merited lasting and honorable remembrance. In Bengal this is assured to him; and his broad-minded and discerning biographer was certainly justified in his forecast that, on the presentation of facts, it would be widely shared by those to whom his character and literary achievements had previously been unknown. As depicted, after long acquaintance, by Mr. Skrine, he was a man to challenge all but unqualified admiration, as for his sterling integrity, disinterestedness, and genial disposition, so for his ability and untiring energy. Many of these traits are abundantly evidenced, or else suggested, by the letters which are appended to the interesting memoir of his career, unfortunately a somewhat brief one, which terminated, in his fifty-fifth year, in February, 1894. The influential journal which he established, it is gratifying to be able to say, has been conducted, since his lamented death, in a manner redounding conspicuously to the credit of his successors.

The volume of travels named in our heading could have emanated from none but an acute and well-informed observer. The region of Bengal with which it has to do is one regarding which, in the main, hardly anything but dry statistics and the like has heretofore been accessible. Little appears to have escaped the notice of the author, in the course of his peregrinations, with respect to either the peculiarities of the people with whom he came into contact, or the geographical features, natural productions, and antiquities of the territories which he visited. He has, indeed, set in his pages an example which other Hindus would do wisely to copy. That he occasionally had experience of gratuitous discourtesy was only to be expected at the hands of such as those who debased themselves by it. To quote the words of Colebrooke, the illustrious Orientalist: "It is not to be dissembled that the European, that the descendant of the Gothic race, that the white man, and, above all, the Englishman, is full of prejudices, and governed, in his intercourse with men of other nations and other complexions, by a repulsive dislike of strangers, an unjust contempt and deep aversion, amounting, in an illiberal mind, to a contemptuous hatred of men of dark hue. The conduct of the lower British, in their dealings with men of color, in either of the Indies, is but too often influenced by such feelings." To a deplorable degree, however, till very recently, not merely to "the lower" British has Colebrooke's censure been applicable. That the indications are now steadily becoming more and more numerous and obvious of a much kindlier attitude than of old to the people of India, on the part of the English functionaries dwelling among them, is a circumstance of auspicious omen to both parties indifferently.

The Origins of Invention: A Study of Industry among Primitive Peoples. With illustrations. By Otis T. Mason. 8vo, pp. 413. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

THE object of this volume, so we are told, is "to trace some of our industries to their origins"—quite a different matter, we may remark in passing, from the Origins of Invention; and, judging the work from this point of view, it will be found to be thoroughly satisfactory. Especially is this true of what is told us of tools, etc., which, in a general way, may be said to foreshadow all mechanical progress, since man could hardly have taken the first step in his upward career, much less have traversed the broad expanse that separates "the digging-stick from the steam-plough," without some sort of an implement to be used either in "cutting, smoothing, pounding, or perforating." Indeed, so true is this that he has been called a tool-using animal; and although the definition is, perhaps, too broad, yet the fact that he has never been found without a device of some kind to aid him in his labors is so characteristic that it has been made the basis of a classification, in which the different stages through which he has passed have been designated as the ages, respectively, of stone and metal.

This classification is convenient, and, when limited to cutting-implements, as by Evans, Lubbock and others, it is fairly descriptive of the conditions that prevailed throughout western Europe in early times. Our author, however, does not find it altogether satisfactory, for the reason that it is not always and everywhere applicable, and because the sequence is not necessary. In this he is clearly right, for there are regions (pp 110, 124, 128) in which there is no evidence that an age of stone ever existed; others, "in Africa, in Canada, and perhaps in Michigan, where the metal age is as old as the stone age." And in some of the Pacific islands, where there was no mineral having a conchoidal fracture, the natives, when first known to us, were living "in the polished or at least hammered-stone age," though their language, social system, etc., showed that "they were low in the scale of culture."

Bearing upon this point, and to some extent confirmatory of it, is the fact that recent experiments by the Bureau of Ethnology in making stone implements lead to the conclusion that neither the form nor the method of manufacture can be taken as proof positive of the antiquity of a specimen, or of the culture-status of the people who made it; that in fact "millions of roughly chipped stones formerly thought to be ancient, on account of their form, are only the refuse left by men who were aiming to make blades." Facts like these are far-reaching in their consequences, and, taken together, they show very clearly that aboriginal man, when choosing the material out of which to make his arms, implements, etc., did not proceed in any regular order, or according to any definite plan, but simply took that which was close at hand, and then worked it up in the easiest way possible. They also show (p. 126) that the only safe guide in determining the antiquity of a specimen is the geological position in which it was found.

Of the importance of these considerations to a proper interpretation of certain archæological phenomena in our own country there can be no question; and it is for this reason that we have dwelt upon the point somewhat at length, when there are many matters of general interest in the volume that might rightfully claim attention. Prominent among these is the fact that, in the infancy of the race, so many of our leading industries were carried on almost exclusively by the woman, while to day there are so few. Thus, for instance, there was a time when she was the farmer, the potter, the weaver, and the tanner. In a small way she was also the butcher, cook, shoemaker, etc, etc.; and as she plodded along over her daily tasks, carrying at her back a baby in a hood or in a papoose frame, she was unwittingly entering upon the path that led to the locomotive and the sleeping-car. Suggestive as is this phase of industrial life, it is incomplete in so far as it neither gives us an idea of the immense distance that separates some of our inventions from their rude prototypes, nor enables us to do justice to the efforts of our barbaric ancestors to settle some of the problems that have come down to our times. To complete the sketch, it is necessary to change the point of view, and then it will be possible to take up an invention, as, *e. g.*, the electric light, and follow it back (p. 107) through the long array of lamps, candles, torches, etc., etc., to say nothing of all the various kinds of fats, oils, and gases that have been in use, until we come to a beginning in the pine knot. It may also cause us to abate somewhat of our self-sufficiency to learn that prehistoric man (p. 65) was familiar with the use of such devices as the wedge, the lever, and the inclined plane; and that before the time of Columbus the Polynesians (p. 361) "made canoe voyages from Tahiti to Hawaii, a distance of twenty-three hundred miles."

In view of such proficiency in the mechanic arts, it would not be unreasonable to expect that a corresponding advance, or at all events a beginning, had been made in the learned professions, in æsthetics, etc., all of which are classed as inventions, though, except incidentally, they do not come within the pale of consideration. Accordingly, it does not surprise us to be told (p. 203) that an American Indian doctor not only practically cupped his patients, but that he appreciated the benefits arising from the use of massage and the Turkish bath; and that although he did not know it by the name that we do, yet he certainly practised the faith cure. Nothing is said of priests and lecturers, though they were to be found in every Indian village, as were painters and musicians; and when the women of a tribe, as was sometimes the case among the Iroquois, appointed "a speaker" or "an orator" to represent them in the council and plead their cause, they were simply employing an attorney, just as we do to day.

These are a few of the thoughts suggested by an examination of this volume, and, crude as they are, they give some idea of the extent of ground our author has covered and of the comprehensive manner in which he has dealt with the several branches of his subject. To any one acquainted with his method of work, or who has an abiding recollection of a previous volume in which he treated of 'Woman's Share in Primitive Culture,' it is needless to say that there is scarcely a page in the present book that the ethnologist may not study to advantage, and in which the casual reader will not find something that is instructive as well as interesting.

The Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac. By Eugene Field. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

THE late Mr. Eugene Field's humorous poems are well known, and had his name been withheld from this volume his identity would stand revealed at least in the little scraps of verse scattered through it. The prose essays of which it consists are written in what may be called the mock-serious manner, one of the varieties of English humor which are part of the literary inheritance of the race. The names of those who have tried it are legion, those who have succeeded have been few. Just as every one who attempts the mock-heroic must measure himself in verse with 'Hudibras' and the 'Dunciad,' in prose with Fielding, so the mock-serious at once recalls the masters of it—Sterne, Lamb, and the inventor of Hosea Biglow and Parson Wilbur. In the 'Love Affairs of a Bibliomaniac' we have all the machinery of this style—an imaginary friend of the author's, with a full account of his habits and character, extracts from his poems, and statements of his opinions; invented authors, fictitious quotations, and nonsense made to masquerade as fact. Of course, these things are greatly matters of taste, but for ourselves we confess to liking good nonsense quite as well as sense; and if a great deal of it is apt to weary, Mr. Field could plead that his book was a very little one. Some of the humor is overdone, and part of the success of the volume is due, no doubt, to the fact that Chicago is as yet still proud with the pride of an overgrown village in the fact that it counts among its inhabitants persons who can write something which other people call literature, and which will be "written up" in the newspapers, and, best of all, be sold at wholesale and retail, just as pork is. The pride of locality has puffed out the sails of many a reputation less deserving than that of Mr. Field.

We have liked best the account of the physical effects produced by the respiration of books (ch. xiii.); the fact that books breathe being supported by the well-known authority of William Blades, confirmed by observation, illustrated by the condition of the atmosphere of the reading room of the British Museum, where the consumption of oxygen by each volume has been found to be several thousand cubic feet of air every twenty-four hours, and reinforced by a series of experiments made by Huxley. Ringelbergius on the true method of procrastination, and Dr. O'Rell on the disease called "Catalogitis," could hardly fail to make even a good woman smile. If the humor were throughout as natural and unforced as in these passages, Mr. Field would have written a classic. A melancholy interest attaches to the volume, as the author died almost in writing its last lines.

The Gold Diggings of Cape Horn: A Study of Life in Tierra del Fuego and Patagonia. By John R. Spears. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. Pp. xi, 319. 8vo.

THIS vivacious account of a two months' trip in an unfamiliar region is excellent reading. The information which it gives about the Cape Horn country, its people and resources, abounds in surprises to one who has formed his impressions of it from the accounts of the early voyagers. It is difficult to imagine, for instance, that the land which they pictured as the abode of snow and ice, the home of storms, is admirably suited for sheep-raising, with prairies covered with luxuriant grass, on which a snowfall of six inches is counted deep, and where cold sufficient to freeze the fresh-water ponds is rare; or that there should be a flourishing town of 3,500 inhabitants where Sarmiento's colony starved to death—a town in every respect like a Western mining camp, except that every zinc-roofed hut has its win-

dow-garden, "and many houses have bays and rooms set apart for great masses of potted flowers and shrubs." Gold-mining on the seashore, with the "pay streak" bearing "nuggets as big as kernels of corn," under water at high tide is no less a surprise. So, too, are the Yahgans, the southernmost of all the Indians, who, in their original state, were skilful artisans, had many virtues, and showed such a remarkable mental development that from their language "has been compiled a vocabulary of over 40,000 words!" Their present degradation and dwindled numbers Mr. Spears attributes in part to the questionable means employed by the missionaries to civilize them. Whether his severe strictures are deserved, we have no means of knowing, but the tribe's history is only another sad proof of the incompatibility in the temperate zone of the red and the white man. There is a somewhat similar account of a less interesting race, the Tehuelches, the giant nomads of Patagonia, and their supplanter, the gaucho, or cowboy, as well as of the strangely successful Welsh colony on the Chubut River.

Two admirable chapters on the Patagonian beasts and birds, and an instructive account of the rising sheep industry, complete the subjects treated in this unusually fresh and entertaining book of travels. Some of the illustrations are very good, and there is an excellent index.

The House that Jill Built after Jack's had proved a Failure: A Book on Home Architecture. With illustrations. By E. C. Gardner. Springfield, Mass.: W. A. Adams Co. 1896. 12mo, pp. xii., 268.

THIS little book relates the experience of a young couple who had in hand the money for a new house, and tried to procure one which should be ideally comfortable and easy to live in. They employed an architect who displayed a great deal of good sense in his advice to the building family in question, and it is certain that the resulting plans shown on pages 239 and 241 are good ones and give the idea of a very comfortable house. In the course of the long debate to which the book is devoted, a good deal of good sense is retailed to the reader. Thus, on page 24, he is told to build a drain first of all, and to provide a cut off to keep surface water from the cellar; and in immediate connection with this the importance of having the cellar so high that a clean outlet can be got below its bottom is insisted on, even "if this happens to carry it above the surface of the ground"—in which case you are to "set the house on posts and hang the cellar under the floor like a work-bag under the table." On page 51 the evils of furring, of hollow partitions, and of floors hollow between flooring and plastering are pointed out, especially their mischievous qualities in the matter of carrying fire from floor to floor and from room to room. On page 53 the simple remedy for this state of things is pointed out in connection with praises of brick as a building material, and on page 57 mineral wool and such other materials for filling are described. In this way and with a great deal of chat and perhaps an unnecessary amount of preaching, the main principles of house-planning and house-building are laid down with sufficient clearness and fulness. As it frequently happens that the architect employed to design a small house—or a large one, for that matter—cannot be persuaded to give time and attention to the many details which make it up, it is well for the owners to have at least as much information as this book affords. As to the good taste shown in the designs for fireplaces, wainscotting trim, and the like, it is not easy to speak with much approval.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Amiel's Journal. Vol. I. Macmillan. 25c.
Baldwin, James. Old Stories of the East. American Book Co. 45c.
Balzac, H. de. Old Goriot. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Balzac, H. de. The Atheist's Mass, and Other Stories. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. A Woman Intervenes. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Baskervill, Prof. W. M., and Sewell, J. W. An English Grammar. American Book Co. 90c.
Bennett, J. W. A Breed of Barren Metal; or, Currency and Interest. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Berdoe, Edward. Browning and the Christian Faith. London: George Allen; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Bibliographica. Part VIII. Scribners.
Bloundelle-Burton, John. In the Day of Adversity. Appletons.
Boissier, Gaston. Rome and Pompeii. Putnams. $2.50.
Borrow, George. Lavengro. Macmillan. $1.25.
Brackel, F. von. The Circus-Rider's Daughter. Benziger Bros. $1.25.
Burnett, Mrs. Frances H. A Lady of Quality. Scribners. $1.50.
Carey, Alice V. Paradise Wold. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Colson, Ethel M. The Story of a Dream. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Coolidge, Susan. An Old Convent School in Paris, and Other Papers. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Cooper, J. F. The Spy. [Mohawk Edition.] Putnams. $1.25.
D'Avenel, le Vicomte G. Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Davey, Richard. The Sand Sea, and Other Stories. London: The Roxburghe Press.
Del Mar, Alexander. History of Monetary Systems. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Drury, G. T. Poems of John Keats. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Flint, Sam. On the Road to the Lake. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Fraser, Sir William. Napoleon III. (My Recollections). London: Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $2.
Frost, Mary A. Heyse's L'Arrabbiata. Henry Holt & Co. 25c.
Froude, J. A. Lectures on the Council of Trent. Scribners. $2.
Gardner, E. A. A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. Macmillan. $1.75.
Gibbons, Cardinal. The Faith of Our Fathers. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Girard, Dorothea. The Wrong Man. Appletons.
Hogarth, D. G. A Wandering Scholar in the Levant. Scribners. $2 50.
Huling, Caroline A. The Courage of her Convictions. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Jastrow, Prof. M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, etc. Part VIII. London: Luzac & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2.
Jeyes, S. H. The Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Kingsley, Charles. The Heroes of Greek Fairy Tales. Macmillan. 75c.
Lathrop, G. P. The Scarlet Letter: A Dramatic Poem. Transatlantic Publishing Co.
Lefranc, Abel. Les Dernières Poésies de Marguerite de Navarre. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Leigh, Garrett. Lives that Came to Nothing. Macmillan. 75c.
Melville, Henry. The Ancestry of John Whitney. New York: The De Vinne Press
Merrillies, Meg. The Woman with Good Intentions. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Nicholson, Prof. J. S. Strikes and Social Problems. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Olney, Richard. The Scholar in Politics. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. 30c.
Paul Dubois, Louis. Les Chemins de Fer aux Etats-Unis. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Read, Opie. The Captain's Romance. F. T. Neely.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. Battlement and Tower. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Riordan, Roger, and Takayanagi, Tozo. Sunrise Stories: A Glance at the Literature of Japan. Scribners. $1.50.
Rhys, Ernest. The Lyric Poems of Thomas Campion. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Rowe, Samuel. A Perambulation of the Antient and Royal Forest of Dartmoor. Third ed. London: Gibbings & Co.; New York: Putnams. $5.
Ryan, C. E. With an Ambulance during the Franco-German War. Scribners. $3.
Savage, R. H. The Spider of Truxillo. F. T. Neely.
Schurman, J. G. Agnosticism and Religion. Scribners.
Schurz, Carl. The Spoils System. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. 30c.
Seeley, Prof. J. R. Introduction to Political Science. Two Series of Lectures. Macmillan. $1.50.
Sidney, Margaret. The Old Town Pump: A Story of East and West. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.25.
Southey, Robert. The Life of Nelson. American Book Co. 40c.
Spinder, Harold. At the Sign of the Guillotine. Merriam Co. $1.
Steel, Mrs. F. A. Miss Stuart's Legacy. Macmillan. 50c.
The Savoy. An Illustrated Quarterly. January, 1896. London: Leonard Smithers.
Turgenev, Ivan. Smoke. Macmillan. $1.25.
Verity, J. B. Electricity up to Date for Light, Power, and Traction. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Weeks, S. B. Southern Quakers and Slavery: A Study in Institutional History. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Augier's Le Gendre de Monsieur Poirier. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Williams, Rev. J. M. Rational Theology. Vol. II. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Winthrop, Col. William. Military Law and Precedents. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
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The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S forthcoming order, bringing within the civil-service rules all the places still remaining outside them, will be one of the most notable public events in our recent political history. Coming upon the eve of a Presidential campaign, it will be an entirely unprecedented act, and will go far to convince the practical politicians of the party that the President is not a candidate for a third term. No man with aspirations for a renomination has ever dreamed of such a thing as putting for ever beyond the reach of spoils politics such a list of places as this which a Washington correspondent reports as likely to be included in the new order:

"The Mint service, the excepted places in the customs and internal-revenue services, all the places in the Indian Agency service below the physicians, and all the places in the Indian school service still unprotected; the Interstate Commerce Commission clerical staff, the clerical force in the navy-yards; chief clerks of bureaus and chiefs of division in the departmental service; and a host of small groups and classes which so rarely show themselves on the surface of public affairs as to have been generally overlooked in the planning of reform campaigns."

When, in addition to this, we consider that the President contemplates including all the fourth-class post-offices, except an insignificant few, in the same order, the full dimensions of this final sweep may be imagined. There will be no spoils left upon which to conduct the next Presidential campaign. The next President will have only some large places to distribute after he shall come into office on March 4, 1897, and the business of the Government will be the chief object of his attention. Will the politicians consent to fill the Presidency under these conditions?

Silver having been the real cause of the panic of 1893, it behooves all men of intelligence to see what sort of figure it is likely to cut if McKinley reaches the goal of his ambition. On Wednesday week the Ohio Republican convention, at which his "boom" received all the impulse that could be given to it by a single State, passed a resolution, drawn by McKinley himself, in close agreement with a speech made by him at Chicago on the 12th of February last. It is as follows:

"We contend for honest money, for a currency of gold, silver, and paper with which to measure our exchanges that shall be as sound as the Government and as untarnished as its honor; and to that end we favor bimetallism, and demand the use of both gold and silver as standard money, either in accordance with a ratio to be fixed by an international agreement (if that can be obtained), or under such restrictions and such provisions, to be determined by legislation, as will secure the maintenance of the parities of value of the two metals, so that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal."

At first sight this looks like a mere repetition of the old juggles with words that have disgraced both parties during the whole period of the silver and fiat agitation, but in order to understand it we must look at the course of events, at the repeal of the Sherman act, and at the new demands which the silver men themselves have made since that act was repealed.

What is meant by favoring bimetallism? One of the methods proposed is by international agreement. This is intelligible, although remote, and, as we think, unattainable. The other method of reaching bimetallism is "under such restrictions and such provisions, *to be determined by legislation*" (*i. e.*, not to be interrupted by the veto power), "as will secure the maintenance of the parities of value of the two metals," etc. Those provisions now exist, and are sufficient for the purpose if administered by an executive who is determined to maintain the gold standard at all hazards and under all circumstances, and is known to be so. We have such an executive at present, and the main question, the chief issue, in American politics now is whether we shall have such an executive during the four years succeeding Mr. Cleveland's term. Making all allowance for humbug and cheating in platforms, we do not consider either the platform adopted by Mr. McKinley's friends in Ohio or the utterances of Mr. McKinley himself any such guarantee. If there is to be any more buying and coining of silver under parity clauses, "to be determined by legislation," there will be another panic, and it may be one which no executive could stem. The resolution does not propose any more buying and coining of silver, it is true, but it encourages the silver-men to expect it. It holds out to them a hope by which their support is to be gained if possible, and it leaves the next and future Congresses as much in doubt as the present one is concerning the true intent and meaning of the Republican platform, and thus leaves the financial question in the air, as it is now.

Senator Bill Chandler protests, with the alarm of an expert, against the corrupting use of money to promote the McKinley candidacy. The most appalling thing about it to him is, that the McKinley managers have "invaded Senator Quay's State," with demands that the Pennsylvania manufacturers give their money, not to their natural suzerain, Quay, but to the man who made them rich by his tariff bill of 1890. Pointing out the fact that McKinley himself has no money, the Honorable Bill wants to know where all the money is coming from that is now "corrupting State and district conventions" in his interest, and asks, with the pain of an old-fashioned patriot, whether "our next President is to be controlled and dictated to by Mr. Hanna and a set of associates who have established their domination over a President by the money they have furnished for him and his uses."

These questions might better have come from a better man, but they are most pertinent and urgent coming from any source. The answer to them is written plain enough for the wayfaring man in the election of 1888. Quay looked after his own tributary manufacturers in that year, and one of them afterwards said openly that the McKinley tariff bill was only their just due, as they had bought and paid for it with their own money. They and the silver-men had the first mortgage on the Fifty-first Congress, and they foreclosed it without mercy. The men who are now so lavishly financing the McKinley canvass propose to forestall all competitors. By buying the nomination they get a clear first lien on the candidate. After the nomination, all negotiations in regard to the election will have to be conducted with them. Anybody who wants tariff favors will know what he has to do. The corruption will be all square and aboveboard, in the best tariff manner of perfect gentlemen. But the scale on which the preliminary operations are now carried on indicates what a monstrosity the next tariff bill will have to be to pay off all the debts. McKinley's zeal for "the American fireside" will no doubt be equal to it, but can the Republican party be expected to escape afterwards even with such a battering as it got in 1890? Bill Chandler's alarm at the prospect is well founded. Such a cynical preparation to buy the Presidency, with an equally cynical preparation to get the money back by legislative favors, has not before been seen. It portends the permanent retirement to the American fireside of public men who strike hands with the unblushing corruptionists.

The alarm of a great many Republicans at the probability of McKinley's nomination is due not alone to the fiscal and monetary policies for which he is supposed to stand. What they dread most is the possibility of a President of his deadly-dull intellect. Certainly no President since perhaps the first Harrison has been a man of such a shut-in mental horizon as McKinley. The volume of his speeches and addresses put forth a couple of years ago, in the interest of his candidacy, ought of itself to make his candidacy impossible. To elect a man President capable of saying of the Chicago Exposition that it was, "in its highest sense, the hallelujah of the universe for the triumph of civil liberty,"

would be, as Cardinal Vaughan has said of the recent 'Life of Cardinal Manning,' "almost a crime." In the same volume the judgment was expressed of Gen. Logan ("Black Jack") that his "success in both careers [military and legislative] is almost unrivalled in the history of men." To place an intellect equal to that in a position where it would have to pass upon the most difficult questions of personal character and public policy, would be to put a premium upon stupidity and invite national calamity.

Fresh light continues to pour in on the rôle of the present Senate in national affairs. Mr. Hoar, one of the oldest members of the body, turned it on last week. He said that the belligerency resolutions of the two houses had no weight or effect; that they were an attempt to interfere with the President's constitutional prerogatives. But he was most illuminating when he quoted an old judge in East Cambridge, Mass., as saying, in a charge to a jury:

"Gentlemen of the jury, circumstantial evidence is where a fact that is known proves a fact that is not known. If you see great activity in the navy-yard over there to morrow, it is not a proof that war is approaching, but that an election is approaching."

"And so," said Mr. Hoar, "the extraordinary excitement shown by the Senator from Ohio in this matter is not a proof of any great disturbance in our foreign relations, but that there is a Presidential election at hand." That observation carries us into the very centre and essence of this whole Jingo business, not as it is today only, but as it has been for more than a year. Its motive when Lodge and Chandler started it was precisely what it is now. By keeping at it, these two worthies and others like them managed to get up the Venezuelan trouble, and were very near getting up a Nicaraguan trouble, and they are now trying to get up a Cuban trouble. There has been no war, and we no not believe they ever expected any war, but they have done and are doing enormous damage to the business interests of the country. The kind of body into which they have converted both the House and the Senate, is suited only for the government of a pastoral community, or an agricultural one which produced only what was necessary for its own use. No commercial nation, with a great system of credit, could possibly live long under it. For many months past they have made business plans for the future almost impossible. It was this which led to the favorable consideration of a proposal at the monthly meeting of the Board of Trade and Transportation last week for a joint petition to Congress from the various commercial bodies of the country to adjourn, and "give business a chance."

All anybody needs, in order to estimate the capacity of the great men of the Senate, is to read the debates of the past few days on the Cuban question. These debates were started on a gross and confessed misquotation from an unknown book, some newspaper scraps, and a mistranslation. These interesting facts were brought out by Mr. Hoar, on Wednesday week. On Friday the fun grew more fast and furious. Mr. Sherman said the committee on foreign relations had been started into activity about Cuba by secret information from the State Department, communicated through Mr. Lodge. This naturally produced great curiosity, and Mr. Lodge rose to explain. The important communication from the State Department was the enclosure of a letter from Señor Dupuy de Lome, the Spanish Minister, giving his views of the military situation in Cuba. This seems to have been converted in Mr. Sherman's mind into an argument in favor of belligerent rights. Of course everybody was anxious to see how this psychological process was effected, but a demand for the letter was naturally met by the reply that it could be read only in executive session. We ask the public, when reading these debates, to remember that they are carried on by high officers of one of the most powerful governments in the world, that they have a most disastrous influence on the business and finances of the country, that they have filled the large towns in Spain with mob violence and hatred of the American name, and are diffusing vague dread of America and contempt for our government all through the civilized world. Moreover, if Mr. Hoar had not departed from the usual recent practice of his own party, and, instead of sitting silent and apparently approving the folly of the Jingo element, poured hot shot into them, we should never have known the depths of folly and incompetency to which they can descend.

The current number of the *Political Science Quarterly* contains a discussion of the Monroe Doctrine by two competent hands. Prof. Moore begins it and Prof. Burgess continues it. They are both of the Political Science Department, and are men of eminence in their fields. From Prof. Moore we have already heard a good deal on this topic, but nothing as long or as weighty as the present article from Mr. Burgess. These gentlemen complete the list, as far as our observation has gone, of those who, being familiar with, or authorities on, this class of questions, have completely and argumentatively condemned both Mr. Olney's law and Monroe. We have not heard, East or West, of one dissenting voice from this class (and they may be said to be the mind, as distinguished from the muscle, of America) concerning international rights and duties and policy. They all say that Mr. Olney's Monroe is as bad as his law in this, that his Monroe is not Monroe's Monroe; that his own Monroe is bad law and bad policy. Of course there are some, especially out West, who put in the usual "placatory tag" about devotion to the real Monroe Doctrine, and readiness to die for it whenever called upon, but this does not affect their argument. Let Jingoes consider these writers and be wise. Prince Volkonsky, the Russian, lecturing at Columbia College last week, quoted from a Russian writer the term "zoölogical patriot," as the equivalent of our term "Jingo." This means that this kind of patriot is an animal whose habitat is, say, in North America, and who, in virtue of the fact that he was born within certain parallels of latitude and longitude, constantly wants to bite all animals of the same species born in other parallels. When he sees a Jingo of different origin, he is always eager to throttle him, without rhyme or reason. Prof. Burgess's protest against the psychological tendency to raise a political "doctrine" to the position of a "fetish," and rattle about it in "excited gibberish," is well worthy of careful Jingo perusal.

The London *Chronicle*, which is busy picking holes in the British Case by pointing out inaccuracies or misquotations, will probably not make much impression by this attack any more than by its grand exposure of Lord Aberdeen when Mr. Norman was here. In fact, it is not unlikely that, as the *St. James's Gazette* says, most of its discoveries are mare's nests. But it evidently does not share the opinion of some of our contemporaries here that the better the British Case is, the stronger the obligation resting on it to arbitrate. This is not the way arbitration has been hitherto looked at by the people who resort to it. If this view were generally adopted, it would produce some droll results—that is, my obligation to arbitrate would increase in the direct ratio of the strength of my title. A man claims my watch, for instance, in the street, and demands arbitration. There is not the shadow of doubt as to my right to the watch. I would say I bought it of so and so, and had worn it for twenty years. Then why on earth, the bystander would say, do you refuse to arbitrate? The decision would certainly be in your favor. Or suppose Spain claimed Florida, and insisted on our arbitrating because the legality of our original acquisition of it was so clear. As a matter of fact and long precedent, arbitration always connotes reasonable doubt, and the duty of arbitrating grows weaker, and not stronger, as the doubt declines. Still, we believe every nation should arbitrate in all disputes about facts, when asked to do so by another state. The peace and civilization of Christendom rest on the assumption that each state is not only sovereign but reasonable, and that it will not make claims that are absolutely absurd and do not deserve discussion or attention. So that even slight doubts ought to justify international arbitration. As to the jour-

nalistic operations now going on about this question, the time for putting the parties on either side "in a hole" seems to have gone by. No newspaper needs to expose the weak points of either case. The British have their counsel, and the Venezuelans have theirs, and we have a commission "watching the case," as they say in the London police courts, on our behalf.

The *Railroad Gazette* has a painstaking and profound article on the Nicaragua Canal, the immediate subject being the Report of the Board of Engineers recently submitted to Congress. The character of this board it considers of the highest type. It is therefore not surprised at the temperance and restraint with which its conclusions are announced. It is only surprised "at the amount which the canal company does *not* know about the vast work that it has undertaken, and at the light-hearted confidence with which it has asked individuals and the nation to embark on the most difficult engineering work ever undertaken by men." The question whether the work can be done at all is still to be solved. So far as our knowledge now extends, all that we can say is that perhaps it can be done for $133,000,000 and perhaps not. The points upon which information of the highest importance is wanting are numerous, and the want is inexcusable. It is indispensable, for instance, to know the variations in the level of San Juan Lake, since "every foot of reduction in the minimum will cause a large increase in excavation throughout the entire summit level, including the costly work of the San Juan River and the east and west divides. Yet the canal company has no recorded observations of the lake level or other data relating to its regulation, for the eight years since it began work in the country." The means of curbing the streams on the west side, in the San Francisco basin, in order to prevent the washing away of the canal by the tremendous rainfall that often visits that region, are still altogether in the dark. So with the great Ochoa dam, the failure of which "would leave navigation stranded, wreck the valley below, and possibly wash Greytown into the sea"; it is not yet known what foundation this dam is to rest on, nor have any detailed plans or specifications been made, nor does anybody know what is the maximum rate of discharge of water that must be taken care of. The company estimates this maximum discharge at 63,000 cubic feet per second. The board estimates it at 125,000 and possibly 150,000. It would be "stupendous folly," says the *Gazette*, "to assume the burden of this enterprise without the further studies which the board advises."

We are assured by persons who are the best authorities on the subject, that the proposal to legislate the Niagara Falls Reservation Commissioners out of office does not spring from a desire for spoils alone, but that there is behind it also a scheme for getting possession of the water-power of the falls for the benefit of a private corporation. The two objects would naturally go together. With a lot of spoils politicians in charge of the Reservation, the improper sale of its privileges for the mutual benefit of politics and corporations would follow naturally. The State has bought the Reservation for the benefit of all its inhabitants. There has not been a day since the bargain was completed when vandals of one sort or another have not been trying to break in upon it to impair its natural beauty and make personal profit for themselves out of its wonderful power. The present Commissioners have stood like a rock against all these efforts at depredation, and it would be a public calamity were they to be removed. Senator Ellsworth should bear in mind that the Reservation is not the property of Buffalo, but of the State, and withdraw his bill as an impudent assault upon the property of the people.

Mr. Arnold Foster, M.P., writes a searching article, in the columns of the London *Chronicle*, on the Jameson raid against the Transvaal, on the South African Chartered Company, and against government by chartered companies in general. The vice of these, he says, is "that a chartered company can only be established by confusing two things which are absolutely irreconcilable and ought never to be associated. I mean the prerogative of governing men on the one hand and the desire of making money on the other. The right to govern men is one of the very highest duties which can be intrusted to a man or a body of men. The pursuit of money cannot be described in any such terms." The pursuit of money is well enough in its place, but, when mixed with the functions of government, it becomes intolerable. This was the vice, in another form, of that method of public finance known as "farming the revenue," which prevailed in ancient Rome, and, coming down to modern times, was extinguished by the French Revolution. The facts of importance relating to this method of collecting the public taxes are brought together in an interesting way by David A. Wells in the current number of the *Popular Science Monthly*. As the *publican's* compensation depended upon the amount of his collections, he was really invested with the power of state to extort an income for himself from the provincials. The same principle underlies government by chartered companies. The company is invested with power to tax the inhabitants of the territory embraced in the charter for the purpose of making dividends for shareholders in another country. Not only is this a vicious plan *per se*, but it operates to deaden the sense of responsibility among the rulers who are here to-day and gone to-morrow, answerable to nobody but the company. It is not alone the South African Company that passes under Mr. Foster's powerful censure, but the Niger Company as well.

The indignation roused in the Reichstag by the accusations against Dr. Peters, the former Imperial Commissioner in East Africa, contrasts refreshingly with the comparative indifference to the similar charges against Chancellor Leist and Assessor Wehlan. A thorough overhauling of the entire administration of the German possessions in East Africa will probably result. Prof. L. von Bar of Göttingen, writing in the Berlin *Nation*, has pointed out that, in spite of the cruelties perpetrated by Wehlan, the Imperial Government could try him only for having exceeded his authority, of which the limits are but vaguely defined by existing laws. According to the law of April 17, 1886, German subjects in all the colonies of the Empire are amenable to the criminal code of Germany if guilty of inflicting a personal injury upon a native or depriving him of his liberty, but Government officials as such have hitherto had almost absolute discretion in their dealings with natives. The legal status of the natives has not been defined, so that even a humane official would not know whether to treat native criminals as he would Europeans, or as German Consuls in foreign countries are expected to treat natives in such cases. Prof. von Bar suggests a simple code determining both the nature of the crimes for which punishment may be meted out to natives, and the limits of the power of officials. He admits, however, the difficulty of limiting the power of Government officials in case of war, though he pleads for at least more humane treatment of native prisoners of war.

German writers deplore the decline of the Reichstag, very much as we do the degeneration of Congress, and have very much the same explanation to give. The falling off in individual ability, and the paralysis of the higher legislative functions, are attributed to the rush of selfish and mercenary interests into Parliament. With the private business of manufacturers and agrarians to look after and to claim first place, how can the members be expected to attend to the larger interests of the nation? Factions now build themselves about some money-getting scheme, some bit of class legislation, not about any real political principle. Machine methods naturally follow. The present Reichstag is thought to reach low-water mark for unblushing assertion of private over public interests. Protection, and the passion for paying debts in depreciated currency, appear to be doing in Germany what we have long observed them to be doing here.

THE VALUE OF DISCUSSION.

THE course of events in the United States Senate for the last two weeks will go far to recover for us, in matters affecting our foreign relations, what was rapidly becoming the lost art of discussion. The Cuban resolutions were passed on February 28 practically without debate—debate, as distinct from great gusts and gales. Morgan had, indeed, paraded on the windy plains of Troy for the better part of two days, Lodge had contributed his quota of misinformation, and Sherman had spoken with the impetuous passion and blundering of his ardent nature; but of argument directed to the vitals of the question, there was none. A week later Senator Hale made his speech, asked some strategic questions, submitted some evidence. Then Senator Hoar began to display a strange desire to know what the facts were, and, in the running debate which followed, the whole case of the foreign-affairs committee fell in complete wreck. Such humiliating twistings and doublings as Lodge and Sherman have been driven to, it would be hard to match in the annals of Congress.

The surprising thing is, not that this should have happened, but that a week should have passed before it happened. Senator Hoar was seven days behind the newspapers in finding out that Mr. Sherman's argument was a mass of guesses and irrelevancies and falsehoods. Yet at the time the Senate sat dumb under the transparent imposition. Nothing but the luck of delay in the conference committee, with the chance it gave to hear from the country, prevented a thoroughly unsound and fraudulent policy from being adopted by the Senate almost unanimously and without one word of effective protest. This would certainly have been an entire surrender of the right and duty of public discussion of the most important public questions, by the men chosen for the express purpose of discussing them and letting the country know what was going on, what the action proposed meant, and what the reasons for it were.

This paralysis of debate fell on this Congress almost at its opening in December, in connection with the Venezuela upheaval. The principle was distinctly laid down then, in both House and Senate, that foreign affairs must not be discussed—that is, critical foreign affairs, with war and a panic just round the corner. Congress was to vote, not talk. So pleaded Mr. Hitt in the House, so it was maintained in the Senate. Representatives could ask questions about the pay of consuls, could express their views on foreign tariffs or life-insurance regulations, but the thing that became them when war was threatened was modest stillness and humility. The precedent set then it was thought would rule in the Cuban debate. It did rule at first in the Senate. In the House a few men found their voice, but debate, in the good old parliamentary sense of give and take, of argument, of sharp inquiry, of raillery, and exposure of blundering, did not really show its head until Senator Hoar got on his feet. He has done the country a great service. Not only has he completely shattered the case of the foreign-relations committee, but he has so triumphantly vindicated the value of discussion that we shall not soon see Congress sitting by again, terror-stricken and tongue-tied, while the gravest matters of national interest are being hurried through in silence and secrecy.

Lodge made a noble protest against effective debate in the Senate—at least against any brother-Senator's bringing in evidence from the outside to convict him of falsifying. He planted his feet firmly on the Constitution and the "safeguards of the freedom of the English-speaking race." No Senator should be questioned elsewhere for language uttered in debate. But Story says of this constitutional provision that its intent was "to secure independence, firmness, and fearlessness on the part of the members." This is a very different thing from granting a Senator immunity when he runs away in a fright and tells lies. That is the kind of protection that Lodge wants. He had imposed upon the Senate with a gross mistranslation and a non-existent proclamation, yet when Senator Hale brought in evidence of the fraud, he stormed indignantly about the most precious heritage of the English race. But we may be sure that the English race never intended to erect a bulwark in front of a public representative across which nobody must venture in order to expose falsehoods. Such protection Lodge cannot enjoy unless he becomes Senator among the Cretans. The English heritage is free and full debate, and Lodge is enjoying that as much as any man can who has been so discredited and humiliated by it.

It cannot be denied that there has been for some years a disposition to hold public discussion cheap. Much of the public discussion we have had it certainly would be hard to hold too cheap. Lord Salisbury said the other day in Parliament that "discussion has very little to do with the decision which nations come to upon this question [protection]. They are guided each one by the belief that this course or that will be favorable to their own interests." This is an extraordinary confession to be made by one of the most voluminous debaters and dialecticians of modern times. But what became of his dialectics when he uttered this sentiment we cannot guess. The only way nations arrive at a belief that any course will be favorable to their interests is by public discussion of that course. Nations are not born with fixed and unalterable opinions. They do not form them in their sleep, or pick them up in the streets, but base them upon argument, or what passes for such, and frame them on consideration and weighing of reasons pro and con. Their ideas of what is their true interest change from time to time, which could not be the case if discussion had no effect. Parliaments and Congresses have been in the past the chief means of furnishing argument for the people to form their judgment upon, and we must hail every indication that our own Congress does not really mean to abdicate its function of public education on the great questions at issue.

SENATORIAL DIGNITY.

THERE have been various discussions of a humorous character in the Senate during the past year, but none quite so humorous as the attempt to discipline the Spanish Minister for making a direct answer to a senatorial attack on his own government and its officers. The Senators resent this bitterly as an attack on what they call their "dignity." Now dignity is not a thing which can be taken on or put off at pleasure. An occasionally dignified man would be a ridiculous person. Nor is it a thing which can be supplied from outside sources. Each individual, or each assembly or tribunal, must be the sole purveyor of his or its own dignity. Dignity runs with the person, as the lawyers say, and not with the clothes or the building; and it is one of the most difficult things in the world, and especially in the modern world, to keep up. It necessitates a great deal of form and much self-restraint, and it needs, above all things, constant attention. All legislative bodies which try to maintain it have to be careful about what they say and allow to be said or done within their precincts. They have to have not only rules and regulations, but officers to enforce them, to secure decorum in debate, and to secure decorous behavior on the part of those whom they admit to witness their proceedings. They have to cherish what they call "order." They have to secure reverence from other people by strict attention to things on which these other people usually base reverence.

Judged by these standards, the days are gone by when the United States Senate could refer to its dignity without a meaning smile. The Senators have shown in a hundred ways that they do not care about their dignity, and therefore they cannot expect the public or foreign ambassadors to care much about it. For instance: Nothing, as history has shown, is more necessary to maintain public respect for a legislative body than the rigid exclusion of outsiders from participation in its proceedings. This means the exclusion of spectators from the part of the House occupied by members. This is carried so far in the English House of Lords and Commons that a spectator is not allowed to hang his coat over the rail of the gallery so that any part of it shall fall within the House. Not only is he not allowed to take part in the proceedings, but he is forbidden to indicate by any sign whatever that he is conscious that there are any proceedings.

At the same time he is forbidden to read, write, or munch food. These rules are based on principles of human nature, and they are justified by the experience of many ages and nations. Any legislative assembly in whose doings and sayings promiscuous outsiders are permitted to take part, has begun its decline—decline in dignity, in authority, and therefore, in a democratic country, in power.

Now the United States Senate has so far forgotten all this that it not only allows a crowd to invade its galleries, but to applaud the speeches vociferously or manually on any exciting topic. To set up a claim after this to have the proceedings regarded as so private and strictly "domestic" that a foreign minister may not notice them except through "the regular channels of diplomacy," is simply preposterous. Nothing is private or domestic which the general public is permitted to listen to or cheer. The Spanish Minister has as much right surely to go into the gallery and hiss Lodge or applaud Hale as has any Washington negro. We have not yet got to the point where the gallery loafer may arise and correct the orator, but we are surely coming to it.

In the next place, it is part of the "order" of every legislative assembly not to make personal attacks or charges against outsiders who are not subject to its jurisdiction, have not violated the law, and cannot reply to its objurgations; and this rule covers particularly the representatives and servants of foreign Powers. This is so ridiculously violated in Washington that, as we have seen recently, it is very common in both houses to load the officers of foreign governments with abuse, and to make charges against them of the most atrocious character, without a particle of proof, amid the cheers of the mob in the gallery. Senator Lodge has done this over and over; so has Senator Morgan; so have a score of others. Any foreign representative who is exposed to this sort of thing, is entirely justified in inferring from all the surrounding circumstances that he may use the privilege of all American citizens who are assailed by these scolds, and answer back. He has no good reason for supposing that they will take refuge in their "domesticity" or their "dignity," and ask him to make his complaint to the State Department. The State Department has no more jurisdiction of them and their behavior than the Minister himself. It cannot call them to account, and correspondence with it about them might last for a month, while the charge was travelling around the country and helping to influence the issues of peace and war. The title of a Senator to exemption from the lie direct rests on the assumption that he will make no personal attacks on anybody, unless absolutely necessary to the discharge of his business, or without careful inquiry and proof, and that he will be courteous and restrained in all mention of the officers of foreign Powers. Dignity and exemption in these matters attach to the Senator as a member of the American Government, with quasi-judicial and quasi-diplomatic functions, and not to the Senator as a loose-tongued and blathering politician.

Another condition of senatorial dignity, which is equally disregarded, is abstinence from attacks on American citizens about personal matters. Any legislative body which allows members to settle on the floor their quarrels with outsiders about their own doings or capacity, necessarily becomes a byword and shaking of the head. Senator Lodge has done this more than once. He "gives fits" to his newspaper and other critics, in what he calls "his place," and thus puts on record in the *Congressional Record* matter which may be just as scurrilous and slanderous as that which he uttered the other day against the Cuban Captain-General, and naturally invites retort and contempt. In fact, there is nothing in the affairs of men to-day more calculated to excite ridicule than claims to respect which are not justified by behavior. This has furnished the comic element to hundreds of plays and novels, and will always do so. The ignorant, ill-mannered man demanding the honor due to the polished and accomplished gentleman, the shyster wearing the robes and wig of the judge of appeal, the skulker recounting his exploits in the field, the sneaking politician asking us to receive him as a Webster or a Clay, will amuse the world as long as men legislate, and print, and laugh. There was a great deal of comedy in the French Convention, which has largely been lost sight of through the fearful tragedies with which it was mingled, but our own Senate is reproducing a good deal of it without the accompanying horrors.

MADE IN FRANCE.

The article of wise patriotism which our Congress is now displaying is flaunted as a purely American product. The truth is, as we have more than once remarked, that it is only a poor imitation of a French original. Between the present American Congress and the successive National Assemblies of France from 1789 on, a very close parallel may be drawn; and it is well worth while to follow it out in some detail.

In point of personnel and competence for its work, the analogy between our Congress and the ruin-dealing National Assembly of France is close and striking. We cannot do better than take Burke's analysis of the latter:

> "Judge of my surprise," he wrote, "when I found that a very great proportion of the Assembly (a majority, I believe, of the number who attended) was composed of practitioners in the law. It was composed, not of distinguished magistrates, who had given pledges to their country of their science, prudence, and integrity; not of leading advocates, the glory of the bar; not of renowned professors in universities; but, for the far greater part, as it must in such a number, of the inferior, unlearned, mechanical, merely instrumental members of the profession. There were distinguished exceptions; but the general composition was of obscure provincial advocates, of stewards of petty local jurisdictions, country attorneys, notaries, and the whole train of the ministers of municipal litigation, the fomenters and conductors of the petty war of village vexation."

That would pass for a very accurate description of our House of Representatives. In it the narrow-minded country lawyers are in a large majority. That we get nothing better from them than we do is not surprising. The surprising thing would be that we should get anything better. What Burke said of the members of the French National Assembly is true of the members of any legislative assembly: "No name, no power, no function, no artificial institution whatsoever can make the men of whom any system of authority is composed any other than God and nature and education and their habits of life have made them."

But to the test not of individual capacity, but of achievement. The National Assembly met in the midst of terribly disordered national finances. In August, 1788, the Government had confessed bankruptcy, and paid its debts only in paper with a forced circulation. The army was utterly disorganized. The navy, from having been second only to that of England, was fallen into decay. In both army and navy, obedience and discipline were almost unknown. Domestic distress and anarchy were appalling. At one time nineteen departments were in open insurrection. The monthly deficits heaped up, and were met by heaping up rag money. In such a state of things, with remedial measures the crying need of the day, the Assembly was seized by a mad passion for a foreign war. Conflicts abroad were expressly urged as a way of diverting attention from threatening bankruptcy and other domestic difficulties. The sacredness of treaty obligations was openly renounced. Revolutionary and insurgent subjects of other governments were assured of the support of French arms. A causeless war was declared on April 20, 1792—a war which drenched Europe in blood for twenty years—and only seven votes were recorded in opposition (compare the minority of six in our Senate).

We leave the moral of all this to point itself, and pass on to the analogy between the methods of French legislative madness and our own. Almost from the beginning, the National Assembly made itself an instrument for recording the whims and passions of the mob. Shrewd Arthur Young noted as early as 1790 the alarming power of the galleries, "open to all the world." "The audiences in these galleries are very noisy; they clap when anything pleases them, and they have been known to hiss; an indecorum which is utterly destructive of freedom of debate." What came later everybody knows. Applause and hissing passed into ferocious cries and threats, into personal violence, into driving away large numbers of members by gangs of assassins. The picture which Burke gives of the final outcome is one which

should be printed in large capitals every day in our *Congressional Record:*

"The Assembly, their organ, acts before them the farce of deliberation with as little decency as liberty. They act like the comedians of a fair before a riotous audience; they act amidst the tumultuous cries of a mixed mob of ferocious men, and of women lost to shame, who, according to their insolent fancies, direct, control, applaud, explode them; and sometimes mix and take their seats amongst them, domineering over them with a strange mixture of servile petulance and proud, presumptuous authority."

Our Senate and House have not yet reached this depth of humiliation, but they are headed straight down the decline. Speaking to the gallery is the preliminary of speaking from the gallery. Frowning disapproval from the gallery, intended to dismay honest men speaking their honest thought, will, if tolerated, lead to kicks and cuffs administered outside, and to a physical terrorism equal to the mental terrorism already in existence. What our servile Congress is preparing for itself is the irruption before long of Carlyle's "dripping Menads" whom neither the Vice-President nor Mirabeau could restrain, and who "ever and anon break in upon the regeneration of France with cries of 'Bread; not so much discoursing!' (*Du pain; pas tant de longs discours.*) So insensible were these poor creatures to bursts of parliamentary eloquence!"

It would be interesting to pursue the analogy further. The Jacobin Club, for example, an outside and irresponsible organization, marching down every day to make the Assembly register its decrees, has a strong family likeness to our bosses and lobbyists and "owners" of Congressmen, who buy and sell legislation, put the screws on this man and make the other one howl, and unblushingly set themselves up as absolute dictators, in whose hands Legislatures and Congresses and Governors are but silly puppets. But we leave the parallel drawn only in broad lines. In character, in methods, in seizure by mad passions—above all, the passion for a brainless war—in slavish fear of the mob, in abdication of leadership, it cannot be denied that our Congress is harking back more and more visibly to the pattern set them a hundred years ago in France—to an Assembly of which Morris wrote to Washington: "This unhappy country presents to our moral view a mighty ruin. . . . The Assembly at once a master and a slave, new in power, wild in theory, raw in practice. It engrosses all functions though incapable of exercising any, . . . and the great interests of the whole depend on momentary impulse and ignorant caprice."

With Morris, we are confident that "such a state of things cannot last." But if it is not to go on to the further madness into which France fell, we must have, and that quickly, somebody, some voice, some leader, some organ of public opinion, at Washington, in every legislature, in the press, in every form of discussion and agitation, to furnish a rallying centre for "civic manhood firm against the crowd."

THE MEANING OF McKINLEY.

When one reads every day of the way the Republican delegations are rushing for McKinley, one cannot help recalling the fact that the same class of men rushed for him and his policy with equal impetuosity at the election of 1888, and that he and his friends did in 1890 precisely the thing which his supporters hope he will do in 1898. We are fully warranted, therefore, in believing that if he is nominated and elected with a corresponding majority in Congress, he will do in 1898 the very things he did in 1890, and that the same results will follow. That is, his protectionist supporters will have such a keen appetite for high duties, and will feel so confident that they will get away with their "pile" before any reaction can come, that they will pass another McKinley tariff, the working of which will utterly disgust, not the rank and file of the Republican party, which no high-tariff bill can disgust, but the large body which hates extremes, likes a quiet life, and turns the scales at elections, and makes nowadays nearly all the principal States in the Union more or less uncertain at Presidential elections. For the feeling which is gaining ground most rapidly in the United States to-day, whatever McKinleyites may think, is not a desire for either a low tariff or a high tariff, but for stability in politics and business.

We believe this feeling has been growing, all through the Northern States at least, during the last four years, just as the anti-slavery feeling grew between 1856 and 1860, and under the same class of influences—that is, the excesses and exorbitant pretensions of the champions of slavery, which had kept the country in a continual turmoil for the previous quarter of a century. We presume no intelligent observer of these times now doubts that if the slaveholders had kept quiet, and had been content with what they had, either slavery would be in existence to-day, or they would before now have got rid of it by some peaceable compromise, and possibly by means of pecuniary compensation. It was the cloud their restlessness cast on the future of the government and on business, rather than pity for the blacks pure and simple, which finally bred the Northern determination to be rid of their system at whatever cost.

The high-tariff men seem now to insist on taking their place as disturbers of government and business. When they get into power they set up a tariff so extreme in its protection that the public will not live under it. When they are driven out of power by this very excess, far from profiting by the experience, they spend their time in ascribing every ill that folly and ignorance or the "act of God" may bring on the country to the abandonment of their experiment. The first chance they get, they set to work to persuade the country to try it again, and execrate the moderate or middle course on which it has entered for the sake of peace and quiet.

Nay, they go further than they ever went; for in order to show that of all the problems that beset the nation, foreign and domestic, the only thing they care about is the tariff, on which they were so terribly defeated in 1892, they single out for the Presidency the one conspicuous man in the party who has nothing to recommend him except his connection with that tariff. This is probably the oddest thing in the history of the party. Every other candidate the Republican party has nominated since its first Presidential convention has had some sort of fame in arts or arms. He has been a powerful debater and a courageous politician like Abraham Lincoln; or a great soldier like Gen. Grant; or a respectable soldier and a man of cultivation like Gen. Hayes; or an eminent legislator and soldier like Gen. Garfield; or a conspicuous lawyer and soldier like Gen. Harrison. Major McKinley has not one of the merits which carried these men into the Presidential chair. He has no connection with anything for which the party has ever stood, except the high tariff; and what gives a touch of drollery to his candidacy is that the high tariff to which he gave his name is the only one on which the party was ever defeated. There is in his candidacy, however, something droller still. It is proposed to put him at the head of the nation in an hour of great financial trial because of his views on finance, in spite of the fact that he has failed in business and is a silver-man. It may be nothing against his character that he has failed, but think of selecting such a man as the chief financial adviser of a great nation. In every other parliamentary country a bankruptcy disqualifies a man even for a seat in the Legislature. McKinley's elevation to the Presidency will, in fact, closely resemble the well-known opéra-bouffe decoration of the Colonel for his rapid flight from the field of battle.

The nomination, if made (and we still can hardly believe that it will be made), will serve the useful purpose of showing how completely indifferent the party has become to all subjects of legislation except the tariff as a means of making money for manufacturers, and above all how indifferent it has become to stability in business, because it evidently cares nothing about the reaction which experience shows would probably follow McKinley's election and the legislation of his Congress. What the business men of the country have discovered, or are daily discovering, is that nothing is now so necessary to the United States as steadiness in legislation, and especially in currency and taxation. The experience of recent years all points in this direction. Ask any business man in the country who owns any capital—that is, who has any money to invest, or who has credit enough to borrow—what his most ardent desire as a business man is, and he will almost certainly tell you, a cessation of perturbation of every description. He wants peace

with foreign nations, he wants a policy in finance and currency that is pretty sure to last—that is, which will not excite violent opposition as soon as it is entered on, and which will enable people to calculate fairly what the value of their property will be ten years hence.

This is the heart's desire of everybody who wishes to provide for his own old age or for his children. It is just now a growing desire, and we believe the party which by the character of its legislative nominations makes the best promise of satisfying it, is the one which will be surest of the future during the next half-century. To pick out a man who has failed in life, and who is noted for the feebleness of his intelligence and for the scarcity of his convictions, is, on the other hand, a sort of hoisting of a storm-signal, an announcement of strife and trouble, action and reaction, wars, rumors of wars, and the uncertainty which always waits on persistent attempts to make men behave unnaturally. We have bred among us a large body of persons who have learned the art of making money out of legislation, and who resent interference with their business as the slaveholders resented interference with property in slaves; and the political work of the next ten years will probably be their pacification and subjection to the régime of equal rights.

THE AFRICAN TROUBLE.

That another crisis in the Sudan would follow the Italian reverses in Abyssinia has been generally expected. The news of such things spreads with such furious rapidity in the Mussulman world that it was feared by many that the capture of Khartum in 1885 would put the French on the defensive in Algeria. A new generation, too, has grown up since the British attempt to bring the Mahdi to reason, and there is, therefore, a fresh swarm of recruits for a crescentade. If what Mr. Curzon says be true, that the Mahdi is now able to put 300,000 men in the field, the situation is really serious, for there are not many troops in the world that are able to resist the rush of the Sudanese, who have the immense advantage of wanting to die—a quality which a German military writer says makes a man the most terrible of all opponents. They twice broke British squares, and were overcome only by being exterminated, and boys of sixteen lying wounded on the field bit the surgeon who tried to help them.

That the Mahdi or Khalifa wants to aid the Abyssinians, who are Christians, is unlikely, but he knows the Europeans are in trouble, and thinks his opportunity has come. There is no question whatever that, but for the presence of the British, he could easily go to Cairo and Alexandria and set up once more a fanatical Mohammedan Power on the shores of the Mediterranean. The bearing of all this on the relations of the European Powers is even more interesting than its bearing on the fate of Egypt. The probable effect of the Italian defeat on the Triple Alliance was the very first question which the disaster started. The effect of it on Italian prestige and finances was plain enough. Would it seriously diminish the Austrian and German estimate of the value of the Italian alliance? Would it make the alliance seem less formidable to France and Russia? Would it consequently increase Russian boldness in Turkey and China? Would the German Emperor's escapades in Africa weaken the British disposition to stand by Italy in Africa although his ally?

These questions seem to be now all fairly answered. Austria and Germany are to maintain their consideration for Italy, and England is to continue her support of Italy, as an indispensable ally in the Mediterranean. She is to be helped out of her scrape in Abyssinia at whatever cost, the Abyssinian disaster being regarded in London as a menace to Egypt; to all of which Russia responds by giving King Menelek the Grand Cordon of St. George, which at such a time is a very open expression of sympathy. If Mr. Curzon's account of the Mahdi's force be true, the campaign will be anything but a promenade. There is considerable uncertainty as to the quality of the native Egyptian troops. They are, of course, immensely improved under their English officers, and have been successful against the Dervishes in several small affairs, but these were cowed Dervishes fresh from defeats by the British. How they will stand the younger horde remains to be seen. If their places have to be taken by British troops, the enterprise will be anything but welcome to the British public. The last campaign in the Sudan, coupled with Gordon's death, was both sorrowful and humiliating, which accounts somewhat for the reported lack of enthusiasm on the part of the London press.

Those who are at all familiar with social conditions in Sicily will get an idea of the magnitude of the problems which are being neglected, perforce, in Italy, in order to carry such Jingo enterprises as the war with Abyssinia. Many parts of Italy are getting into a condition not far removed from that of Sicily, in order to enable the country to cut a fine figure in uniform among the Kaisers, and show how much it can do in the way of destruction. We do not wish in any way to underestimate the value of the work of civilization which the European Powers have been doing in Africa within the present century; nevertheless, it is plain that all are not equally well fitted for it. Some, like the British and Dutch, and to some extent the Germans, are colonists by nature, and follow their armies with swarms of outlanders, who plant and reap and strike roots into the soil and build up governments. But others, like the French and Italians, make colonies which are seldom more than sickly hot-house plants kept up by Government subvention and ruled by military men. Italy has far more passion for emigration than the French, but less passion for fighting. Neither of them has shown in this century any taste or capacity for founding new states. Their efforts to carry the national civilization into savage lands have been simply Jingo enterprises, of which this Abyssinian war is the most inexcusable and the most wasteful.

One marked peculiarity of the Jingo is his inability to bear defeat. He enjoys his "extras" greatly while they bring the news of victories, but defeats make him load his own Government with execrations, if not try to overturn it, and cause him often to pack up his traps and leave the country if there be any danger of his having to do any fighting himself. These expressions of Jingo character have all shown themselves in Italy within the last few weeks. Where the army is to come from which is to seek Menelek out in his mountains, and lay him low, and enable Italy to turn her attention to the work of peaceful restoration, does not as yet appear. The heart of the people is evidently not in a war in which disasters like that of Abba Carima are probable; but one of the articles in the Jingo creed is that when you go to war you must not count the cost, and that it is base to consider the misery wrought by your defeats. The Abyssinian campaign will probably delay the work of Italian regeneration twenty-five years, and yet how long Italy has waited for it!

Correspondence.

THE PARTHENON INSCRIPTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your issue of February 6 contains a reference to the attempts at deciphering, by aid of the nail-prints, the bronze inscription which once stood upon the eastern architrave of the Parthenon. Your readers will be gratified to learn that this difficult task has now been successfully accomplished by an American student. The initial difficulty lay in securing accurate representations of the nail-prints. These are forty feet above the ground, and inaccessible except as one be lowered from the overhanging *geison* blocks some twelve feet above them. In spite of numberless difficulties and hindrances, and certainly at some considerable risk, the work of procuring paper prints or squeezes from the perilous vantage-ground of a swing in mid-air was begun about the middle of January last by Mr. Eugene P. Andrews, a member of the American School. Great patience, persistency, and technical skill, as well as coolness of head, were essential to the work.

The nail-holes appeared in twelve groups between the spaces once occupied by the bronze shields, and only one of these groups could be copied in a day. Sometimes the day's work resulted in failure, but finally three weeks of persistency brought the copies to completion, and the first careful review of them showed that decipherment was only a question of scholarship and patience, for the variety in the order of the nail-prints surely betrayed the indi-

viduality of the letter-forms. As a rule, only three nails were used to a letter, but the order or relative position of the holes proved to be much the same in all the different occurrences of the same letter.

The first word to emerge was *αὐτοκράτορα*. It made itself peculiarly vulnerable by its possession of two omicrons, two rhos, two taus, and three alphas (one of them, however, obscured). From this key Mr. Andrews proceeded with his unravelling until, after a fortnight, he was able to make a public report at a meeting of the School, giving practically a complete reading of the inscription. Two proper names alone have not yet been deciphered. The reading is as follows:

η ἐξ Ἀρείου πάγου βουλὴ καὶ ἡ βουλὴ τῶν Χ καὶ ὁ δῆμος ὁ Ἀθηναίων αὐτοκράτορα μέγιστον Νέρωνα Καίσαρα Κλαύδιον Σέβαστον Γερμανικὸν Θεοῦ Υἱὸν στρατηγοῦντος ἐπὶ τοὺς ὁπλίτας τὸ ὄγδοον τοῦ καὶ ἐπιμελητοῦ καὶ νομοθέτου Τι. Κλανδίου Νουίου τοῦ Φιλίνου ἐπὶ ἱερείας . . . (name of priestess) *τῆς . . .* (father's name) *θυγατρός.*

The reference to the eighth term of Novius's generalship fixes the date of the inscription at 61 A. D. It probably accompanied the erection of a statue of Nero, possibly just at the front of the Parthenon. The important historical bearings of the discovery it must be left to Mr. Andrews to set forth in the official publication. The importance of the subject, the difficulty of the task, and the brilliant and successful method of decipherment, have combined to awaken here more general public as well as scientific interest than has attached to any other archæological event of the year.

BENJ. IDE WHEELER.

ATHENS, February 26, 1896.

CUBA LIBRE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Everybody knows that what the Jingoes are really aiming at is the annexation of Cuba. The most depressing feature of most of the things which are being said and written about Cuba all over the country is, not their foolishishness, but their hypocrisy.—Yours truly,

X. Z.

CHICAGO, March 12, 1896.

["One of the most accomplished and distinguished officers of the Navy," as the Bangor *Whig and Courier* avouches, writing in praise of Mr. Boutelle's opposition to the Cuban resolutions, thus states the case.—ED NATION.]

"Free Cuba, which our people are so eager to bring about, means in plain English an exchange from the misrule of Spain to perpetual anarchy, when revolution will succeed revolution in one endless chain. Look at the so-called republics of Central and South America for object-lessons. . . . Grant the independence of Cuba to-morrow, and who would be President of the new republic? Gomez, a foreigner, or Maceo, a mulatto without a particle of education. . . . Then would succeed a reign of terror. President Gomez would retain power until Gen. Maceo, in command of the army, wanted his place. Within a year or eighteen months there would be a revolution. The sugar and tobacco crops would be destroyed, property of Americans confiscated or burnt, and this without redress, for in the quicksands of such political life there is no solid foundation of responsibility. This is no mere fancy sketch. . . . The alternative is the annexation of Cuba. Humanity would in time demand such a solution of the question; but that means the occupation of the island for some years to come by a strong military and naval force. Are we prepared for that?"

PERSONAL FICTION AND FACT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the interest of decorum, and as a favour to one of your old contributors, I hope you will admit this letter to your columns.

Thirteen years ago Mr. Gilbert M. Tucker, referring to an article of mine published in the *Nineteenth Century*, expressed himself, with respect to something in it, as follows:

"That such rubbish should be written by a recognized authority in philology ceases to be surprising when it is understood that the author is, not a Briton, as might be supposed, but one of those extraordinary Americans of the Henry James, jr., stripe [*sic*], who seem to regard it rather as matter of regret than otherwise, that they were not born in Europe. But, that the editor of such a magazine as that in which this effusion appeared should think it worth while to print, and presumably to pay for it," etc., etc.

In *Our Common Speech*, a book which he has recently brought out, Mr. Tucker repeats the professed description of me given above, but embellished by two significant touches. To the words "not born in Europe" is now added, "and who commonly out-British the British themselves in reviling the customs of the United States." Moreover, for "the Henry James, jr., stripe" is now substituted "the 'Carroll Gansevoort' stripe," with a footnote explaining that Carroll Gansevoort figures, in a novel, as a New Yorker who "would have considered himself disgraced if he wore a pair of trousers, or carried an umbrella, that was not of English make." To the best of my self-knowledge, I am just about as comparable to an anthropophagite as to such a phenomenon.

Of my personal predilections, over and above the preference I have acknowledged for good English to bad—as, for instance, *stripe* for *stamp*, and similar slang of the slums and the gutter—my assailant has not the slightest inkling. As to my "reviling the customs of the United States," he would, without question, have tried to justify the charge had it been susceptible of even a semblance of justification.

Again, his grounds for talking of my having written "rubbish" consist of fragments of two sentences, one of which, as he first quoted it in the *North American Review*, and as he requotes it in his book, is so transformed, by the elision, unindicated, of part of it, as to vitiate its purport materially.

"Saepe intereunt aliis meditantes necem."

It is now only six months short of fifty years since I came to live among Englishmen; and, throughout that somewhat protracted period, precisely like nearly any other American, I have always been prompt, and not seldom at the cost of rude handling, to defend my countrymen, their institutions, and their conduct, so far forth as I have thought them defensible. At the same time, dispassionate observation has convinced me that there are certain ways of the Old World which our compatriots, here and there, would profit by imitating. In particular, persons of the type of Mr. Tucker would obviously do well to cultivate, in some matters, the ethos which prevails among the better classes of civilized foreigners. The instruction which seems to be alone likely to weigh with them may, however, be obtained without their going so far afield. At home, quite as well as elsewhere, they may assuredly learn the simple lessons in policy, that coarseness of language and a low tone of thought will recommend them to none but their æsthetic and ethical compeers, and that practices akin to the use of loaded dice are attended with peril of exposure.

Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 6, 1896.

Notes.

FURTHER spring announcements by Henry Holt & Co. are W. Fraser Rae's 'Life of Sheridan'; Chevrillon's 'In India,' translated by William Marchant; 'Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture,' by Prof. E. P. Evans, with many illustrations; Francke's 'Social Forces in German Literature'; and Mears's 'Emma Lou, Her Book,' the humorous diary of a Western girl.

The Merrymount Press, D. B. Updike, Boston, will have ready before Easter a costly folio 'Altar Book,' containing the order for the celebration of the holy eucharist according to the use of the American Church, with collects, etc. It will be very elaborately adorned with borders and initials, and will be bound in pigskin. The edition will be limited to 350 copies.

Southey's Life of Nelson, edited, with an introduction and notes and a certain amount of compression, by Albert F. Blaisdell, will be added by Ginn & Co. to their "Classics for Children."

Dodd, Mead & Co. invite subscriptions to a limited edition of 'The Journal of Capt. William Pote, jr., during his Captivity in the French and Indian War from May, 1745, to August, 1747,' an inedited document of much interest and historical and genealogical importance, discovered only six years ago in the manuscript, by Bishop Hurst, who furnishes a preface. Mr. Victor H. Paltsits of the Lenox Library will supply an historical introduction, annotations, and an index. Illustrations and maps will add to the attractiveness of a luxurious piece of bookmaking.

Stone & Kimball, Chicago, have in preparation a series of letters from Japan, by William E. Curtis, and 'The Damnation of Theron Ware,' by Harold Frederic.

Mrs. Martha Foote Crowe of Chicago University will edit, and A. C. McClurg & Co. will publish shortly, the first of a series of four small volumes of "Elizabethan Sonnet Cycles." The edition will be limited.

In the autumn we are to have from Houghton, Mifflin & Co. an entirely new Riverside edition of the Writings of Harriet Beecher Stowe, in some sixteen duodecimo volumes, with bibliographical introductions and notes. For a large-paper edition Mrs. Stowe has already written her firm and handsome autograph.

The Messrs. Putnam's uniform "Mohawk Edition" of the works of James Fenimore Cooper is sure of a welcome. It is generously conceived, the typography is bold, clear and elegant, and the several works comprised in the thirty-two large-12mo volumes are to be had separately at a very reasonable price. There is no editorial apparatus. If we may judge from 'The Spy,' which leads off, there will be a frontispiece illustration in each volume, and a vignette upon the rubricated title-page. The binding is in a tasteful red cloth, and the new series is designed to range on the shelf beside the "Hudson Edition" of Irving.

Mr. R. H. Davis's sketchy magazine articles remain what they were, though now collected into a volume, 'Three Gringos in Venezuela and Central America' (Harpers). His frank

audacities of ignorance about many matters, and the boyish gravity with which he dispenses good advice to perplexed statesmen, must be taken as a part of the abandon and light-heartedness which make up the main charm of his book—and that it has a charm of its own, slight as it is, is undeniable.

A second edition of Colonel Winthrop's 'Military Law and Precedents' has been issued by Little, Brown & Co., Boston. The original work was recognized at once as a most complete and authoritative guide in courts martial and all the other military courts and boards which have judicial powers. Great care has been taken to collate all the American and English authorities, and, in the new edition, to bring down the law and the rulings to the present date. This fulness of treatment results in two stout law octavos, but the space is usefully filled with matter which makes the work a necessity to general law libraries, as well as a vade-mecum for judge-advocates and military tribunals. The same author has also prepared a new and annotated edition of the 'Digest of the Opinions of the Judge-Advocate General.'

We have had for some time on our table the illustrated 'Handbook of the New Public Library in Boston,' compiled by Herbert Small (Boston: Curtis & Co.). It is a very thorough and minute description of the costly building (which is a monument as well as a bookcase), and should satisfy the most ardent curiosity of visitors. An example of the editorial painstaking is shown in an identification of the printers' marks which form so happy a feature of the external decoration. There are professional chapters on the Architecture of the Library, by C. Howard Walker, and on the Significance of the Library, by Lindsay Swift.

After the *Yellow Book* the Pink. The editor of the *Savoy*, the newest illustrated quarterly (London : Leonard Smithers), professes catholicity. "We have no formulas," he says, "and we desire no false unity of form or matter. We have not invented a new point of view. We are not Realists or Romanticists, or Decadents. For us, all art is good which is good art." And he further disclaims originality for originality's sake, and audacity for the sake of advertising, as well as timidity "for the convenience of the elderly-minded." Of this last defect there is indeed little in his pages, but we will not answer for the absence of the other two. The general effect of the publication is that of an avatar of the *Yellow Book*, with most of its contributors, only a little the worse for wear. Mr. Beardsley appears in a double, or rather triple, rôle, as artist, poet, and romancer. His drawings have lost their chief charm in his abandonment of pure black and white and his feeble introduction of hatchings, while they are as unpleasant as ever in type of face and forms; and his so-called Romantic Novel is entirely unintelligible except as a description of his drawings. The other "artists" of the number are noticeable only for their utter incompetence. Amid this rubbish the two drawings by Sandys and the one by Whistler, which illustrate Mr. Pennell's article on "A Golden Decade in English Art" (1860 to 1870), are strangely mismated, and their sturdy quality sets one to wondering what has happened to England since such men illustrated and Thackeray wrote.

"The Decoration of Book-Edges," a paper by Cyril Davenport, occupies the post of honor in *Bibliographica*, Part viii. (Scribners), and deservedly. An interesting theme is treated agreeably and with authority. W. J. Hardy's "The Book Plates of J. Skinner of Bath" is a contribution both to the collector's fad and to the history of engraving in England, and Henry R. Plomer quarries from a legal document matter of great interest for the printer's art in discoursing of "John Rastell and his Contemporaries." Robert K. Douglas's "Chinese Illustrated Books" maintains the level of excellence of the foregoing articles in a very even number, which Austin Dobson enlivens with an account of "Pickle's 'Club.'" Mr. Douglas points out what Japanese art owes to Chinese, and remarks on the employment of our familiar Western device of showing in a cloud the dream supposed to be filling the mind of the sleeper beneath. His pictorial illustrations are very attractive.

The most significant article in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March is that by the Rev. C. F. Dole, which advocates the merging of the Divinity School in the general courses of the University and the non-segregation of its attendants. This writer's contention is that a clergyman cannot have too broad an education, and that there is no special mystery of the craft—as, *e. g.*, pulpit rhetoric—which exacts a professional training; on the other hand, that it would be an advantage to have the divinity courses made attractive and accessible to all the students of the University without regard to their aim in life. "I would," says Mr. Dole, "permit no course of study to be considered as for 'ministers' only." As for Hebrew scholarship, "the average minister, both for training his mind and for practical benefit and helpfulness, had far better make a study of music" The report of progress in the matter of a University Club seems to show that this enterprise is assured of success in view of its generally acknowledged need and the character of the chief promoters of it. Portraits of the late Rev. S. F. Smith and of President Holyoke (after Copley) adorn this number.

In the March number of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, Mr. Bernhard Berenson, in discussing the Italian pictures he found in New York, Boston, and Newport, draws attention to the fact that within ten years there will remain scarcely an Italian picture worth the buying, as all the better kind are being rapidly bought up by the public collections of Europe. Mr. Berenson deplores the inaccessibility of the few Italian masterpieces we are fortunate enough to possess. In the New York Historical Society's rooms he instances a Piero della Francesca, and other precious works, squalidly kept in murky apartments, and, even thus, to be seen only as a very special favor, and never thrown open to the public.

Bulletin No. 2, New Series, Division of Entomology, of the United States Department of Agriculture, a pamphlet of 100 pages, contains numerous hints of importance to horticulturists and farmers, or others who suffer from the depredations of insects and are exercised in finding means of prevention. The paper is entitled "Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Association of Economic Entomologists." The topics discussed include gypsy moths, cutworms, leaf beetles, scale insects, chinch bugs, borers, other insects, insecticides, spraying apparatus, traps, prospects of benefits from importations of parasites, etc., etc.; and many suggestions are made concerning habits, methods, and results, which should prove beneficial in preventing waste of time and labor in needless experimentation by individual farmers or others. Technical Series No. 1 of the same division is a 'Revision of the Aphelininæ of North America,' by L. O. Howard, Entomologist. The Aphelininæ are hymenopterous insects parasitic upon the scale insects which are so destructive to fruits, plants, and trees. The parasites have proved themselves efficient aids to the husbandman. The paper contains 44 pages, on which are illustrations of a number of the species. The Department of Agriculture also publishes "North American Fauna, No, 10," a paper of 100 pages and 12 plates on North American Shrews, by Dr. C. Hart Merriam and Gerrit S. Miller. The work makes a good appearance; it is evidently very carefully done, and contains much that is of permanent value. The plates contain illustrations of the skulls and teeth of different species of the little mammals.

—No day in the calendar of the Wisconsin Historical Society will be more red-lettered than the 29th of February, 1896. On that day it received from Rome a long desiderated monograph, 'Bressani's Breve Relatione d'alcune Missioni, *editio princeps*' (Macerata, 1653, pp. 128). This book was one of those immortals which are not made mechanically but grow naturally. Bressani, a native of Rome, labored eight years in Canadian missions, was captured, tortured daily for months, burnt by inches, then ransomed by the Dutch and shipped to France. Only one of his fingers remained unmutilated, but he took passage westward in the first vessel bound for Quebec, and made his way to the Huron mission on Georgian Bay. He worked there, bating no jot of heart or hope, till its hopeless collapse in 1648. His heart's desire was to die preaching on and on towards the Pacific, with his face thitherward, "had not the inscrutable decrees of God disposed otherwise." Ordered back to Italy by his Superior in 1650, he survived for two and twenty years, "bearing in his body the marks of the Lord Jesus," an object-lesson in martyrdom, and provocative of endless curiosity. His book is a mere transcript of the answers he must have made many a time. It was the more needed because the Jesuit Relations, which had already, for a score of years, brought out an annual volume in Paris, were printed only in French, a tongue not understanded of the people of Italy. Bressani's booklet (6x8 inches, in flexible vellum binding), speaking of few things save what his own eyes had seen, was suited to the purses and proclivities of the plain people. Most copies of it must have come into the hands of persons who had no other book, and who by continual use used it up. One specimen, obtained from Rome in 1850 by Father Martin of Montreal and translated by him into French, he believed to be the only one then in America. Perhaps it was. Winsor, however, mentions four, and some others appear in bibliographies—as one that sold in 1892 for $40 (Gagnan). The Wisconsin copy shows the bookplate of a monastery, now perhaps extinct. Some twenty years ago Father Martin's original, the unique jewel of St. Mary's library, unaccountably vanished, spirited away, no doubt, by some one who had learned that stealing relics of the saints is a very pious fraud. But in reading Bressani—a dose given to work a long time after—he was cured of his casuistry, and he has just made restitution of the stolen goods. *Gloria in excelsis!* cried the overjoyed librarian, as he opened the wrapper of the Martin Bressani coming forth to him in resurrection, and increasing his faith in all varieties of conscience money.

—Jesuit authorities have never lacked worldly wisdom. They showed it while exacting frequent and full reports from all their labor-

ers in the Canadian missionary fields, and every year publishing the information thus obtained, condensed in a handy duodecimo. The thirty-nine volumes thus produced onward from 1632 embody the observations of able and well-trained men, often the first explorers of a terra incognita, and always snappers up of significant trifles unconsidered by others. A mass of material to serve for the history of the New Dominion in its earliest period was thus accumulated and fastened in a sure place. This treasure has no parallel in any one of our thirteen colonies. Nor has it been paralleled in subsequent Canadian history, though it has been well supplemented in several lines. Gleanings from the Relations are early traceable even in Protestant writers, but the preëminent value of those documents was not plain till within the last half century. It began to dawn on Sparks and Bancroft, and was still more clear to Parkman. Meantime, the *editio princeps* (called Cramoisy from the name of the publisher) was either entombed in European libraries, or worn out in the hands of private owners. The series in its entirety baffled the endeavors of many collectors, no matter how long their purses. The first American who became master of a complete set was James Lenox. Who has done likewise? Forty years ago, wanting two, the Canadian Government reprinted the 39 Cramoisys, rolling up thirteen of them in each of three corpulent octavos. This reprint, if found at all, is held at fifty dollars. It was followed by O'Callaghan and Shea with a sort of Cramoisys, limited, however, to a hundred copies of one and twenty-five of the other. Hitherto, however, the Relations have remained in the original French, and hence continue to be a sealed book to all students whose linguistics have not carried them further than the novels of Zola. Accordingly, no news can be more welcome to students of history than the prospectus of a Cleveland publisher that he has in a good state of forwardness a complete reissue of the Jesuit Relations. Here will appear the original French, and, page by page, an English translation by a scholar who has made a life study of the French, and especially the Canadian dialect, of the seventeenth century. This edition of 750 copies will be illustrated by every species of note which may best elucidate the text; it will include Relations of a kindred character not in the Cramoisys; it will abound in maps for lack of which the journeys described have been obscure; it will present portraits of all worthies in the Relations whose lineaments are known, and will be especially rich in facsimiles of their most memorable writings. This historic boon fitly comes from Cleveland, midway between the east and west limits of the Jesuits, and under the editorship of Reuben Gold Thwaites, Secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, which stands without a peer in the West, and possibly in the East, as a quarry of material for building up the fabric of northwestern history.

—In the *Journal des Débats* of February 19 M. Alfred Rambaud prints an instructive article on "La Russie qui lit." His information is largely drawn from a series of studies published in different Russian reviews by N. A. Rubakin, who concerns himself with Russian literature, not in regard to its writers, who are many and some of them very great, but in regard to its readers, who present a far less satisfactory object of contemplation. In the first place, Russia has far fewer readers than any other modern nation. In 1886 less than 30 per cent. of her conscripts were able to read at all, and the number of readers at the present time cannot be higher than 35 per cent. Even this low figure does not fairly represent the true ratio of the lettered and unlettered, for the conscripts are drawn from the younger, and consequently the better educated, portion of the male population; and, besides, there are in Russia many more schools for boys than for girls. It is perhaps doubtful whether out of the hundred and twenty-five millions of the empire more than twenty millions know their letters. What have these twenty millions to read? In every country it is the newspapers and magazines which are most read. Russia has but few of these—nine hundred only, according to Mr. Rubakin's reckoning; that is to say, seven times fewer than Germany, and five times fewer than France. For a million of inhabitants Switzerland has 230 periodicals; Belgium, 153; Norway, 89; Spain, 68; Greece, 36; Servia, 26; and Russia only 9. There is a corresponding scarcity of books, and an especial lack of new books. A large proportion of the latter are pirated from foreign authors, most of the native books being republications. The first year after the expiration of the copyright on Pushkin's works, 163 editions were brought out, amounting to about two million copies. There is a great dearth, too, of public libraries, there being hardly more than in Japan. The number of these is, however, increasing. In 1830 there were but three—at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Odessa. In 1856 there were only forty-nine; since then, libraries have considerably increased in number, but most of them are as yet but ill furnished with books. In 1887 there were in all Russia only 1,271 bookstores. Of all the Russian writers, Tolstoi is the one who is most read; Turgeneff and Dostoyevsky dispute the second place. Of translations, most are from the French; for every German book that is translated there are two or three English and a dozen or fifteen French ones. It is not, however, the works of the greater French writers that are most in vogue, but rather those of men like Gustave Aymard, Xavier de Montépin, and Ferdinand de Boisgobey. Dumas *père*, however, stands well on the list; Zola towards the bottom, but much above Cooper, Dickens, and Walter Scott. There is no demand for French or English classics.

—The Imperial Government of Japan permitted Col. W. Taylor, Army Medical Staff, detailed by the British Government, to accompany their army in the field in the late Chinese war, and his report of their 'Medico Military Arrangements' in 1894-5 has been published with a promptness unusual for public documents on either side of the Atlantic. In one sense it was unfortunate for science that the Chinese, notwithstanding thousands of the new arm were in their arsenals, preferred the older weapons, and in some instances used bows and arrows, and that the Japanese troops which were equipped with the new magazine gun were not engaged. Therefore the effect of the long range small-bore, when used on a large scale, is not yet determined. Although not taxed to nearly its capacity as a whole, the Japanese medical service, at the front and on the line of communication as well as at the base, was admirably managed. With a forethought that English-speaking nations, and especially we ourselves, might well practise, the Japanese had given their officers and men constant opportunity to master in time of peace every duty, and to be practically familiar with their entire equipment. It was owing to the careful regard of that principle that, as Col. Taylor expresses it, the actual work of the Medical Department was "easy, smooth, and efficient," and that that department was "able to go through its first campaign with such brilliant success." Notwithstanding the occasional necessary overcrowding, "there were no cases of septicæmia." That speaks volumes not only for the Japanese but for the future. It establishes a record, a mark below which military surgery hereafter should not fall, but doubtless will. But to those, whether medical or lay, who remember what appeared to be the pathological necessities of the Rebellion, the surgical millennium would seem really arrived when that could be truthfully written. Very singularly, although the gospel of cleanliness and of asepsis was scrupulously followed within the hospitals, sanitation properly so called outside of them was not provided for by the regulations, and it was only after a long time that the Japanese seemed to be awake to its importance. When aroused they acted with their usual intelligence, energy, and thoroughness, and, as in the case of Kinchow, they placed in a good sanitary state "a town which had been occupied for hundreds of years by the filthiest people in the world." The Japanese system is by no means perfect. For instance, their transport service is under dual control; and as no man can serve two masters any more successfully in the nineteenth century than in the first, some of the disabled who required moving suffered.

—One instance of the gallantry of the medical corps is noted at Wei-hai-wei, where, as a regiment exposed to the sudden action of the quick-firing guns of seven vessels had many men killed and wounded in a very few seconds, and was obliged to fall to the ground and crawl to shelter to escape annihilation, the medical officers, separately and accompanied by stretchers and attendants, walked across the beach in the face of an incessant hail of bullets, "and in twenty minutes stretcher-bearers, attendants, and medical officers, walking quietly and coolly away, had removed every dead and wounded officer and man from the beach, the Chinese ships having kept up a continuous and terrific fire upon them all the time." As the historian well remarks, "it was a splendid deed of heroism that can never be forgotten," and "it will be an enduring proof of the efficiency in the field of the Japanese medical service." Their special addition to the *armamentarium chirurgicum* appears to be the use of straw ash, which, free from grit and enclosed in antiseptic gauze bags as devised by Dr. Kikuchi, was applied as pads to the wounds and was very serviceable.

—There are many signs that Germany, of all countries the most conservative as concerns the emancipation of woman, is actively bestirring herself. In a single recent number (March 1) of *Die Frauenbewegung* we find reports of several public meetings in various parts of the fatherland well attended by women and men of standing, interested in the furtherance of the cause. In Berlin, at a large meeting called by Frau Schulrat Cauer and Frau Rechtsanwalt Bieber, the "position of woman in the projected new civil code" for the German Empire was discussed with remarkable ability; of the speeches given in full in the journal mentioned, that of Fräulein Anita Augspurg, cand. jur., deserves especial mention. That the leaders of the movement are not lacking in practical sense and ability is proved by the measures adopted for pleading with the members of the Reichstag in favor of

more just legislation than the present draft of the new law provides. At another meeting in the same city, Prof. Dr. Med. Waldeyer, formerly noted for his hostility to the woman movement, acknowledged his conversion, and stated his conviction that man is not justified in denying to woman an academical education; and Sanitätsrat Dr. Küster upheld the present agitation on ethical grounds. At Stuttgart, Pastor Gerok is reported as doing good service to the cause of woman by a series of addresses before steadily increasing audiences; while a high military officer from the ranks of the nobility, Oberstlieutenant von Egidy, is advancing most liberal views at Brunswick, vindicating for woman the right enjoyed by men to all the intellectual and material possessions of the race.

MR. PUNCH.

The History of "Punch." By M. H. Spielmann. With numerous illustrations. New York: The Cassell Publishing Co. 1895. Pp. xvi, 592.

THERE are families in which *Punch* is not known, or is known only as a "paper" to buy now and then, and there are families in which the volumes accumulate with the passing years, and prove much more valuable as a permanent possession than they were in the form of weekly flying leaves. It would be interesting to search the writings of cultivated Englishmen and Americans and to bring together the numerous citations and allusions, the quoted sayings, and the narratives confessedly original with *Mr. Punch*. Many of his sayings have passed into the language as bywords, the true origin of which is unsuspected. And yet it is not as an epigrammatist that *Punch* is most successful. Epigram is not common in English wit, and humorous fun knows it not. Parody, on the other hand, is *Punch's* own particular ground; and there are almost no parodies anywhere better than *Mr. Punch's*, more close to the original, more delightfully humorous, or more poetic. It argues a wider reading than is generally thought to exist by Englishmen of English poetry that parodies on the works of the masters of verse, ancient and modern, should be expected to make their way in such a fashion. The verses are that kind of fun which clings to the memory, being often excellently well composed, masterly in rhyme and metre. Sometimes they have become favorite poems, even of the reader who does not know the originals.

Of original verse *Punch* is not as lavish now as in olden times. There was a day when Thackeray was a member of the staff, and when such poems as "Little Kitty Lorimer" and the ballads of Policeman X, the Peacock and the Bul-bul, and "What makes my heart to thrill and glow," were to be looked for from week to week. "The Mahogany-tree" came out in *Punch* at the right time—that is to say, at Christmas, in one of the early years—and its original title was, appropriately, "*Punch* Singeth at Christmas." Some of the Thackeray songs have never been reprinted, we think, but, whether reissued or not, there is not much better comic poetry than the "Three Christmas Waits." The three waits are Louis Philippe, a Chartist rioter (not named), and Smith O'Brien; need it be said that the year of the poem is 1848? Years before, at Christmas time 1843, the "Song of the Shirt" appeared in *Punch* with a border around it filled with little figures having no relation to the poem. Eight pages further on is another poem, evidently by the same writer, in whose hands pathos and humor were one, "The Pauper's Christmas Carol." A few weeks later is a little poem in six short stanzas, also by Hood, when near his end. This is called "Reflections on New Year's Day," and the reflecting personage is evidently a very poor man who thinks that the wishes offered him for a happy new year might take the form of something to wear. To find the equal or the companion to these poems in force and pathos we have to turn to the volume for 1865 and read the poem on the death of Abraham Lincoln, beginning "*You* lay a wreath on murdered Lincoln's bier." Tom Taylor was not Tom Hood, nor a poet in the sense that the older man was a poet, but, under the stress of this strange event, which suddenly reminded the London public that there was pathos and eventful living across the Atlantic, a strenuous poem was written. The poem on the death of Prince Albert, December, 1861, was in no way worthy to compare with the last, nor is it common in the later volumes to find anything serious or strong; but in January, 1875, there is something fine—"Rough Voices from the East End," which speak in these words:

> "Which Parson says it is
> Our dooty to be grateful,
> Even when bread's riz,
> And meat no end a plateful.
> . . . . . .
>
> "Now, it's easy to like skittles,
> Or bagatelle, or pool-board,
> But without a meal o' wittles
> 'Tain't many wallies School-Board.
>
> "Which larning 'elps a kinchin
> If he've the heart to con it,
> But that's 'ard, with hunger pinchin',
> And a board with nuffin on it."

Nonsense of the well-known type appeared in *Punch* as early as 1845, a year before the publication of Lear's first 'Book of Nonsense.' Long afterwards *Mr. Punch* began the publication of more verses of the sort, "to be continued until every town in the Kingdom shall have been immortalized." In fact, each stanza had to do with a town, *e. g.*:

> "There was a young lady of Birmingham—
> When the bishop came down there confirming 'em,
> She sent him some frogs,
> And some nice little dogs,
> And a tract about feeding and worming 'em."

At a later time Mr. Du Maurier, who had written other most amusing verse which it is sad to have to pass in silence, started similar verses in French under the general title, "Vers Nonsensiques." Among these there was one at any rate in unintelligible argot unless it was in gibberish.

Punch's prose, like his verse, was more literary in the early days, and has been more a matter of current satire and comment during the past twenty years. In 1845, Mrs. Caudle's Curtain Lectures were going on, and other things only less celebrated by Douglas Jerrold preceded and followed them, such as the "Story of a Feather" and "Our Honeymoon"; the last an admirable piece of writing, and more gentle in its satire than was the habit of the savage Jerrold. At the same time and later, Thackeray's Snob Papers were in course of publication in *Punch*—the same which now make up the 'Book of Snobs.' There is a good deal about Jeames, with some papers that have not been included in Thackeray's collected works. There were the "Letters to a Young Man about Town," there was "*Punch* in the East" and other contributions by the Fat Contributor, there were the Epitaphs on the four Georges, there were the stories by "*Punch's* Prize Novelists," of which "Phil. Fogarty, by Harry Rolliker," is the most famous, and there were many things which one cannot but suppose to be Thackeray's work, such as the Bashi-Bazouk Papers in 1855 and the "New Portrait of Prince Albert"; but indeed there are a host of things which seem to be the work of Titmarsh. Sometimes there were pieces of solid reading apart from Thackeray's continued essays. There was, for instance, that queer romance, "The Naggletons," which ran through many numbers, twenty years ago; and forty years ago there was the very clever story, "Miss Violet and her Lovers," which the readers of *Punch* seem generally to neglect—the nearest approach to a serial novel that *Punch* ever made.

Of late years, as we have intimated, the fun in *Punch's* prose is more local and temporary—more a part of the news of the day. None of it all is better than Mr. Lucy's wonderful analysis of Parliamentary doings, beginning in 1881. (It is to be feared that American, and even some English, ideas of the cleverness of repartee of members of the House may be based upon the "Diary of Toby, M. P.," rather than upon fact.) But Mr. Anstey and others have kept up the old traditions, as in "Voces Populi" and in "Travelling Companions."

So far we have written without much reference to the book under consideration, but we must take from it now the statement that the famous dialogue, "'What is mind?' 'No matter.' 'What is matter?' 'Never mind,'" is not from *Punch* at all. To be sure, nobody said that it was, but it is a relief to know that one need not hunt through 110 thin volumes or 55 thick ones in search of it. On the other hand, it was a *Punch* joke, with an excellent illustration to it by Charles Keene in his youth, which expressed the extravagance of London in a few words. One "Peebles body" says to another: "E eh, Mac! ye're sune hame again." And the other answers: "E-eh, it's just a ruinous place, that! Mun, a had na' been the-erre abune twa hoours when—Bang—went saxpence!!!" Mr. Spielmann's volume reproduces as the best—that is to say, the most popular—joke in *Punch*, that which appeared in the Almanack for 1845. It was an advertisement, at least in appearance, and the newspapers of the day would supply the prototype of it:

> WORTHY OF ATTENTION.
> Advice to persons about to marry—Don't!

Mr. Spielmann expends two pages upon this immortal joke and on its origin, and it appears that, after many claimants and many attributions had been dismissed, it was finally agreed that it came from the regular staff in the regular way, and was really the invention of Henry Mayhew.

Still, however, it is illustration, and not text, which makes *Punch* dear to the after-world and the foreign world; to people who are not of London and to those who open the volume years after its issue. The pictures do not often need any intimate knowledge of the political talk of the day; the purely political caricatures, including very many of the large "cartoons," seem, even to many well-instructed students of *Punch*, inferior to those of purely social character. There is in this great unsorted and non-catalogued mass of illustration something for every lover of pictures, from the little six-year-old girl who is delighted with the train of cars which she finds simulated in the row of tea-cups drawn apparently by a steaming and bubbling teapot, to the older connoisseur who loves the beautiful landscape effects of Leech or the strong characterization of Charles Keene. To name the artists of *Punch* is to name the most celebrated and the most deservedly celebrated draughtsmen of the modern English world, always ex-

cepting George Cruikshank. John Leech and Charles Keene are certainly the most artistic of them, with Harry Furniss in a good second place. George Du Maurier, even more popular than Leech, is narrow in his art, but full of grace and charm. Richard Doyle was certainly the best illustrative artist that ever lived who could not draw the figure under any circumstances. Sir John Tenniel, better known by his large cartoons than in any other way, formal, cold, not often humorous, at least in *Punch*, has yet a popular charm, hard to explain. Randolph Caldecott made a few drawings for *Punch*—eighteen in all—scattered over ten years. Linley Sambourne is the most individual and independent artist in all the world of illustration; he has developed a style of drawing which is all his own, but his gift at humorous design seems to have been born in him, and even as early as 1867 his astonishing headpieces and initials, which were all he was allowed to supply, prepared those who could see originality, under feeble execution, for what was to come when he had mastered his methods. The celebrated drawing of *Punch's* centennial dinner, "The Mahogany Tree," dated July 18, 1891, may be called his greatest achievement.

It is unnecessary to mention the failures, for *Punch* generally abandoned his failures—turned from his evil ways without delay. Thackeray can hardly be called a failure, in spite of the hideous ugliness of his drawings and their lack of skill and knowledge, for they were at least very well fitted to their text, and were funny. It is impossible, however, to omit mention of the one long-continued series of worthless drawings, namely, that begun in 1866 and known to be by Miss Bowers. Mr. Spielmann rightly says that this artist had the gift to see a joke; but it must always remain a mystery that her feeble artistic work should have been allowed to disfigure *Mr. Punch's* gallery. There is allusion to it on page 529 of Mr. Spielmann's volume, with but a word or two as to its quality. Finally, the work of the latest years finds its best expression in Mr. J. Bernard Partridge and Mr. Phil May—real artists, both of them.

As for the book itself, it is of course capital reading, and contains, of course, a vast amount of information which one is glad to possess. The authentic account of the weekly dinners, and the diners, and their initials and ciphers cut on the table-top, is alone reason enough for this book's existence. The illustrations are nearly all of value. On the other hand, the need that every one must feel of a book of reference to *Punch* is not well supplied, as allusions to any particular subject, article, writer, or artist are scattered throughout these many pages, and the index to the volume, which would need to be very full if it were to serve all its purposes, is very far from being complete. To have the index pages interleaved, and to write upon the extra pages your own references to the mention and description of your own favorites, would be the way to utilize this book.

CRETAN PICTOGRAPHS.

Cretan Pictographs and Præ-Phœnician Script. By Arthur J. Evans, M.A., F.S.A. Pp. viii, 146. London: Bernard Quaritch; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895.

THE accomplished keeper of the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford has published a book of more than common interest. That Cretan antiquities form the study of classical archæologists is a matter of course, and Mr. Evans's travels in Crete have yielded much that is worthy of close attention from this necessarily limited and exclusive class; but the bearing of his discoveries and discussions is wide, and the student of civilization even with slender archæological equipment will be fascinated by the suggestions of the volume.

The kernel of the matter is this: Mr. Evans has discovered in Crete a large number of objects bearing signs somewhat resembling the Hittite, and others inscribed with linear characters hitherto unknown. By comparing still others, found on Ægean Islands and remoter parts of the Eastern Mediterranean basin, he has reached highly important conclusions as to a great chapter in the history of ideographic, syllabic, and alphabetic signs. These are put forward tentatively and with reserve, but the very moderation of the author gives his observations additional weight, and, however his facts may be finally interpreted, they are sure to modify considerably the views of the relation of ancient Mediterranean peoples which have been recently current. Many of the objects examined are inscribed stones of small size, used apparently as seals and ornaments; others are vases and jars, of stone and of clay; a few are implements and ornaments of metal. The picture-signs, or "pictographs," inscribed on them represent a great variety of common things—human and animal figures, or parts of them; heads, arms, legs, eyes; birds and fishes; tools, weapons, and musical instruments; fences, gates, and doors; household vessels, ships, trees, and flowers, sun, moon, and stars, mountains and valleys. There are also geometrical figures and other designs not easily classified. These are so placed and grouped as to make it wholly probable that we have to do with a system of ideographic signs, designed to communicate ideas or classes of ideas through the eye. Mr. Evans has found, in all, some eighty-two of these picture-symbols.

A comparison between the Cretan discoveries and objects found in Egypt, Asia, several Ægean Islands, and the Peloponnesus yields interesting results bearing on the age of the symbols and on the extent of their use. One well-established connection seems to be that with the best age of Mycenæan civilization, borne out by objects excavated at Mycenæ and at Hissarlik. Another is with the art of the eighteenth Egyptian dynasty, and in particular with objects from Kahun and Tel el-Amarna, found by Mr. Petrie. The Cretan picture-writing was, then, apparently developed to a high degree prior to B. C. 1500. But this is not all. There is a much earlier class of the inscribed stones, resembling in important respects early Egyptian scarabs. For this comparison it is not necessary to tread on Egyptian soil. At Hagios Onuphrios, in Crete, near the site of Phæstos, a deposit has been found, in an ancient necropolis, containing (besides the inscribed seal-stones) figures, pottery, implements, and ornaments, all of pre-Mycenæan times, and reaching back—on the evidence of similar primitive objects from Amorgos in the Ægean, and from the lower strata of Hissarlik—2,000 or 2,500 years B. C. More conclusively still, while these Cretan seals show the influence of Egyptian scarabs of the twelfth dynasty, prior to B. C. 2500, a considerable number of such scarabs themselves were found in the same deposit. The picture system was, then, in use in Crete as early as this date. A further step is made possible by the observation of a group of Cretan hieroglyphic seals of extremely archaic appearance, showing no trace of Egyptian influence, and not connected with any Egyptian finds—presumably, therefore, much earlier. In these Mr. Evans sees direct evidence of the prevalence of the Cretan pictographs nearly or quite as early as B. C. 3000, and their origin must of course be much earlier still.

The light thus thrown on the relations of the Hittite symbols is plain. If, for 1,500 or 2,000 years, the Ægean islands and the Peloponnesus were familiar with a pictorial script, of which some characteristic signs strongly resemble certain Hittite hieroglyphs, the inference is natural that the script which is traceable at so many points in Western Asia and Asia Minor in particular was not developed without Ægean influence, or at least was not without Ægean kinship; and the possibility arises that a clue to the one set of symbols may give at length the true clue to the other.

But there is something of still greater importance. Besides the pictographs there is also a considerable group of linear signs on seals, vases, building-stones, and other objects found in Crete, at Mycenæ, and in places under the same influence. Some have been discovered at Kahun and Gurob in Egypt, where they appear as foreign signs. Thirty-two linear characters in all have been noted. Some of these occur as early as the time of the twelfth Egyptian dynasty. Mr. Evans regards them as "quasi-alphabetic," or, more exactly, as syllabic. They appear, like the pictographs, to have been in wide use. They are relatively abundant at Mycenæ, while the pictographs are not, which is interpreted to mean that they early drove out the pictographs, while in Crete, the proper home of both, the two lived together for a long time. It is apparently possible, in a dozen cases or more, to trace the derivation of the linear sign from the pictograph. We seem to have going on before our eyes, as we examine these objects, the process of transition from picture-system to syllabary of which evidences more or less distinct are found in Babylonia and Egypt, but without trace of influence from either of them. We learn also that the energetic people or peoples who inhabited the Peloponnesus and the whole Ægean basin 4,000 years ago were not destitute, as has been often supposed, of a medium of written communication, and that when Phœnician traffic brought Phœnician letters, it was not as the supply of a total lack, but as a better substitute, that they made their way.

This brings us to the matter of crowning interest. Mr. Evans raises the question, to which, with great self-restraint, he offers no positive and sweeping answer, whether the Phœnician alphabet itself may not be largely indebted to this linear Ægean script. This almost takes one's breath away. Nothing has seemed more certain than that the alphabet is Oriental. But with the Cretan discoveries the question becomes inevitable. It cannot be denied that on this point hypothesis has still a tolerably free field. De Rougé's theory of alphabetic development from the Egyptian hieratic signs—plausible and strongly urged—has held its ground more because no other satisfactory explanation was offered than because of its intrinsic strength. Deecke's attempt to explain the Phœnician letters from the Assyrian cuneiform signs failed miserably, and even Dr. Peters's scholarly endeavor to avoid Deecke's disaster by substituting, far more wisely, the ancient Babylonian character, has not convinced the scholarly world. The Tel el-Amarna tablets, witnessing to the cuneiform signs as the medium of intercourse between Egypt and Palestine in the fifteenth century B. C., have interfered with all these theories.

It would be curious enough if facts should at length show that the alphabet welcomed by Greece as a foreign gift, is really the descendant of an emigrant from Crete, coming back as a princely benefactor to the children or successors of its forgotten ancestors.

The points to which Mr. Evans calls especial attention are these: Of the 32 known signs in the Cretan linear script, 15 appear in the Cypriote syllabary. But Cyprus is very near to Syria. Half-a dozen signs actually correspond in form, some of them strikingly, with old Shemitic letters (Sabean, Moabite, Phœnician). Eight agree closely with signs on potsherds found by Mr. Bliss in the earliest strata of Tel el Hesy (before B. C. 1500). The Philistines, in whose territory Tel el-Hesy lies, came from Caphtor, and Caphtor is Crete. Indeed, some of the early pictographs—*e. g.*, the figure of a kneeling camel—point to ancient commerce between Crete and Syria, and the names of several Phœnician (Hebrew) letters, *Aleph*, *He*, *Cheth*, *'Ayin*, etc., are names of objects which appear in the Cretan pictographs. The suggestion of this possible origin for the alphabet is most attractive, and no serious objection to it at present appears. Mr. Evans summarizes the evidence as follows:

"The Cretan pictographs give us a good warrant for believing—what even without such evidence common sense would lead us to expect—that a primitive system of picture-writing had existed in the Ægean lands at a very remote period. The antiquity of these figures is indeed in some cases curiously brought out by the fact, already pointed out, that they actually exhibit the actions of a primitive ges ture-language. Furthermore we see certain ideographic forms, no doubt once widely intelligible on the coasts and islands of the eastern Mediterranean, reduced to linear signs which find close parallels in Cyprus and Phœnicia. Finally, some of the names of the Phœnician letters lead us back to the same pictographic originals which in Crete we find actually existing.

"To the Phœnicians belongs the credit of having finally perfected this system and reduced it to a purely alphabetic shape. Their acquaintance with the various forms of Egyptian writing no doubt assisted them in their final development. Thus it happened that it was from a Semitic source and under a Semitic guise that the Greeks received their alphabet in later days. But the evidence now accumulated from Cretan soil seems at least to warrant the suspicion that the earlier elements out of which the Phœnician system was finally evolved were largely shared by the primitive inhabitants of Hellas itself. So far, indeed, as the evidence at our disposal goes, the original centre of this system of writing should be sought nearer Crete than Southern Syria" (p. 98).

The racial connections of the men who invented the pictographs and developed the linear script from them receive little fresh light from these discoveries, although Mr. Evans seems to show the probability that there were early Greek settlers in Crete, and that the system was employed (in part, but not originally) by those who spoke Greek. The language of the inscribed objects preserved to us is unknown as yet.

Certain bye-paths of the discussion we have of necessity left unnoticed; *e. g.*, the part played by Crete as a transmitter of Egyptian culture on its way to remote parts of Europe. The development of the main theme is certainly sufficient to establish the remarkable significance of the book.

BOOKS ON ART.

Evolution in Art, as Illustrated by the Life-histories of Designs. By Alfred C. Haddon, Professor of Zoölogy, Royal College of Science, Dublin, Corresponding Member of the Italian Society of Anthropology, etc. London: Walter Scott; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.

Renaissance Fancies and Studies. By Vernon Lee. Being a Sequel to 'Euphorion.' London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

The Florentine Painters of the Renaissance. With an Index to their Works. By Bernhard Berenson, Author of 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' 'Lorenzo Lotto: An Essay in Constructive Art Criticism,' etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

La Culture Artistique en Amérique. Par S. Bing. Paris: 22 Rue de Provence; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer. 1896.

The Illustration of Books: A Manual for the Use of Students; Notes for a Course of Lectures at the Slade School, University College. By Joseph Pennell, Author of 'Pen-Drawing and Pen-Draughtsmen,' 'Modern Illustration,' etc. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: The Century Co.

Studies in the Science of Drawing in Art. By Aimée Osborne Moore. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895.

THESE six books are exemplifications of the numerous and distinct points of view from which the fine arts may be regarded. The first of them is the work of "a biologist who has had his attention turned to the subject of decorative art," and deals "with the arts of design from a biological or natural-history point of view"; its object being "to show that delineations have an individuality and a life-history which can be studied quite irrespectively of their artistic merit." The work calls for review from a scientist rather than from a critic of art, but even an art critic can feel, though perhaps he cannot quite appreciate, its admirable tone of scientific caution and unbiassed investigation. The volume opens with a detailed consideration of the decorative art of British New Guinea "as an example of the method of study," after which more general ideas are taken up, and "the materials of which patterns are made" and "the reasons for which objects are decorated" are illustrated from the arts of various peoples in various ages, the whole concluding with a statement of "the scientific method of studying decorative art." Many most interesting examples of the change of patterns through evolution or degeneration are given, and the "life-history" of many designs is ingeniously traced. What is admirable, however, in Prof. Haddon's treatment of his subject is less the conclusions he has drawn than those he has refrained from drawing. In the face of the liberal theorizing which leads one archæologist to derive almost all known patterns from the lotos, while another, with equal assurance, derives them all from something else, it is refreshing to find an insistence that resemblance is not necessarily identity, and that our knowledge of facts is often too small to justify certainty in inference. The point is often made that any given pattern must be studied on the spot where it appears, and all the ascertainable facts about its origin there must be mastered before we can be sure whether or not it is the same pattern which occurs elsewhere and which it closely resembles. The final conclusion would seem to be that given on page 173, in a quotation from W. H. Holmes, that "we are absolutely certain that no race, no art, no motive or element in nature or in art, can claim the exclusive origination of any one of the well-known or standard conventional devices, and that any race, art, or individual motive is capable of giving rise to any and all such devices"; and the author's temper is shown by his statement that he has "been mainly concerned to provide an efficient tool for other workers," rather than himself to "elucidate the multitudinous designs and forms which beset us on every hand."

It is to be regretted that a work otherwise so laudable should be marred by the pestilential heresy, stated in the chapter on wealth as a cause of decoration, that "coin is always of less intrinsic worth than its nominal value; and as money transactions increase, the nominal value bears absolutely no relation to the real value, as in the case of paper money." On the next page this has become a statement that certain objects used as a medium of exchange in Torres Straits "cannot be regarded as money, *as they have an intrinsic value.*" Nothing worse than this has been seen since the financial teaching of the Rollo Books and Jonas's wooden currency, and it is entirely unnecessary to the course of Prof. Haddon's argument.

The standpoint of Vernon Lee is that of the amiable dilettante, interested in art as a part of general culture. There is much charming writing in the volume and some keen-sighted analysis. The description of the "humanness" as of "a nice child" of Fra Angelico, with his "gayly dressed angels . . . leading the little cowled monks—little baby black and white things with pink faces, like sugar lambs and Easter rabbits—into deep, deep grass quite full of flowers"—and of the early Venetians with their music-making angels, is very apt and delightful. More serious contributions to criticism are the ideas that art, in its slow development, takes years to perfect an ideal with which it started, so that it is the feeling of the age of St. Francis which is finally embodied in the painting of the epoch of the Tyrants, and that often it is neither the personality of the artist nor Taine's "race, environment, and moment" that determine the characteristics of a given art, which are rather the result of technical processes and training. Hence the difference between Greek and Tuscan sculpture may be considered as resulting less from the difference of Greek and Italian racial instinct, or of ancient and mediæval feeling, than from the fact that the Greeks were primarily modellers of clay and the Italians hewers of stone; the technical methods proper to either art leading the Greeks to the realization of actual form at the finger ends, and the Florentines to the suggestion by effect of light and shade on a church front. The book ends with a tribute to the memory of the author's master, Walter Pater, one who, "by faithful and self-restraining cultivation of the sense of harmony, . . . appears to have risen from the perception of visible beauty to the knowledge of beauty of the spiritual kind," thus showing the possible higher uses of merely æsthetical cultivation.

Mr. Berenson is nothing if not modern, and the views he has set forth in his latest book are, at first sight, bewilderingly novel. His psychology, however, as has been said of Spenser's allegories, will not bite, and one soon begins to perceive that his "tactile values" are little else than our old friends significant drawing and sense of form. What his doctrine amounts to is that this significant drawing, this "realization of the material nature of things," was the vital element of Florentine painting, and not story-telling or the excitation of religious emotion; that Giotto possessed the talent for it in the highest

measure, but was hampered by the lack of technical knowledge; that the study of technical means occupied the school for 200 years, sometimes leading to mere naturalism or mere display; that occasionally in this time a master arose, comparable to Giotto in power, and, with the new knowledge, achieved a new expressiveness; that Michelangelo, coming at the right time and with the right nature, pushed significant drawing to its furthest limit; and that, after him, the job being thoroughly done, nothing was left for Florentine art but rapid decadence and academicism. The view-point, though not so new as it seems, is not that of the average critic, but it appears to make little change in the familiar perspective. Giotto, Masaccio, Leonardo, and Michelangelo still stand like giants, dominating the landscape, with Botticelli only a little lower; and even Fra Angelico's permanent charm is duly accounted for.

The "Index to the Works of the Principal Florentine Painters" at the end is interesting as giving the results of the latest criticism, including Mr. Berenson's own, and is useful and welcome. In some cases one would be glad of the reasons for the attribution, notably in that of the famous "wax head of Lille," which Mr. Berenson gives to Leonardo. The common attribution to Raphael has little to sustain it, but we confess to an equal incredulity towards this later venture. We do not know what Leonardo's work in sculpture was like, but we see no reason to suppose that that pupil of Verrocchio did anything resembling the wax head.

The point of view—that of the travelling foreigner in this country—has to be especially reckoned with in considering M. Bing's pamphlet on artistic culture in America. Judging from a prefatory epistle, M. Bing seems to have been commissioned by the Directeur des Beaux-Arts to make a report on the development of art in the United States, and these hundred-odd pages are the result. One would be tempted to believe, at first, that the report might have been written without crossing the Atlantic, for the only American painters the author seems to know well are those who have taken up a permanent residence abroad. About the home-keeping talents he makes strange blunders, such as transforming J. Alden Weir into "Alden Wierd," calling George Fuller a "strict imitator of the French manner," and Inness a "faithful translator of the familiar sites of his own country." Mr. D. W. Tryon would perhaps be surprised to find himself labelled as a follower of Inness, and Mr. Winslow Homer would certainly find some difficulty in recognizing himself in the following description:

> "Clever at bringing before us in characteristic compositions that lively people, the negroes, and the curious aspects of their easy manners, he is also fond of evoking, in a fabulous world, strange scenes created by his imagination."

If Mr. Bing knows little about American painting, he knows and cares less about our sculpture. After mentioning an "equestrian statue of Washington" by Greenough, unknown to the rest of the world, he disposes of contemporary sculptors, "les Ward, Launt Thompson, Saint-Gaudens, Warner, MacMonnies, Herbert Adams," in one sentence as having not yet learned "the art of animating gesture in a natural manner, or of expressing in the features the sentiments of the soul." It is when Mr. Bing begins to deal with architecture that he reveals the reason of his attitude. He is one of those who come to the consideration of American art with a fixed notion that a new people should produce something entirely new, and that all art which resembles what has been done in other countries is therefore negligible. In our architecture he finds this new thing, and the cold critic of our painting and sculpture becomes the enthusiastic admirer of those high buildings which we, in our ignorance of what we have done best worth the doing, are trying to suppress by act of legislature. Of one other form of American art is M. Bing, and with more reason, a hearty admirer; but his praises of American stained-glass are, however unjustly, likely to be discounted as possibly influenced by his commercial relations with a well-known firm of manufacturers.

Mr. Pennell writes of the "illustration of books" with the authority of an accomplished illustrator, and as he is here giving practical instruction to students of his own art, his knowledge is valuable. In his preface he quotes, from a letter of Mr. Lewis Fraser, of the *Century's* art management, that gentleman's opinion that it is "a good, practical book, likely to be of much use to the young illustrator, and save the art editor many a pang and many a sorrow." No one should know better than Mr. Fraser what is wanted, and his endorsement is better than anything we could say. There are eleven lectures in the volume, dealing with the question, "What is illustration?" with "the equipment of the illustrator," "methods of drawing for reproduction in line" and "the reproduction of line drawings," "the making of wash drawings and their reproduction by mechanical process," "the reproduction of drawings by wood engraving," "lithography" and "etching," "the printing of etchings," "photogravure and photo-lithography," and "making ready for the printing-press." Under each of these heads a good deal of technical information will be found, while the author's opinions are little obtruded.

'The Science of Drawing in Art' is a discourse on the proper method of teaching drawing to beginners, and the theoretic part, which deals with the laws of optics and of perspective and their application to primary instruction in drawing, contains much that is sound and that might prove useful. Unfortunately, the merits of a particular mechanical aid to the study of form in its perspective representation are early insisted upon, and the praise of this invention and detailed instruction in its use soon become the dominant note of the book. The machine is an ingenious one, and its occasional use by an intelligent teacher might be beneficial, though we are inclined to doubt the efficacy of such appliances, but insistence upon it again and again savors of the disguised advertisement.

The Works of Joseph Butler. Edited by the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

THIS fruit of Mr. Gladstone's old age has been many years ripening. In a letter to Mr. James Knowles, dated November 9, 1873, and printed in the *Spectator* of December 13, 1873, he said: "Bishop Butler taught me, forty-five years ago, to suspend my judgment on things I knew I did not understand. Even with his aid I may often have been wrong; without him I think I never should have been right. And oh! that this age knew the treasure it possesses in him, and neglects." A devotion of sixty-eight years may well culminate in an edition so complete and sumptuous as the present. All that printer's art and editor's pains can do to set forth and make attractive the work of a shrinking and lonely student, has now been done.

In addition to reproducing Butler's purest text, and providing full indexes and occasional notes, Mr. Gladstone has elaborately "got up" the 'Analogy' and the 'Sermons' after the style of a skilled coach's preparation of Aristotle. Bagehot remarks that, "without detracting for a moment from Butler's real merit, it may be allowed that some of his influence, especially that which he enjoys in the English universities, is partially due to that obscurity of style which renders his writings such apt exercises for the critical intellect, which makes the truth when found seem more valuable from the difficulty of finding it, and gives scope for an able lecturer to elucidate, annotate, and expound." One might almost think the subheadings with which Mr. Gladstone breaks up these pages to be largely undergraduate annotations, made with the fear of the examiners before the eyes, so anxious are they to show you just how the argument is getting on, to put you on your guard against supposing that something is being proved which is not, to resume and anticipate the course of the reasoning. In their form and flavor, moreover, there is something unmistakably donnish, as may be inferred from these specimen titles of sections: "Sum of results on behalf of well-doing as such διχῶς"; "God takes the side of the vir bonus"; "To presume extinction at death is πολλαχῶς irrational." It would seem that minds in need of such sign-posts would need a more legible lettering, while those quick to take in the polyglot directions could find the road without any directions. At any rate, and however it may be with the 'Analogy' as still perhaps a text-book to be "got up," the same process carried over into the second volume certainly adds a new terror to sermons. In place of this departure from Butler's own edition, we think a more useful one would have been the modernizing of his punctuation, which often puzzles like an obscurity of thought. The following sentence, for example, taken from the "advertisement" to the 'Analogy,' will show how much present day controversialists have gained in punctuation if not in modesty: "On the contrary, thus much, at least, will be here found, not taken for granted, but proved, that any reasonable man, who will thoroughly consider the matter, may be as much assured, as he is of his own being, that it is not, however, so clear a case, that there is nothing in it."

What may be called Mr. Gladstone's prolegomena to Butler he has reserved, he intimates, for a third volume, of Essays, shortly to be published. The scattered notes which he has here provided aim at little except illumination of the text by Scriptural and patristic citations and by references to Aristotle. Occasionally we are given a genuine bit of scholastic refining, as in the explanation of Butler's undeniable confusion of "suffering" and "punishment." But all this seems going unnecessarily far to get light on Butler. He had his eye fixed on the arrogant deistic arguments of the early eighteenth century. The whole 'Analogy,' in fact, is a huge argument *ex concessis*. Granting all you say, he retorted upon the deists, about "an intelligent Author of nature and natural Governor of the world," I will force you to admit that revealed religion is no more unreasonable than natural religion. No doubt he did it. His argument was at the time immensely successful. He

closed the mouths that he meant to close. With the ultimate questions that underlie both his position and that of the deists, he did not concern himself. Probably he was not vividly conscious that there were such questions. It has been said that, beside Hobbes or Hume or Jonathan Edwards, he was but a child in metaphysics. His great, his absorbing aim was to answer objections against Christianity. It is almost pathetic to find him, in his sermon "Upon the Ignorance of Man," dwelling on the consolation that, anyhow, "our ignorance is the proper *answer* to many things which are called objections against religion." He was the great answerer of contemporary objections; and a mind saturated, like Leslie Stephen's, in the literature of contemporary objection, has better illustrative and explanatory resources to draw upon than Mr. Gladstone's general theological stores.

The fact that, as Mr. Stephen has recently observed, the 'Analogy' has made no impression on European thought, however esteemed in England, however venerated at Oxford, is no doubt due in part to its immediate and practical purpose. It aimed simply to show that, judged by the standards which the deists called rational, Christianity was not irrational. But Lessing points to the deeper inquiries which necessarily lie behind Butler's, when he asks, Does, then, the reasonableness of Christianity lie wholly in its being not unreasonable? ("Also besteht die ganze Vernunftmässigkeit der christlichen Religion darin, dass sie nicht unvernunftig ist?") To this the 'Analogy' has little to say. Moreover, the extension of its argument beyond its first intention has proved dangerous. Pitt is not the only man to think it conjures more scepticism than it lays. If revealed religion is so completely analogous to natural, what becomes of the evidence that it has been revealed at all? The battle-ground has greatly shifted since Butler's day, and the analogy of Christianity to nature-religions is now perhaps the most powerful argument to reduce all alike to one level. Butler used analogy as a lever to bring Christianity up to the rational level of deism; the modern study of comparative religion finds analogy pulling it down and divesting it of its supernatural attributes.

But, whatever the fate of Butler's arguments, the attractiveness of his cautious, frank, and serious mind must long remain. Never was controversialist fairer. He sets up no men of straw. The objections as he states them often seem more deadly than as they were originally presented. He will glide over no difficulty. "It is his unique distinction among theologians that, while writhing in the jaws of a dilemma, he refrains from positively denying that any dilemma exists." His open-mindedness, his modesty, his moral earnestness, his enthronement of conscience in theory and in life, give him a personality of his own. Characteristic phrases show the manner of man he was. "Everything is what it is, and not another thing." A writer is "not to form or accommodate, but to state things as he finds them." "Things and actions are what they are, and the consequences of them will be what they will be; why, then, should we desire to be deceived?" "For, after all, that which is true must be admitted, though it should show us the shortness of our faculties." One wonders what would have been the fate of such an honest theologian turned loose in the modern world with all its facts undreamed of in his philosophy. We suspect it would have been something other than to have left an unpleasant suspicion that he died a Papist.

In New England Fields and Woods. By Rowland E. Robinson. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

It is hard to say whether these charming sketches appeal more to the dweller in the town or in the country. As Richter said of Music, they speak, to those whose lives are pent up within walls of masonry, of things that they have not seen and shall not see; for Nature is shy with casual acquaintances and reveals herself only to her constant companions. Yet few of those who spend their lives in the country have seen the sights that this author has seen, or heard what he has heard. We need not read far to be convinced that he may justly claim to have been born in Arcadia. He has drawn the chipmunk to him with his music, and enticed him to frolic with a herd's-grass head gently moved before him. He has seen the toads, thought voiceless by common mortals, making melody under the influence of springtime and love. The ways of many beasts and birds are known to him, and he has only gentle words for even the most despised among them. He has not scorned the friendship of the humble bull-frog, and tells us how he has tickled him first with a rush and then with finger tips while "his flabby sides swelled with fulness of enjoyment, his blinking eyes grew dreamy, and the corners of his blandly expressionless mouth almost curved upwards with an elusive smile." He is a sportsman, and it is easy to see that his rod and gun have been as much a part of him as his clothes or his books, and yet he earnestly entreats his fellow-sportsmen to restrain the impulse to kill with larger and kindlier thought.

Nevertheless, Mr. Robinson knows the strange power of the sportsman's instinct, and has felt the quickening of the blood when game is at hand, as well appears when he discourses of anglers. There are contemplative anglers, as out of reverence to the master of the craft he admits;

"but how is it with him who comes stealing along with such light tread that it scarcely crushes the violets or shakes the dew-drops from the ferns, and casts his flies with such precise skill upon the very hand's-breadth of water that gives most promise to his experienced eye? . . . Eye and ear and every organ of sense are intent upon the sport for which he came. He sees only the images of the clouds, no branch but that which impedes him or offers cover to his stealthy approach. His ear is more alert for the splash of fishes than for bird songs. With his senses go all his thoughts, and float not away in day-dreams. Howsoever much he loves her, for the time while he hath rod in hand Mother Nature is a fishwoman, and he prays that she may deal generously with him. Though he be a parson, his thoughts tend not to religion; though a savant, not to science; though a statesman, not to politics; though an artist, to no art save the art of angling. So far removed from all these while he casts his fly or guides his minnow, how much further is his soul from all but the matter in hand when a fish has taken the one or the other, and all his skill is taxed to the utmost to bring his victim to creel. Heresy and paganism may prevail, the light of science be quenched, the country go to the dogs, pictures go unpainted and statues unmoulded, till he has saved this fish."

The essays on the characteristics of the months and seasons of the year are marked with exquisite appreciation, and impart to the reader in a wonderful degree that strange sense of the onward movement of life, animate and inanimate, which is properly felt only by those who pass their days out of doors. We should be glad to quote from them, but must content ourselves with noting the true Virgilian feeling which is displayed in the choice of epithets. If they are sometimes cloying, it is not from inaptness, but from abundance. But to many readers the brief biographies of the humbler sort of animals, those despised by the sportsman and frowned on by the farmer, will be not the least pleasing parts of the book. Altogether we feel no hesitation in advising both those who love Nature and those who would learn how to love her, to possess themselves of this guide. Every one who reads these pages, and those who have read the essays in *Forest and Stream*, where most of them have appeared, will suffer a thrill of pain at learning that a curtain of darkness now prevents the author from beholding the scenes that he so tenderly appreciated, and the humble "acquaintances with whom he was once on familiar terms, but who now and hereafter can only be memories." Yet if the power of vision is gone from him, let him take comfort in the thought that he has passed it on, and that many will see who but for his eyes would have been blind.

Appenzell: Pure Democracy and Pastoral Life in Inner-Rhoden. A Swiss Study. By Irving B. Richman, Consul-General of the United States to Switzerland. With maps. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895.

Swiss constitutional history deserves all the attention which is paid it, and the conservative democracy of the pastoral cantons ought not to be left out of sight for the sake of experiments like the Initiative and the Referendum. "Totus mundus se stultizat novas constitutiones demandans," said Francis II. of Austria in the early part of the century, and the tendency has not yet been checked. Meantime the cantons have changed their constitutions, too, but without losing that hold on the past which is the surest guarantee of sound political growth. We have heard that, in the canton of Uri, people who deny the authenticity of the Tell story are put in the stocks. This, perhaps, is a little too conservative, but, at present, mankind is in no danger of disturbing the equipoise by such reactionary freaks. Uri, it must be remembered, is traversed by an international railway, the St.-Gotthard. What must we expect from Appenzell Inner-Rhoden, which has been for an equal length of time a paradise of the Capuchins, and is approached only by a *Zweigbahn* of unusual slowness? With Uri and Unterwalden Obwald it forms a group of communities where conservative democracy can be better studied than anywhere else in the world.

Mr. Richman's study of pure democracy and pastoral life in Inner-Rhoden seeks its justification in a saying of Prof. Dändliker: "The history of this land forms a peculiar link in the great chain of popular risings in the Middle Ages. It shows more essentially than does even the history of the Forest Cantons the contrast between the aristocracy and the people, between the rulers and the ruled." Taking this as his point of departure, Mr. Richman proceeds to give us a book which is a decided success. Life in the days of Hilpa and Shalum might have enabled one to read Zellweger's 'Geschichte des Appenzellischen Volkes' and the other voluminous cantonal histories of Switzerland. As it is, the thing cannot be done, and were it not for Mr. Richman we should probably know nothing at all about Appenzell save what is to be gathered from Scheffel's story of 'Ekkehard' and picturesque descriptions of Landsgemeinden. We do not mean to imply that Mr. Reichman is a mere compiler. He knows Appenzell personally, his comparisons and contrasts are

suggestive, and he observes a just sense of proportion in handling his subject.

The book is divided into three parts: (1.) Scenery and Climate. (2.) History. (3.) Contemporary Life. Mr. Richman gives more space to political growth and institutions than to the domestic and agricultural branches of his subject; but his interests are not exclusively political, and the alternative title, "A Swiss Study," does not claim too much. He makes the Appenzellers stand out as they are, from the poor burgess, who has a share in the Ried, up to Herr Landamann Sonderegger. His description of the Suter case is the most graphic piece of writing in the book, and his discussion of the Mark system the most valuable. Slips are few and unimportant. A few, however, may be mentioned. The Ill of the Arlberg does not flow into the Rhine at right angles. One should not state authoritatively that the Rhetians are a branch of the Tuscan race. Sämbtiser *sea* is doubtless a slip of the pen. Mr. Richman, who is a great stickler for German forms, should not write Otho the Great. He calls Rudolf of Habsburg King of Germany, rather than Holy Roman Emperor, whereas he uses the imperial title in the case of most of the German sovereigns. Mr. Richman is mistaken if he supposes that Freeman described only the Landsgemeinde of Uri. He, as well as Bayard Taylor and Mr. Boyd Winchester, has written of the one in the Ausser-Rhoden at Trogen.

It will be seen at a glance that these errors are microscopic, and there are no more serious ones. The three historical maps are very useful. Why do not all books of this sort have such maps? We should also have welcomed a photograph of the distinctive head-dress worn by the Appenzell women. It and the Capuchins at the Landsgemeinde are the two things which take the traveller in Appenzell most directly back to the days before the French Revolution. Even the Swiss of the French cantons get along "sans faire un cas majeur d'une logomachie." The French type of democracy has not influenced the Inner-Rhoden, and the above-mentioned emblem reminds us of the fact.

We cannot refrain from making this admirable monograph of Mr. Richman an excuse for adding a note about a discovery of our own in Appenzell Inner-Rhoden. The Weissbad, one of the original whey-cure resorts on the Sitter, sends out an announcement of its attractions which is as funny as "English as She is Spoke." It is a pamphlet of sixteen pages, written in the most serious vein, and doubtless translated into all the tourist languages. We subjoin three extracts:

"The friend of the history of the life of nations will be astonished to find here a people of mountaineers that though so near the great arteries of trade lives as retiredly and simply, as originally and naturally as the inhabitant of the town knows only from historic tradition of our ancestors."

"The Weissbad offers also the best occasion to the cure-like usage of the cow's milk, of the goat's milk, and in our times also of the buttermilk so effective in many cases. An authority writes: Many guests in the Weissbad who cannot or only with aversion drink neither cow's nor goat's milk in pure state in the flat land and in the most low grounds, sip here with pleasure, and the best success the substantial, aromatically smelling milk of the Alps that owes its origin not to the watery grass of the plain or even to the feeding in the stable with every sort of cheap products of agriculture without value, but only to the dry aromatic herbs of the Alps and to flowers and every kind of buds and to the tender resinous sprouts of pines which the free-going animals seek out of the less vigorous vegetation in a free choice, in a slow, natural feeding, with a rapid changing of the substances, in a continual motion."

"It is a quite peculiarly charming place, a most pleasing spot of the earth where the Weissbad is situated. It is a whey-place of the true stamp. Already with the coming in vogue of the whey-cures, it has known to procure a very good reputation and to keep it without interruption, and it has well deserved it. Among the guests there is an unconstrained agreeable commerce far from that stork-like stiffness which poisons the air in many such establishments. The proprietors neglect no occasion to render the sojourn in their establishment agreeable to their guests and care earnestly for the wants of every one. Every day brings new amusements, and he whose end of the cure has irrevocably come on, parts only with difficulty from the society in the Weissbad that has become a large family to him."

We confidently claim that this Appenzell English does not suffer by comparison with the extracts published by the Harvard Committee.

An Advanced History of England, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day. By Cyril Ransome, M.A., Professor of Modern History and English Literature in the Yorkshire College, Victoria University. With maps and plans. Macmillan. 1895. Pp. xx, 1069.

When Alice in Wonderland found herself the centre of a dripping and draggled menagerie, eager to get dry by any means, the Mouse commanded attention while it recited "the driest thing I know," which proved to be a Child's History of the Norman Conquest. It would seem that in the earlier parts of English history Mr. Ransome had emulated this harangue, for he has reduced them to a very moderate compass by the process of leaving out every anecdote, authentic or not, which gives life to bygone ages. In whichever of the two ways offered by him we take his book —an "advanced" treatise for those who have already studied his 'Elements' and 'Outlines,' or a convenient compend for general readers— he is so determined to admit none but the latest lights that he is often very dim. A more jejune and unsympathetic account of Alfred could hardly be.

As he draws near later times, his narrative is better; and particularly of his battles there are clear descriptions and useful plans. He aims particularly at portraying "character," and asks special attention thereto. Yet, besides Alfred, several persons of the first eminence, as Edward I. and Hampden, find but dull portrayal, and other of his judgments are, to say the least, paradoxical. When Edwy is dragged back to the brutalities of the wedding banquet by Dunstan, he is only a petulant boy, and the arch-monk is a wise statesman; but when William Rufus is under discussion, we are told to distrust the traditional blackness of his nature because the monks were his chroniclers. To say King John's character is "not easy to draw"; that Cromwell was an opportunist, who never saw far ahead in peace or war; that Catherine of Braganza was fitted to make Charles an excellent wife, and her husband a man of consummate ability, sounds strange enough. Perhaps Mr. Ransome is at his best in his handling of the Civil War, though it is painfully evident that he owes his inspiration to Prof. Gardiner; while in the reign of William III. it is amusing to see how he absorbs and reproduces Macaulay while trying, by a few sporadic touches, to persuade us, and perhaps himself, that he is original. With Montrose's campaigns in 1644 he inserts a map of Scotland "after 1603" which ought to have been given for 1745, and is hardly useful for an earlier period. As far as the interest and judgment of the book go, there are many places deserving of praise, such as the treatment of the politics of the times of North and Burke; or of censure, as the reactionary handling of Clarendon's church legislation. But, as with Mr. Oman's history a short time ago, no one without abundant space at his command has room to discuss Mr. Ransome's literary and philosophical merits and demerits, preoccupied and teased as he must be by the mistakes, so unpardonable in a manual of history, which if not rigidly accurate is worthless.

To begin with errors in proper names, some arising from looseness, some from misprints, and some from absolute misunderstanding: "The Pilgrims of 1620 named their settlement 'New Plymouth'" (p. 498). The location of the first settlement had been called Plymouth long before, and New Plymouth, like New Hampshire or New Jersey, was the name of the colony. "Dublin Cathedral" (p. 524)—which one? Christ Church or St Patrick's? Winthrop's emigration is hopelessly confounded with Endicott's; and the Massachusetts capital is called "New Salem" (p. 530), which preposterous name is repeated (p. 822) in discussing the Boston Port Bill. The Governor of Massachusetts in 1636 was not *Sir* Harry Vane (p. 531), which is a blunder sadly common among ourselves. Arundel should be Arundell (p. 626), and Salton Saltoun (p. 647). Lady Russell was not of the Winchester family (p. 630). Halifax was not a Marquess at the times indicated (634, 638); Bentinck, impeached in 1701, was never *Duke* of Portland, nor Montague *Earl* of Halifax (p. 699). Shippen is spelt Skippen (p. 765); Washington's camp was not at Great Meadow (p. 790), and the adjacent river was not named Mononhangela! Burgoyne of Saratoga was not *Sir* John (pp. 825, 827). It was not "Green" who hemmed in Cornwallis at Yorktown (p. 831). Cartwright is spelt Cartright (p. 851). Mackintosh was not *Sir* James when he defended Peltier (p. 881), Fulton's steamer was not the *Claremont* (p. 938), and Sharman Crawford is misspelt Harman (p. 1009). For false dates, we have the Dutch peace of 1609 put into 1608. The title of King of France was given up on the union with Ireland January 1, 1801, not, as here stated, at the peace of Amiens (p. 876). William IV. dismissed Melbourne in November, 1834, not 1835 (p. 950), and Gladstone tried to repeal the paper duty in 1860, not 1861 (p. 1009).

To say (p. 646) that Baxter was a much worthier man than Dangerfield, is like saying John Jay was a much worthier man than John the Painter. Mary of Modena had given birth to living children before James Edward (p. 656); Anne's son was never *created* Duke of Gloucester (p. 698). The present reigning house of Italy does not represent Henrietta of Orleans (p. 699). The Act of Settlement forbids any foreigner, even if naturalized, to sit in Parliament—a serious omission in this book. The silly old story of Franklin's coat is repeated (p. 822). Washington was forty-three, not forty-two, in 1775 (p. 825). Lord Ashburton did not retire with Fox (p. 836). The Rohilla charge against Hastings was not adopted (p. 845). It is true Lord Ellenborough's appointment to the Cabinet "was not drawn into a precedent"; but it followed the precedent of Mansfield nearly fifty years before (p. 889). Like Mr. Oman, Mr. Ransome lumps the Berlin decree with the Milan decree, as the Milan decrees (890). Like all English historians, he names only the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake* in the War of 1812; he says Lincoln was elected as an Abolitionist (p. 999), and that Con-

gress passed an act emancipating the slaves (p. 1000).

It is an ungracious task to point out such errors; they do not exhaust the list. They all occur in the last half of the volume, and they have been identified in a rapid reading and without consulting any rare books. The sensation of weariness produced by their frequent and needless occurrence quite unnerves one for grappling with the more serious questions in which one would gladly encounter Mr. Ransome if he did not make one pay too high an entrance fee.

Lakes of North America. By Israel C. Russell. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1895.

A SUBJECT of school study which is represented chiefly by text-books is manifestly in a position far inferior to that occupied by one about which a rich and varied literature has grown up. It is in great part from this difference of position that geography suffers in comparison with history or the classics. Those who are interested in the elevation of this great common-school subject, now the target of so much well-deserved criticism, cannot do better than build up for it a foundation of good books for general reading, addressed to an audience fairly represented by the intelligent high school teacher. As a standard of what such books ought to be, Geikie's 'Scenery of Scotland' may be named, and Kirchhoff's 'Länderkunde des Erdtheils Europa,' prepared by various collaborators, is a good example of Continental work. In this country, we have not as yet produced many books of the desired kind. Shaler's writings have hitherto reached further towards the goal than those of any other author; the National Geographic Monographs recently established by the National Geographic Society of Washington bid fair to become in time important resources for studious geographical reading, if they can be maintained. The many valuable essays in scientific periodical literature need not be here considered, for they come to the attention of a very small number of the readers who need the information they present.

Russell's 'Lakes of North America' is at present the best example in this country of the kind of books that geography needs. In the first place, it is not a compilation, but in great part the result of original study. The author is admirably qualified for his task, having had wide experience in exploration and observation all over our country; his Alaskan journeys being probably better known than his studies in the far West, by reason of their having served as the basis for some popular magazine articles. It has happened that some of the subjects particularly assigned to him while a member of our National Geological Survey included various types of lakes, namely, those lying among the displaced lava blocks of Oregon, in the glaciated cañons of the Sierra Nevada, and in the desert troughs between the mountain ranges of the Great Basin of Utah and Nevada. It is good fortune for geographical readers to have one so well equipped by his own researches turn to their presentation in popular form.

An outline of this book may be briefly made. It opens with the origin of the basins in which lake waters may collect; a moderate position is here taken on the most vexed process, that of glacial erosion. The movements of lake water and the geological functions of lakes are next discussed, thus leading to an interesting chapter on the topography of lake shores, in which, here as everywhere else, the treatment must follow that of the classic essay by Gilbert, to whom Russell dedicates his book. The relation of lakes to climatic conditions follows. This is particularly important in our national geography, for in the East we have innumerable lakes that result from former glaciation, while in the West many lakes of the past have been lost through the aridity of the existing climate. In fuller illustration of the origin and functions of lakes, special histories are given of certain important examples; those associated with the retreating ice-sheet in the Laurentian basin, and those connected with the humid and arid climates of the West, receiving most attention. All this supplies precisely that background of knowledge which the explorer, traveller, or teacher should possess, and which at present he so generally lacks. The illustrations, mostly taken from various publications of the Geological Survey, serve excellently to point the moral of the text.

Korean Games. By Stewart Culin. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

UNLESS we mistake, this book marks an epoch in the study of the games of the world. It is a serious attempt to lift the whole subject out of the uncertain region of folk-lore and to set it within the domain of science. If we be permitted to coin a word to connote the fact, kairology would be the one. Kairos was the Greek god of the nick of time; and, being not a personality, but the graphic representation of an idea, is enough of an abstraction for our purpose. The bas-reliefs represent him as riding on winged wheels (or, in other words, as an ancient bicycler) and holding usually a pair of balances. The diction of Mr. Culin, though admirably clear, shows a great many circumlocutions and instances of tautology that might have been avoided by adoption of the term kairology or some similar coinage.

The handsomely printed and lavishly illustrated volume is not, as might be supposed, a teacher of Far Oriental pastimes, albeit caterers to our home pleasures may find here material with which to enrich our stock of children's amusements. On the contrary, here is a profound study of the significance of Korean games. Although Mr. Culin has never in the flesh visited the Far East, he knows more about the Chinese world of ideas than most aliens dwelling in "the Chinas." His previous monographs on the methods of diversion and for obtaining luck, as he has seen them played by the men of the cue among us, show unusual insight and ability while working in the galleries of this mine. He has in this instance wisely selected the little country of Korea for illustration and proof of his main thesis. In the Peninsular Kingdom processes of thought that have become obsolete, even in China, still survive. The mythic concepts underlying Korean culture are wonderfully vivid and easily discoverable.

So far from attributing the origin of games to the inborn tendency of the human animal, akin to that of the kitten or puppy, to amuse itself, Mr. Culin, correctly, we think, regards games, not as conscious inventions for purposes of pleasure, but as survivals from primitive conditions under which they originated in magical rites and chiefly as a means of divination. There is a striking sameness in the widely distributed games of all nations, inasmuch as they are based upon certain conceptions of the universe once common to all peoples. Among civilized men the religious origin of games is as popularly forgotten as is in Christendom the evolution of the theatre from the church. In Korea (as in old Japan, which borrowed so freely from her) the analysis of the universe, the enrolment of the people, division of the city into wards and of the country into provinces, classification of the seasons of the year, of elements, of colors, and of musical notes of the scale, are all made on the basis of four and one, that is, of the four cardinal points and the middle. The fairy and folk-lore as well as the serious literature of Korea (and of old Japan likewise) is saturated with notions based on this concept. Such science as the peoples in the Chinese world had was made by the assigning all facts and ideas in accordance with this "law of heaven and earth." In the application, however, of the formulæ and categories to things and thoughts, difficulties were encountered in making the right assignment. An unclassified fact, or the notion that was supposed to represent one, was just as abhorrent to the Chinese-minded man as an uncorrelated specimen is to a modern man of science. How to secure revelation, in particular instances, of the place of the fact or idea in the scheme of the universe, was the problem of the learned. The solution was usually arrived at by a resort to magic. The processes made use of were at first religious. Gradually, however, as other methods prevailed, divination became only an accessory to religion. As the mental climate changed, the primitive essays left the hands of adults for those of children. Nevertheless, in both Korea and Japan to-day, worship and amusement are still closely joined, both as to time and place (even as summer sanctification and sea-bathing join hand in hand on the New Jersey coast). So, also, the element of joyousness was never wholly absent from the actual divination, and was especially prominent when the answer was favorable and the category reached.

Further, in the games of children, which, in every land, mirror the more serious business of their elders, the questions sought to be answered seem as relatively important as in the religious divination. Hence, to this day in the games of Korea, as we know by reading, and those of Japan, which we have repeatedly seen, we can re-read ancient history and religion. The games, while retaining much of their original character, often survive in two forms—that of the rite, with the element of luck; and that of the play, for the sake of pure fun.

In Korea, as in ancient Arabia, the arrow is the basis of the two principal systems of divination—one of the single and the other of the multiple rod and flat implement. Mr. Culin's detailed explanations remind us, and make very clear the reasons, why so many natives have arrow scars on body, face, and eyes, which even foreign surgical science, much to their grief and injured pride, cannot remove. The pack of cards and bundle of rods (for divination or gambling) are but expansions of the unit and mystic number. After the luminous and learned Introduction, the text proper describes more or less fully ninety-seven Korean games, with their variants and with illustrative explanations from Japan and China. This part is full of tempting bits of information about what every close observer of child-life in the Far East has seen. It recalls pleasant memories of the sunny life of the children who live so much in the open air of summer, and who find such plentiful diversion when winter compels in-door and sedentary occupations. As often as possible, Mr. Culin attaches to his descriptions whatever historic data, plausible theory, or literary reference may be gleaned from other

authors. One of the most interesting chapters is that on Korean chess, about which Mr. W. H. Wilkinson has written in the *Korean Repository*. Dominoes and playing-cards are treated at length both descriptively and with explanations as to origins by reference to the four points of the compass. The indexical matter is abundant. Besides numerous diagrams are twenty-two Korean plates, many of them in colors.

If the study of games can reach the dignity of science, this work deserves the praise of being one of the first contributions to kairology made in this country. Despite the lack of the promised contribution which was to have been furnished by Mr. Frank Cushing, this work is complete in itself. Mr. Cushing expects to expand his running comparison of the games of the two continents (America and Asia) into a volume more or less like the present, on American games in general.

Krishna Kanta's Will. By Bankim Chandra Chatterjee. Translated by Miriam S. Knight. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1895. Pp. 264.

THE wealth of modern Bengali literature, the curious product of the imposition of modern and European ideas upon an ancient and Asiatic people, is hardly realized at the present time. It is much the fashion, even in administrative circles in India, for Anglo-Indians to sneer at the inhabitants of Lower Bengal who lead busy and laborious lives round about the fertile delta of the Ganges River. Mr. Kipling, for instance, whose point of view of things Indian has been influenced by his residence in the Punjab, and who feels the contempt of the Punjabis for the unwarlike Bengalis, delights in representing Bengali characters in his stories and in his poems as behaving in the most undignified manner. It is true that the Bengalis have no love for war, and that they form a race of peaceful cultivators and merchants; their fear of pain is instinctive and exaggerated, though they do not fear death; and they constantly have recourse to the weapon of the weak, dissimulation, and have thus gained the unenviable reputation of being a race of liars. But though their physical frames are weak and their dispositions unwarlike, the Bengalis are intellectually by far the quickest, the most versatile, and the most assimilative of Western culture of all the peoples of India. The spread of Western ideas through familiarity with English books has not extinguished Bengali literature, as had been expected by some of the statesmen who opposed Macaulay's scheme of Anglicizing Indian education; on the contrary, there has been of recent years a vast revival of Bengali vernacular literature, both in prose and in verse. The language has been purified and developed, and has been made a fitting instrument for the expression of more complicated thoughts and emotions than it was before. Modern Bengali literature is especially rich in works of the imagination. Poetry, the drama and fiction make up a large proportion of the 1,300 books annually published in the province of Lower Bengal. Of the poems and plays it is difficult to judge because of the absence of translations into English, but several Bengali novels have now been made accessible in translation, and it is possible to form some idea of Bengali fiction.

Bankim Chandra Chatterjee has been acknowledged by all his contemporaries as the most distinguished of the modern Bengali novelists. He was a typical Bengali Babu, was educated at the Hugli College, graduated at Calcutta University, and entered the Government service. He rose to the rank of a Deputy Magistrate and Collector, received the title of Rai Bahadur, and was made a C. I. E. His Government duties left him leisure to pursue a busy literary life, and he had published a large number of volumes when his lamented death occurred at the age of fifty seven in May, 1894. 'Krishna Kanta's Will' is the fourth of Chatterjee's novels that have been translated into English, and it is an excellent type of the author's strength and weakness. To Western minds, the plot may seem somewhat weak, not from lack of striking incident, for there are a murder, the forgery and theft of a will, and other complications, but because of the descriptive matter which checks the progress of the story as a story. The characters defined are few and simple, and the scene is laid entirely in a small Bengal village. The human passion of which the novel treats is the usual theme of Western novelists, love. The hero, a handsome young Bengali, and the nephew of a rich Zamindar, who has been happily married in childhood to an adoring child-wife, falls violently in love with that most unhappy outcome of Hindu civilization, a girl widow. With considerable skill, the author represents the deplorable position of the Hindu widow, Rohini, and the moral effect of her enforced degradation upon her. At the bidding of the child-wife of Gobind Lal, she tries to drown herself, but she is rescued by Gobind himself, and eventually, after Gobind has made a strenuous effort to throw off his infatuation and has been disinherited by old Krishna Kanta for his supposed infidelity to his wife, he leaves the new-made heiress and goes to live with Rohini. The child wife's father resolves on revenge, Gobind Lal is aroused to a fury of jealousy, and murders Rohini, and the child-wife herself pines away.

This is a tragic tale indeed, but one that brings home the curses of Bengali, and indeed of Hindu, civilization—child marriage and the cruel lot of widows. Incidentally, there are in this novel some charming descriptions of Bengal scenery and some curious illustrations of the wide difference between the European and the Asiatic fashion of looking at things. The following vehement attack on female servants is sufficiently curious, perhaps, to deserve quotation: "Brahmananda Ghosh was a poor man. He could not afford to keep many servants. Whether that is an advantage or a disadvantage, I cannot say; whichever it is, he who keeps no women servants is free from four things—cheating, false reports, wrangling, and dirt. The gods have embodied these four things in the maidservant" (p. 44).

A Collection of Historical and Other Papers. By Rev. Grindall Reynolds, D.D. To which are added seven of his Sermons. Published by the Editor at Concord, Massachusetts. 1895.

FOR personal friends of Dr. Reynolds and his coreligionists this volume will have added interest and value on account of the too brief sketch of his own life and the longer one of his father; but for others its appeal is almost entirely in virtue of the group of historical and local studies which take up about three-quarters of the book. Dying at the age of seventy-two, Dr. Reynolds's life and his father's covered one hundred and thirty-nine years, and perhaps it was his personal interest in so long a period—for his father's life was as interesting to him as his own—that gave his mind a bent in the direction of historical and antiquarian studies. It is certain that he had such a bent, and the judgment of Senator Hoar, who writes an introduction to the volume, is that if he had given himself wholly to such studies, he would have distinguished himself in them to a remarkable degree. He would have brought to them, as the papers in this volume show, a searching curiosity, a judicial fairness, a comprehensive view of his subject, and a very lucid and agreeable style of writing.

Four of the chapters deal with subjects of general interest, and of these the two on the northern campaigns of the Revolution are the more valuable because of their instruction for the present time, showing, as they do, how these campaigns found Canada extremely friendly to the colonies, and left her alienated from them and in closer sympathy with England than before the war began. If Anglophobia could have its way, this chapter of history might repeat itself. Of seven Concord chapters, two on the old Concord church afford a good example of the evolution of a New England church. One on the Concord fight is a very careful account of that momentous business, and "Concord during Shays' Rebellion" is a valuable contribution to our understanding of one of the obscurer episodes of "the critical period of American history." Of the "Miscellaneous Papers," that upon "saints who have had bodies" is a vigorous statement of the physical advantages of intellectual activity to which the time since it was written has furnished many fresh and lively illustrations.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, T. K. Kant's Fundamental Principles of the Metaphysic of Ethics. Longmans, Green & Co.
A Souvenir of "Trilby." Harpers.
Bangs, J. K. The Bicyclers, and Three Other Farces. Harpers. $1.25.
Bates, Herbert. Coleridge's Rime of the Ancient Mariner. Longmans, Green & Co. 45c.
Bois-Reymond, Emil du. Tierische Bewegung, etc. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Brooks, Francis. Cicero's De Natura Deorum. London: Methuen & Co.
Colles, Mrs. Julia K. Authors and Writers Associated with Morristown. 2d ed. Morristown, N. J.: Vogt Bros.
Corson, Prof. Hiram. The Voice and Spiritual Education. Macmillan. 75c.
Dixon, F. H. State Railroad Control. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Dixon, Prof. W. M. A Tennyson Primer; with a Critical Essay. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Doane, W. H. Songs of the Kingdom. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Dods, Rev. Marcus. The Visions of a Prophet: Studies in Zechariah. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50c.
Ebers, Georg. In the Blue Pike: A Romance of German Civilization in the XVIth Century. Appletons. 75c.
Glazebrook, R. T. James Clerk Maxwell and Modern Physics. Macmillan. $1.25.
Greely, A. W. Handbook of Arctic Discoveries. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Gregory, Rev. J. Puritanism in the Old World and in the New. F. H. Revell Co. $2.
Gribble, Francis. The Things that Matter. Putnams. 50c.
Hale, E. E. Independence Day. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. 30c
Hall, Prof. Lyman. The Elements of Algebra. American Book Co. $1.
Hamblin, Jessie De F. A New Woman. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Hamlet. [Eclectic English Classics.] American Book Co. 25c.
Hardy, Thomas. The Hand of Ethelberta. Harpers. $1.50.
Harris, C. W. A Glance at Government. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hillern, Wilhelmine von. Höher als die Kirche. American Book Co. 25c.
Lilley, A. E. V., and Midgley, W. A Book of Studies in Plant Form. Scribners. $1.50.
Manson, J. A. Poetical Works of Robert Burns. 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Matthews, Prof. Brander. An Introduction to the Study of American Literature. American Book Co. $1.
Mazzinelli, Alexander. The Office of Holy Week. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. 50c.
Meagher, Rev. J. L. The Religions of the World. New York: Christian Press Association Publishing Co.
Meakin, Frederick. Nature and Deity. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
O'Grady, Standish. Ulrick the Ready: A Romance of Elizabethan Ireland. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Prévost, Marcel. Le Mariage de Juliette. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer frères. 60c.
Plummer, Mary W. Verses. Cleveland and New York: Lemperly, Hilliard & Hopkins.
Riddell, Mrs. J. H. A Rich Man's Daughter. International News Co. 50c.
Statham, H. H. Architecture for General Readers. 2d ed. Scribners. $2.
Syveton, Gabriel. Une Cour et un Aventurier au XVIIIe Siècle. Paris: Leroux.
Thacher, J. B. Charlecote; or, The Trial of William Shakespeare. Dodd, Mead & Co. $5.
Vincent, Rev. M. R. The Age of Hildebrand. Christian Literature Co. $1.50.
Whyte, Rev. Alexander. The Four Temperaments. Dodd, Mead & Co. 50c.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 26, 1896.

The Week.

POPULIST ALLEN took a pretty accurate measure of Warrior Sherman on Monday, when he said that the Ohio Senator, he guessed, thought the time had about come for him to make his usual retreat. Mr. Sherman in fact made it with much muttering and scowling, but he made it, and those terribly urgent belligerency resolutions which a month ago must pass instantly and without a word of debate, are all tied up again and as far from passing as ever. The net result up to date is a fresh shock to business, further discrediting of Congress, and special humiliation for the Foreign Relations Committee, and Mr. Sherman in particular, but not the slightest benefit to the struggling Cubans. The struggling Cubans, in fact, have cut no figure in the whole debate. The resolutions have been from the first solely for the benefit of struggling Congressmen. Their determination not to let one of their number get more glory out of it than another has been all along as obvious as it has been heroic, and Monday's bids for fame by Senators Mills and Platt let us into the secret of the whole scramble. Lord Rosebery in a speech the other day gave a definition of the function of the Cabinet, as made by Sir George C. Lewis in a letter to the Prince Consort. Sir George said: "I find the Cabinet to be an institution intended to prevent individual Ministers from immortalizing themselves at the expense of the country." Our Senate, our foreign-affairs committees, have been such institutions. But they are now designed rather to promote a free-for-all race for immortality precisely at the expense of the country. Each man tries to out-roar the other; and as for Cuba or our own country, why, they may go hang themselves along with common sense and law.

Senator Sherman cannot ope his mouth on the Cuban business but out there flies a blunder. The ignorance, for a chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, he had before displayed, was surpassed on Thursday last. He roundly asserted that the Cubans had but one representative in the Spanish Cortes. Thereupon Senator Hale offered to show him a list of the members of the last Cortes, in which figured the names of forty-five Deputies from Cuba and Porto Rico, together with those of fourteen Senators. Anyhow, affirmed the Ohio Senator, waiving that point, the Spaniards did not keep the promises they made at the close of the last insurrection, and here is a letter from Martinez Campos himself to prove it. But the letter itself, when read, spoke of "promises never fulfilled" as having given "rise to the insurrection of Yara." Evidently Senator Sherman had not the remotest idea what the insurrection of Yara was. It was the beginning of the former rebellion in 1868. Martinez Campos, therefore, was alluding to a condition of things before that date, and innocent Mr. Sherman made him refer to events subsequent to 1878. We are ashamed of the insurgent agents for not having coached Senator Sherman more carefully. His frequent and ostentatious blunders are hurting their cause. We cannot say that anything of the kind can hurt him, for Senator Hoar, at the very moment of exposing him, paid a tribute to him as "the most illustrious political figure on this continent."

Senator Gray's preference for the Senate Cuban resolutions over those of the House, is hard to understand. He has defended them as more "courteous" and "respectful" than those passed by the House. Now, the fact is that the Senate resolutions, in the only points in which they differ from those of the House, are more studiously offensive. They affirm that "the friendly offices of the United States should be offered by the President to the Spanish Government for the recognition of the independence of Cuba." Speaking to that very point in the House, Mr. Hitt said:

> "Every gentleman, on hearing that suggestion made or that proposition presented to him, must think in a moment what would be the response if a proposition were made to our Government, for example, by the British Minister, presenting resolutions adopted by the British Parliament asking and desiring us to consent at once to the independence of Texas, of Florida, or of Michigan. How long would he remain in Washington after presenting such a proposition as that—after the self-respect of our Government had been thus insulted? I think, gentlemen, you will agree with me that the proposition of our committee is one far more prudent and likely to be far more effective."

The House resolutions limited themselves to offering "friendly influence" to secure "a government by the choice of the people of Cuba." Resolution for resolution and insult for insult, we do not see much to choose between the two. Both are gratuitous and dangerous meddling with something with which Congress has nothing to do, and for passing upon which it has, as the debate has shown, neither the knowledge nor the fit temper.

It is impossible to say how much importance is to be attached to the meeting between the free-coinage Republican Senators and certain Pennsylvania manufacturers which took place at Washington on Friday, but obviously it must tend to confirm the free-coinage Senators in their determination to resist any tariff legislation that is not accompanied by legislation in the interest of silver-miners. It is safe to conclude, also, that the meeting would not have taken place at all without a definite purpose. Probably the purpose is to bring a pressure upon the coming St. Louis convention to adopt a free-silver platform, and, failing in that, to nominate a candidate for the Presidency who will attract the votes of the Populists, and the silver contingent of both the other parties. The name of J. Donald Cameron was suggested for such nomination. If the movement goes so far, it cannot be denied that Cameron is the man to head it. He is a silver-man of the most pronounced and fanatical type. He is also a politician of long experience, and he has sufficient reputation in the country at large to make a good run if any straight-out silver-man can. In short, if there is to be a Republican secession, Cameron is the most formidable leader that could be found. There is a disposition among the Republican leaders to make light of the meeting, but a movement which can count the electoral votes of several States as almost certain at the start, is not a negligible quantity.

At all events, a double-meaning platform will no longer suffice. It will be repudiated by the silver wing of the party and by the gold wing as well. The Ohio deliverance, penned by McKinley himself the other day, has met almost unanimous disapproval in the East. The Republican press in general has repudiated it, and declared that it will not answer the purpose in this campaign, however well it may have served in former ones. The truth is, that the Eastern Republicans are just as tired of humbug and uncertainty on the money question as the constituents of Senators Teller and Carter are. They are in no better mood for a compromise than the latter; and even if their leaders were, it would be unsafe to risk the vote of their States on an uncertain platform. New York in particular is in a shaky condition. There are so many local troubles here that any serious misstep regarding the financial question would take the State out of the Republican column if the Democrats offered anything better. Will they do so? Looking merely at the elections of 1894 and 1895, the Democratic party is already beaten. Still, it has "a fighting chance." If it takes an unequivocal position for sound money—if it declares, for example, that, in the absence of an international bimetallic agreement, it favors the maintenance of the gold standard by the United States—and if it nominates a candidate for the Presidency who is as sound as the platform, it may yet carry the election.

It is a serious misfortune to the Republican party that at the present time the

two great forces at work to capture its Presidential nomination are the bosses and the high-tariff interests. Quay and Platt are working to control the nomination in the interest of machine politics. They hope to set up in Washington the boss government which they are conducting in Pennsylvania and New York. The high-tariff interests are hoping in a somewhat similar way to put McKinley in the White House, and thus set up a high-tariff government for their personal benefit. As Senator Chandler says, they paid off McKinley's debts when he failed in business, and he is under great obligations for that. If now they can pay all the political expense of his nomination and election, they will put him under fresh obligations to such an extent that if he gets into the White House he will be more completely "their man" than any President we have ever had. That they are spending money freely for him, nobody who is familiar with political methods can doubt for a moment. His "boom" has all the marks of a boom with boodle behind it. It is making formidable progress, but not so formidable as appears, for there is a tremendous amount of "claiming" made in its behalf. If its chief opponents were not bosses of such odious character as Platt and Quay, there would be much less cause of anxiety about it. The real intelligence and character of the Republican party have not as yet taken a hand in the struggle, but it is high time they should if they are to exert much influence on the nomination.

The Boston *Transcript* thinks that "the chances of Mr. Reed's success as an aspirant for the Republican Presidential nomination will be greatly improved by Massachusetts Republicans speaking out in their approaching State convention boldly and unequivocally for sound money, as the term is understood by those who advocate the present gold standard," adding that "Massachusetts is the backbone of Reed's support in this section." We beg leave to ask if Reed's own backbone has not something to do with the question, and to suggest that, if it has, it is time that it be put in evidence. What is the use of a State convention "speaking out" in favor of any principle if the candidate in whose interest it "speaks" is himself silent? Does not the *Transcript* know that Mr. Reed is as dumb as an oyster when the silver question is mentioned to him, and that he does not hesitate to characterize as an impertinence any attempt to draw him out on the subject? Mr. McKinley deserves some credit for drafting the currency plank of his own State convention so that it can at least be characterized, if it can be characterized only as a wobble. But where does Mr. Reed stand? If he too is a wobbler, which way does he wobble most? It would be interesting to know this, but to know it from the Speaker himself, not by the mouth of the Massachusetts Republican convention.

In signing the Raines bill, Gov. Morton reviewed several objections to it of more or less weight, but he passed over the most serious one without any notice whatever. We have no doubt that, except among liquor-dealers, drinking men, and their allies, he will find pretty general acquiescence in his approval of the restrictions the bill places on the liquor traffic, even if it does gobble up so large a proportion of the revenue derived from the liquor tax in cities. But he makes the value of the bill to depend on its being "fairly worked out by competent and faithful officers," and does not say one word as to the mode in which "these competent and faithful officers" are to be provided. This, however, is the point on which the bill has excited the opposition of the friends of good government in this State, and it is this mode which is destined to work its failure, if fail it does, and in failing, to spoil the Governor's fair fame. We do not think we exaggerate or distort, when we say that the bill makes the best provision that can be made by legislation, for the infidelity and incompetency of the officers who are to execute it; for it provides that the places of all the sixty special agents shall be deemed "confidential," and, therefore, shall not be filled by competitive examination under the civil-service regulations. Governor Morton must not suppose that the public do not draw inferences as to what this means. It means, in their belief, that these appointments shall be made for political reasons, without regard to fitness, and, therefore, shall be made on the suggestion or by the designation of Thomas C. Platt, for the strengthening of his machine, which already has excited so much alarm and anxiety.

The new corrupt-practice law which has just been enacted in Ohio, makes the tenth thus far put on our statute-books. The other nine States having such laws are New York, Massachusetts, Colorado, California, Missouri, Michigan, Minnesota, Indiana, and Kansas. Of these, the most comprehensive and rigorous are the statutes of California, Missouri, and Minnesota. The others are half-way measures, of varying degrees of usefulness, whose chief effect is to compel a certain amount of publicity in campaign expenditures. The Ohio law is modelled substantially upon the Missouri and Minnesota law, placing limits to the expenditure which candidates may make, the maximum amounts depending upon the size of the electorate, as follows: One hundred dollars for 5,000 voters; $1.50 for every 100 voters above 5,000 and under 25,000, and $1 for every 100 voters above 25,000 and under 50,000. Any expenditure in excess of such amount is unlawful, and makes void the election of the violator of the law. All candidates and committees and agents are required to make sworn itemized returns after election of all money received and spent, under penalty of $1,000 fine. The law is an excellent one, but, like all similar laws, it will depend for its enforcement upon public sentiment. None of the laws of the kind at present nominally in force are executed with much rigor. The California law is practically a dead letter, and the Missouri law, while somewhat better observed, is still not pressed as it should be.

The call which was published on Friday, for a conference to promote the establishment of a permanent system of arbitration between this country and Great Britain, may fairly be considered the most wholesome movement of the present year or of any recent year in our history. We can think of nothing better calculated to restore confidence to the business community and sobriety to the field of politics than this projected meeting. The first name in the list of signers of the call is that of the Chief Justice of the United States, the second is that of the General of the Army, and the third is that of the ranking Admiral of the Navy. The other signers will be recognized as among the foremost citizens of the land. The list would have been much larger undoubtedly if there had been more time to circulate it, but it is large enough for the purpose of showing that the intelligent, thoughtful, and God-fearing people of the United States are most desirous of having practical steps taken now to put the relations of this country and Great Britain on a basis where they will not be exposed to war and war's alarms in sudden and unexpected ways. Arbitration may not be suited to every possible case of difference between nations, although it is most desirable that it should be. The great advantage of it is that it stands in all cases as a buffer between hot heads, and prevents a nation from plunging into war headlong. It interposes a period of discussion and reflection. There is good reason to believe that both countries are now in a mood to enter seriously upon the negotiation of such a treaty as is proposed in this call, and there is little doubt that the conference itself will be worthy of the exalted intentions of its promoters.

The social level of American Salvation, as it is to be fought for by Ballington Booth's new organization, continues to be lifted slightly nearly every day. The uniform which the leaders designed for the lassies has been changed in order that it may be more becoming to the wearers. It was to be brown in color, but it will be cadet blue, since brown is not only a trying color to the complexion of most lassies, but spots easily and fades quickly. The new bonnet is thoroughly approved by the lassies. It has less poke than the old British Salvation bonnet, being much

more natty, and giving the features of the wearer more publicity and the advantage of a more becoming surrounding. When its color and trimmings are made to conform to the cadet blue of the uniform, the happiness of the lassies will be complete. A change is proposed also in the name of the new army. Objections are made to bringing the name of the Deity into the title, and it will be amended probably from "God's American Volunteers" to simple "American Volunteers." When all arrangements are completed, the Volunteers will take the field against sin in a thoroughly genteel manner, offering quite a contrast to the noisy and rather vulgar British methods.

We do not think a better case for compulsory arbitration has ever occurred or is likely to occur than the trouble between Italy and Abyssinia. Abyssinia has undoubtedly "a doctrine" which excludes the Italians from making any settlement on that continent, and has been held firmly for over a century by the predecessors of King Menelek. Menelek does not seek to meddle in European affairs. He simply asks to be let alone, and that, if the Italians have a lawful colony on the coast, its boundaries shall not be enlarged. Every fact in the case will justify our asking the Italians to arbitrate or take the consequences. If it be asked what authority we exercise over Menelek, we answer, just as much as we exercise over the Spanish-American states. Menelek may dispute our sovereignty over him, and deny that our will is law in his part of the country; but so would Brazil, and Chili, and the Argentine Republic, and Mexico, which does not prevent our claiming the right to protect them against foreign aggression, and to supervise their treaties. Besides, Menelek's feelings should not hinder us in the least from calling the Italians to account for their treatment of him. It is with Italians we have to deal, because they are apparently stronger than Menelek, and it is a cardinal doctrine of American polity that in all disputes between weak states and strong ones, except ourselves, the strong state is surely in the wrong. We therefore strongly advise the appointment of a commission to find out the rights and wrongs of this matter, and then to stand by its judgment. We are perfectly aware of the responsibility we incur in giving such advice, but it does not frighten us. To the timorous souls who think this might get us into a war with Italy, and who ask, Are we ready for war? we say emphatically, There will be no war. To those also who are afraid of the effect of such a move on the stock market, we answer that there would be as much money made by private information as would be lost by the public news. But anyhow we do not think much of men who set their pockets before the glory the country would acquire by the assertion of her jurisdiction over another continent.

The news of the British advance up the Nile valley has created a great sensation in Europe, particularly among the French, who profess to believe that the reasons assigned for the advance by the British are a mere subterfuge, and that the true cause is to make a pretext for holding Egypt for a still longer period and more solidly. Mr. Curzon communicated to the House of Commons on Tuesday week the information on which the advance is based, and which consisted of reports of merchants, of refugees from Khartum, and of despatches from the British Consul at Suakim, announcing the appearance of the Dervishes within fifty miles of that place, and the proclamation of a holy war by the Mahdi's successor, who has on hand one of the biggest "doctrines" in the world. He makes out a fairly good case, but the political observer who treated the whole affair as a counter-stroke against France and Russia in retaliation for the Armenian fiasco and its British humiliation, would not be far wrong. If such it be, it is ably planned. It resuscitates Italy, and so far strengthens the Triple Alliance, fastens the British hold on Egypt and the Mediterranean more firmly, and warns Turkey that she would do well to find other friends than Russia. It helps to dissipate the queer belief, which doubtless led to the Kaiser's congratulations to Krüger, that England would not go to war. The Conservatives are evidently determined on a Jingo policy.

The humiliating position in which British diplomacy was left by the Armenian failure is of a sort that any ministry would be glad to obscure by some diversion. Mr. Curzon's statements in Parliament on March 3 confessed the full measure of the triumph of the Sultan. The Government accepted a motion trusting that "further endeavors will be made to ameliorate the lot of the Christian population in Asiatic Turkey," but Mr. Curzon distinctly warned the Commons that it must not be supposed possible that such endeavors would be made "by force of arms." He deprecated the habit of speaking of the Armenian negotiation as "a failure." Lord Salisbury had wrung substantial reforms from the Sultan, but, if you pressed Mr. Curzon on that point, he would "not say that we have any guarantee that the reforms will be carried out." Mr. Bryce then read from the record to show that, even in the matter of announcing the reforms, the Sultan had shuffled and procrastinated from month to month, and finally, on November 7, had said he would not announce them at all. That was the whole of it—a promise insincerely made and then cynically withdrawn. What a situation and confession, after the loud threats of Lord Salisbury last summer!

The emphatic declaration of the English Chancellor of the Exchequer, that Great Britain, although entirely willing to confer with other nations in an international conference, would have no bimetallism in her own currency, is exactly what was expected and predicted when Sir Michael Hicks-Beach was designated for that office. This declaration will go far to silence the bimetallic faction in Germany, since the Prussian Diet some time since voted that it would be inexpedient for Germany to adopt bimetallism without the coöperation of England. In fact, the bimetallic agitation in Germany has now so far subsided as to be under control. It is still squirming in France, however; the agricultural classes being under the delusion that the price of wheat is in some way connected with silver, and that if this metal were remonetized, the farmers would be more prosperous. The French Government, it should be observed, is not restrained by any act of the legislative body from trying this experiment at any time, since the law of 1876 provided merely that the executive branch of government might limit or suspend silver coinage at its discretion. The Ministry can open the mint to silver to-morrow if it chooses, at the ratio of 15½ to 1. The effect of such a step would be the same kind of commercial and political convulsion that would follow free coinage in this country at 16 to 1.

The royal commission on the relief of agriculture in England has reported in the usual fashion of royal commissions. There is a long majority report, a strong minority report, and a long setting forth of individual views by two members who are unable to agree with either majority or minority or with each other. This makes the plaything nature of the commission complete. Salisbury can say to the embattled farmers that he gave them their commission, and that if the commission had been able to agree, he would have been only too happy to take their recommendations into consideration, and see if Parliament could do anything not inconsistent with the laws of trade and the duty of securing a cheap food supply. As it is, he can only advise them to be patient and shuffle the cards and believe that his heart is filled with the tenderest sympathy for them. It is hardly worth while to look in detail at the proposals of the majority. They relate chiefly to easing off the land tax and providing a system of Government loans for agricultural improvements. Both propositions are, of course, stated in the conveniently elastic terms that mean what you please. Taxation of land should not go beyond "a reasonable rate." Government loans are to be "carefully guarded," and given only to "encourage thrift." No one but a wicked man would deny either proposition; but the supernatural wisdom necessary to put either into the exact terms of a statute does not grow on every M. P.

THE BAYARD CENSURE.

Mr. Bayard will probably take no notice of the vote of censure passed by the House, and his course will probably receive the approval of nine-tenths of the intelligent and thinking portion of the community; and this for various reasons. The principal one is that all censures of a public officer, in order to have effect, should plainly have in view the good of the service, and should emanate from some body whose judicial-mindedness on this point is not open to suspicion. No one would think of attributing to the House any desire that our Ministers abroad should not be partisan, or should be selected for their non-partisanship. If a bill were introduced to-morrow to make our diplomacy a permanent profession, to be filled by men divorced from politics and bound to discretion by the rules of their order, as diplomats are in European countries, it would not have a chance of passing. Nothing, probably, would the Republican majority in Congress resist more strenuously than an attempt to deprive them, in case they won at the next election, of the chance of giving foreign missions to all leading Republican partisans. If one of these partisans had been in Mr. Bayard's place before the Edinburgh University and had protested against and criticised "British free trade" as something unsuited to our country and prejudicial to its best interest, and had denounced its advocates here as "un-American," he would have been secretly applauded by this very House of Representatives, and no notice would have been taken of his escapade. Everybody believes, and many know, that the trouble in Mr. Bayard's case is due to the fact that the wrong ox has been gored. Had he taken a slap at free trade before a British audience, he would have been applauded as a manly American, who looked the "played-out aristocracy" boldly in the face.

The indiscretions of other kinds on the part of our Ministers abroad during the past eighty years have been very numerous, but they have never been noticed when the party of the culprits was in a majority in Congress. In other words, there are two kinds of indiscretion, one blameworthy and one praiseworthy, and this distinction runs through every department of the public service—army, navy, and post-office. When a naval officer, for instance, commits the outrageous offence of criticising the political policy of his superiors, and denouncing their use of his arm of the service, he is loudly applauded by the party to which he belongs in and out of Congress, and his well-merited punishment is treated as an act of tyranny. In truth, party feeling is a subtle poison which runs through every branch of the government, but is of course more deadly in some than in others. When we consider the temptations under which our Ministers abroad labor, to make themselves offensive to the community to which they are accredited, and the applause which such conduct would win for them from such a body as our present Congress, their reserve and good manners are something marvellous, particularly as but few of them have had diplomatic training.

Another thing which stands Mr. Bayard in good stead is the House's own want of discretion. In every field of human activity, a person clothed with the right of censure is in some way the superior of the person censured, either morally or officially, and every such person is bound to set a good example. In all services, public and private, ever since society was organized, censure, by such superior, of faults to which he was himself addicted, has been held to be indecent and ridiculous. The licentious father lecturing the fast son on continence, the drunken officer sitting in judgment on the drunken soldier, the swearing parson preaching against blasphemy, and the defaulting bank president denouncing the pilfering teller, have furnished the comic element to many a tale or drama. We pointed this out when the Senate was raising a hullabaloo about the indiscretion of the Spanish Minister in exposing the falsehoods and blunders of some of its own members.

Our remarks then apply with equal force to the House now. He who exacts discretion from others must be himself discreet. A legislature which insists that public servants must on all occasions, small and great, keep within their own sphere and attend strictly to their own business, must follow its own rule. The present House of Representatives has surpassed all its predecessors in neglecting its proper business and taking up that of other people. It was its duty, when Mr. Cleveland sent in his Venezuelan message, to refer it to the Committee on Foreign Relations, to get a careful report from that body, and to debate fully such report afterwards. Instead of this, it abandoned the duty committed to it by the Constitution, and voted without inquiry $100,000 for semi-warlike purposes. It has neglected another of its great duties in doing nothing to restore order to our finances. It has usurped the constitutional prerogative of the executive in passing undebated resolutions about the internal affairs of four or five foreign countries. It has, in fact, sought to censure foreign governments for not coöperating with each other in their foreign policy. There is hardly any branch of indiscretion which a deliberative body can commit that it has neglected. The result is, that there is probably no subject on which the public listens to it with more impatience than the subject of discretion, because there is apparently no subject about which, judging from its course, it knows less, and it is considered the most ignorant body which has yet met in Washington. Nothing could be more farcical than its notion that its debate on Mr. Bayard was something important. It was important in the gallery, but it made the judicious grieve all over the country.

One thing more must be said. We do not attempt to deny that it was indiscreet and imprudent for Mr. Bayard to say what he did as to the effect of protection on the politics of his own country. But there are degrees in indiscretion, as in every other offence against rules and regulations of which man can be guilty, and Mr. Bayard could hardly have been indiscreet at all with so little damage to his diplomatic character as on this occasion. For we do not believe there is a thinking observer of any creed or party in the United States, even if he be a protectionist, who can deny or explain away what thirty years, not of high tariff but of getting high tariffs passed, modified, and changed, has done for the public life of our country. It may be a good thing to have high or prohibitory duties, but that the annual practice of selling the right to levy them to manufacturers, of enabling whole classes of men to calculate the exact sum which easily purchasable legislation will put in their pockets, has driven men of eminence from public life, has corrupted politics to a degree hardly known since the fall of Rome, has created the boss system, and is thus threatening democratic government itself with overthrow and eclipse, no reflective man will deny. It was doubtless folly of Mr. Bayard to say this before a foreign audience, but it was folly of the sort of which Galileo was guilty when he promulgated the motion of the earth round the sun, at Rome. Galileo was locked up, and Bayard is censured, but they nevertheless both spoke "God's truth," which shall never fail.

FOREIGN IMMIGRATION.

Mr. Lodge has been one of the prime movers in the troubles from which the country now suffers. He began a year ago or more to create the perturbation in our foreign relations which, during the last few months, has been so disastrous to business, and has done so much to turn public attention away from our domestic difficulties. He has always, however, reserved for himself a little shelter in the shape of something of comparatively small consequence, which would not seriously affect his own character as a demagogue, and yet enable him to make a display of interest in our domestic affairs. One of these is civil-service reform. Another is copyright. Neither of them seriously attracts public attention, or is likely to damage him or lessen his influence with the class which he most cultivates. Whenever one resents his attacks on the currency, or his tariff madness, or his military propagandism, all of which are likely to affect seriously the character of the nation, the answer always is to see how faithful he is to civil-service reform and what a good friend to international copyright. To these political sentry-boxes he has now added hostility to illiterate immi-

gration, which he says is "a subject of the greatest magnitude and the most far-reaching importance":

"The injury of unrestricted immigration to American wages and American standards of living is sufficiently plain and is bad enough, but the danger which this immigration threatens to the quality of our citizenship is far worse. That which it concerns us to know, and that which is more vital to us as a people than all possible questions of tariff or currency, is whether the quality of our citizenship is endangered by the present course and character of immigration to the United States. To determine this question intelligently, we must look into the history of our race."

We do not need to look into the "history of our race" to get to the bottom of this matter. The history of our own country is enough. Every one must regret ignorant immigration. There is no doubt that it does lower the quality of our citizenship, and that it has a tendency to breed demagogues. But the question with us to-day is whether, and to what degree, it is responsible for the evils which now afflict us. What are those evils? They are, first, a tariff which, high or low, it seems impossible to settle in any manner which will not make it a constant menace and disturbance to business stability. We care not whether it be a high or low or middling tariff; human nature demands a stable tariff. Our next evil is a mixed, disorderly, and redundant currency, the various denominations of which are maintained at par with each other by borrowing money quarterly. Our third evil is a widespread popular passion for foreign aggression, and the conversion into a military republic of one which was intended to be, and has been until now, a peaceful, trading, manufacturing, agricultural republic.

Now to which of these evils has the foreign immigration, large as it is, ignorant as it is, contributed anything? The States which contain most foreign-born citizens, as we have often pointed out in these columns, have been soundest on the currency question—much sounder than Mr. Lodge or any of his leading companions. On the management of the tariff, which is really our American system of taxation, during the past thirty years the foreign population has exerted no influence, or next to none. It has been almost exclusively in the hands of American manufacturers and their American Congressional allies. Any falsehoods or delusions which have helped to maintain it at an extravagant height, or have led to sudden and violent changes in it, have been spread among the foreign population by intelligent and educated Americans. The irredeemable-greenback movement and the silver movement, with all their absurdities, are of purely native origin, and are most deeply rooted to-day in the States which have received the least foreign immigration. The present prevailing desire, of which Senator Lodge has been himself a chief promoter, to get up disputes with foreign nations which would entail enormous expense, and, if persisted in, seriously change the character of our government, is absolutely native-American in its origin and maintenance. There are very few foreign immigrants, even of the peasant class, who have not clearer conceptions of international morality and of the *convenances* of international intercourse than such men as Morgan and Vest, for example.

The matter on which the influence of the foreign immigrant has been most potent is city government. But the only city in the Union in which this has been visible, palpable, and overwhelming, is New York. The government of New York has been undeniably Irish, and we admit shockingly bad. But, alas, the government of the other cities, Philadelphia for example, which is in native hands, is just as bad and some say worse. So is that of St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati. In all these cities the chief leaders in the work of corruption have been Americans by birth, and as a general rule it is Americans who have taught the foreigners the tricks of the trade. As to foreign illiteracy, to which Mr. Lodge attaches so much importance, we affirm that it has not done us a hundredth part of the mischief wrought by native literacy. Mr. Lodge himself, for instance, was taught to read and write when he was a child, and has, in maturer years, had the best educational advantages the country affords. But, in spite of this, a very large proportion of the educated and thinking men of the country look on him as a citizen who does more damage to the nation than a hundred thousand, or, we might say, a half-million, ignorant Europeans. At no period in the history of the country has so much damage been done to our government as within the last ten years by the Congresses which we have been in the habit of calling "brutish." They have exhibited ignorance and folly in about equal proportions—ignorance about nearly everything with which it behooves a legislator to be acquainted, trade, commerce, industry, finance, currency, foreign relations—and yet every member of them knew how to read and write, with different degrees of proficiency, it is true, but all fairly well. Some had even read books and dictionaries. So it is quite plain that making foreigners read and write at their port of entry would not necessarily make them desirable additions to our voting population, or to our halls of legislation.

Take again the boss system, which is so rapidly changing the character of our State governments: Who devised it? Who carry it on? Who are its main supporters? Why, the native-born country voters of New York and Pennsylvania, just as much as the Irish laborers and liquor-dealers of New York city or Philadelphia. It is not Paddy or Hans who is seen hurrying to No. 49 Broadway every Saturday. In truth, the most marked characteristic of a great deal of such lamentation as Mr. Lodge's over foreign illiteracy, and of a great deal of the legislation of the day, is the desire to find some mechanical substitute for character, something which will dispense with the necessity of being honest and true and upright, and loving one's country in other ways than showing readiness to fight foreigners about matters which do not concern us. Does any one suppose for one moment that if the ruling passion at Washington and Albany to-day were a sincere desire to do what was best for the country, what was most likely to promote the comfort of the poor, and the safety, honor, and welfare of the nation, as these terms were understood by its founders, the existence among us of five times as many illiterate foreigners as we now have could not be witnessed without concern?

McKINLEY IN PRINCIPLE AND IN SCHEDULE.

Some of McKinley's Ohio friends are trying to reassure alarmed Eastern Republicans by saying that their great man is no high-tariff extremist, despite all that is said. He stands committed to no "schedule," they say, only to the general "principle" of protection. His election to the Presidency would not mean, therefore, the reënactment of the McKinley tariff, but simply a reaffirmation of a general policy for this government. Hence there is no reason to fear that Republican success under McKinley would lead to such scandalous selling of legislation as shocked the country and crushed the party in 1890.

All this, instead of reassuring, should redouble the alarm of conservative Republicans. Nothing is more dangerous in politics than a vague "principle" with which all sorts of juggler's tricks may be played. The "schedule" we know: all its bargainings, its rotten spots, its oppressiveness, its little hidden traps and snares. These have been exposed over and over again, and we have, as it were, got used to them. But a "principle" means an entirely fresh set of intrigues and tricky surprises and evils that we know not of. The original McKinley abominations were born of a principle. There was no tariff schedule in the platform of 1888; only a principle in its vaguest and blandest form. But it proved, when the time came to turn it into law, a fruitful mother of mischief. Like a "doctrine," of which, in politics, we have seen such terrible examples of the enormous embarrassments, a "principle" of this kind is more to be dreaded than any conceivable "schedule." In the latter case we have an evil, if it is an evil, which is clear and definite, and can be fought with the ordinary weapons of political discussion, and in the open daylight; in the former, we have to do with a malefic jinn, shut up in a bottle till after the election, and then released like a vast and shifting fog-bank, under cover of which all sorts of foul creatures come to birth.

What McKinley's "principle" really means is a check signed in blank, and

payable, in legislation, to every manufacturer who turns in *his* check for the campaign fund. That is the way it worked in 1890, and that is the way it will work in 1898. Republicans whose supersensitive stomachs revolted at some of the nauseous doses administered to them in the first McKinley bill, had to listen to mysterious whisperings about "the obligations of the party," "heavy contributors to the campaign treasury, you see," and that sort of thing, besides public remarks about "fat-frying." Usually, the only defence was that the general "principle" was, of course, wise and beneficent, but that many of the details were necessarily iniquitous; and would you sacrifice the blessed whole for these petty defects? There is no reasonable doubt that the same sort of thing is now planning, only on a larger scale. The men whom "the unauthorized loquacity of common fame" now declares to be backing McKinley's canvass with huge sums, and some of whose names and letters Senator Chandler pledges himself soon to publish, will infallibly exact the uttermost farthing if their candidate and his party are successful. That is what the vague talk about McKinley's "principle" truly means—the right of the men who are buying his nomination to take the next tariff bill and sit down quickly and write in it what rates they please. As against such a principle as that, honest men will take a schedule, however vicious, every time.

Putting outright corruption like this one side, it is easy to see that a glittering principle like McKinley's opens wide the door to the most preposterous abuses. Clothe the greatest outrage in the garb of the principle, and it must be admitted to the best protection society. Free silver, bounties, loans to farmers, minimum wages, the right to work, the right to loaf and shirk without starving, insurance against accident and old age, pensions for the million—any or all these schemes have but to vindicate their title to be classified under the principle, and the party is powerless before them. Like the enormities expertly drawn out of the bowels of the Monroe Doctrine, they will impose themselves, not by their own merits, for they have nothing but demerits, but by hanging on to the skirts of the principle. Good Republicans will be saying ruefully about them, as they did about the terrible consequences of the Doctrine, "Well, of course, we don't approve of that kind of thing, and we never dreamed of seeing it brought forward; still, if it's a part of the 'principle,' there's no help for us."

This is no fancy picture. If the Republican party goes into the campaign with McKinley and his principle, and elects him President, it is going to unchain the most formidable political passions that this country has seen. It is going to guarantee, in advance, comfort and prosperity to every voter, and to bring upon the Treasury raiders ten times as numerous and ten times as ugly as the Coxey band. The party's promises to pay will be presented by the thousand, and no payment in smooth prophecies will be accepted. McKinley cannot get off next time by alleging that wages have been increased to the amount of $200,000,000 of gold which never got into the country. Deluded workingmen will angrily demand to see the color of the cash. All the shiftless and unfortunate, all unprosperous merchants and unsuccessful manufacturers, socialists and agitators, labor reformers and abolishers of poverty, will be let loose upon a government that has undertaken to care for them all; and what strength will it have to withstand them?

Concrete protection we can endure. We have worried along with it for thirty years, and can put up with it for another generation if necessary. But abstract, indefinite protection, a principle that is susceptible of fresh and dangerous application every quadrennium; protection that means paternalism in government, class legislation without end, and an abandonment of the law-making power every four years to campaign contributors—this is something which no free people or republican government can tolerate and remain free and republican.

THE MAORIS.

At Sea, March 1, 1896.

Nothing in New Zealand, which I am just leaving, has interested me more than the condition of the Maoris, the native inhabitants Their history and their present status differ from those of most of the aboriginal races who have been, or are in process of being, replaced by whites. New Zealand is slightly less in area than the United Kingdom. It was discovered by Tasman in 1642. Cooke, one hundred and twenty-seven years later, was the first European known to have set foot upon its shores. The number of inhabitants was then estimated at from 100,000 to 150,000—the vast majority upon the northern, or the smaller, of the two islands, the climate of which best suited their constitution. There were evidences that the population was not as large as at a previous period. The decline may have been due to the extinction of the moa, which served for food, or to the increase of tribal warfare. Tradition points to the peopling of the country from some of the northeasterly Pacific groups six hundred years ago. Hochstetter and others are inclined to place the date at a more remote period. Similarity in language to some of the other Polynesians would appear to favor the former theory; divergence of character, due to residence in a more bracing climate, the latter.

The Maoris* form one of the most important families of the brown Polynesian stock, that which is believed to have developed its characteristics to the highest degree. They were skilful hunters and fishers and good agriculturists. Their larger houses and canoes, their weapons, ornaments, and utensils were beautifully finished and elaborately carved or painted. Their instruments were of stone, wood, or shell. With these they felled the giant kauri pine, dug out and fashioned sea-going canoes capable of carrying one hundred warriors, and scutched and wove their native flax into delicate fabrics. Their forts, or pahs, were skilfully constructed on commanding sites. Their beautiful language is comprehensive, delicate, and expressive. The most insignificant insects, the smallest plants, the principal stars, are designated. They had no writings. Their songs and proverbs, their legends and traditions and mythology were transmitted orally from father to son. The year was divided into months and seasons. They believed in a future state, and had an elaborate system of temples, priests, omens, and sacrifices. They held slaves; they practised cannibalism, believing in the transfer, to a certain extent, of the qualities of the victim to his devourer.

The Maoris welcomed the advent and settlement of Europeans. The usual results followed. Runaway convicts and sailors, rough whalers and traders (too many of them imbued with all the acuteness born of education and civilization and the devilry born of grasping avarice) contributed their utmost to degrade. Devoted missionaries gave themselves to the work of enlightenment; never elsewhere at one period did the results of their labors appear more hopeful. Settlers purchased wide domains in exchange for a few axes, trinkets, and Jew's-harps. Spars for the British navy, fibre for the manufacture of sacking and cordage, were bartered for spirituous liquors, arms, and ammunition.

In 1835 the Maori chiefs, with the advice and approval of the British Resident, the principal missionaries and merchants, entered into a confederation, issued a declaration of independence, hoisted a national flag, and instituted an annual assembly. Nothing came of this arrangement. They were capable of adopting white ways to the extent of chartering a British vessel and conquering and enslaving the Moriori inhabitants of the Chatham Islands, 500 miles distant; but the working of a regular constitution and a united assembly was beyond their training and capacity. Increasing complications arose between the natives and the ever-swelling number of white settlers and traders, until, in 1840, the treaty of Waitangi was concluded. The tribes ceded the sovereignty of the islands to the British Crown, which guaranteed to them "the full, exclusive, and undisturbed possession of their lands and estates, forests, fisheries, and other properties, so long as it is their wish and desire to retain the same in their possession"; but the chiefs "yield to her Majesty the exclusive right of preëmption over such lands as the proprietors thereof may be disposed to alienate." At this period the Maoris are supposed to have numbered about 100,000.

All might have been well, a new chapter might have been opened in the relations between a white and a colored race, if this treaty had been faithfully adhered to. But it was not to be. In such relations the most scoundrelly whites have it ever in their power to embroil in contests with overwhelming force and drag down to ruin the noblest colored. The treaty was broken by the whites in their lust for acres. "Oh! earth, earth, earth!" wrote Bishop Selwyn from New Zealand, "such has been our cry. The Queen, law, religion have been thrust aside in the one thought for the acquisition of land." The wars which ensued were perhaps the most iniquitous that ever were waged by a civilized country. "If we cannot keep the military engaged here on one excuse, we will on another," said a colonel at the time to a dignitary of the church, who repeated the speech to me. Nearly 10,000 British were at one time in the field. The

*The peculiarities of the race are ably summarized in Wallace and Keane's 'Australasia' (London, 1884).

Maoris fought with desperate courage and showed high military ability. In 1864, at the unsuccessful assault on the Gate Pah, near Tauranga, I am told, a British regiment lost more officers than had any one regiment at Waterloo. The Maoris upon many occasions showed true nobility of character. They were at first astonished that the British troops, ministered to by clergymen who had taught them the Decalogue, should fight on Sunday. Upon the slain body of one of their principal generals, Henare Taratoa, was found an order of the day. It began with a prayer and ended with the text: "If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink." When the Gate Pah was eventually abandoned by its defenders and occupied by the British, it was found that the stores of water had run out, and that the wounded British who had fallen within the works had been supplied by the Maoris at the risk of life by water carried in through the besieging lines.

The Imperial Government at length became sick of the business. It intimated to the colonists that they should make and keep their peace with the Maoris. The home troops were withdrawn and the war died out. But the Maoris had, in the words of Bishop Selwyn, conceived "an utter loss of faith in everything that is English—clergy and all alike." They withdrew within themselves. They fell back on their old beliefs, strangely mingled with the cosmogony of the Old Testament, in the form which became known as "Hauhauism." Miracles, unknown tongues, inspiration from heaven, messages of angels were alleged in support. The bones of many Maoris who had been interred in Christian churchyards were removed to mountain heights clear of white pollution.

The Maoris now number 41,000 in the North Island and 3,000 in other portions of New Zealand. The decadence of the race, while partly due to drink and to diseases arising from vice, is mainly to be attributed to other causes. Freshly introduced diseases, such as phthisis, work out with more deadly effect in fresh soil.* Surcease of tribal wars has led to the abandonment of healthy hill habitations. Inexperience in the use of clothing, neglect of the most common sanitary precautions have worked out evil. The principal cause has doubtless been the change in ways of life and thought—the numbing influence of the impact with civilization. Former ambitions, former incentives to exertion, are gone. All their arts, all their industries were strained towards preparation for war, the difficult support of life. War is at an end. Thanks to the way in which they fought, they still retain 10,000,000 acres (not all of the best land) against the 60,000,000 acres held by 700,000 whites. Rents derived from lands leased to whites, and improved methods of agriculture applied to lands under their own care, enable them easily to supply the wants of nature. But a small proportion have as yet acquired civilized wants or civilized ambitions. I saw them under all conditions—from the lowest (yet no lower than I have seen too many of the white inhabitants of a civilized country ground down by long ages of oppression) to where they went about well dressed, driving good buggies, men and women riding on well-appointed horses and employing approved agricultural machinery. In the main they impressed me as children playing with life, somewhat in the spirit of the Australian aborigines who used to exclaim: "Plenty big fool white fellow, make road for black fellow to walk on." Yet there is still a pride and reserve such as I have seen in no other native race. At a tourist resort around which they lived in large numbers, I was but twice asked for money, and then only by children in a somewhat shamefaced manner. They charged highly for admission to view natural curiosities within their domains; but all was at tariff rates, and there was no suggestion of *pour-boires*. They offered nothing for sale where much would gladly be bought. The curiosities sold as native in the shops appeared most likely to be of white manufacture.

In remoter districts there is perhaps something of the open, sunny disposition of old times. In such dealings as I had with them I ever felt as if I were being weighed and used, a member of an unreliable race, simply as far as it suited their convenience. European clothing has been adopted and is generally kept clean and in good order. Flowered hats, in the newest fashion, are much in vogue with the girls. The faces of many of the older men are elaborately tatooed. Many of the women, old and young, are likewise marked from lip to chin. Their demeanor in a crowded land court was as dignified as that of a white gathering. There was no more intoxication among the crowd brought to town by interest in the land cases, around the opposite drink-shop, than I should have seen at home. In this court and that drink-shop I seemed to view in startling contrast the opposite poles of the order to which they are now subject. Beyond a few lawyers and clerks in lower grades, none give themselves to business, few to steady employment. I could not hear of a Maori help, servant, gardener, or groom. There is no current Maori literature. They do not purchase books; newspapers only upon rare occasions. Public notices relating to land affairs are, in the North Island, printed in Maori as in English. The portions of the Government Gazette referring to the desired sale or desired partition among individuals of tribal lands are published in the vernacular.

The Government and people of New Zealand (excepting the liquor-dealers) are now well disposed towards them. At hotels, in horse-cars, on railroads, steamboats, and by the roadside I could not distinguish any difference between the treatment of white and Maori. Apart from considerations other than race or color, there is no feeling against intermarriage. In a considerable town, where I spent some days, both postmaster and schoolmaster had Maori wives. In conversation regarding a young man who had lately been promoted to £300 a year in the public service, it came out incidentally that his wife was colored. In the central and western districts of the North Island, Government interferes as little as possible with them. Roads, even, are not made there without their full permission. The Upper House of Legislature of New Zealand numbers forty-four and the Lower seventy-four. The Maoris have, under the Constitution, two representatives of their own race in the former and four in the latter. Like their white sisters, Maori women have the franchise. Maoris are also eligible as ordinary representatives. Maoris can elect whether they will vote for the constituted Maori representatives or for the ordinary representatives of the district in which they reside. They hold annually, after the manner of the Indian National Congress, an assembly for the discussion of their affairs and the instruction of their Parliamentary representatives. Temporary wooden buildings are erected for the accommodation and entertainment of the delegates and the hundreds of interested visitors who come from all parts of Maoriland. The next will meet at Waihi at the end of the present month.

New Zealand maintains an efficient system of State education—in no department more admirable than in relation to colored citizens. There is a native school department, and wherever there is a likelihood of attenders a native school is established and maintained at the cost of the State. The teaching is somewhat more elementary and practical than in the ordinary schools. There are sixty-five such, maintained at a cost of £15,000, besides four high schools for advanced Maori scholars. Maoris may attend white schools, if such are convenient, and, vice-versa, white children the Maori schools. It is the policy of the Education Department, as white settlers increase in or on the borders of a Maori district, to merge the native schools into ordinary State schools. I visited several of the pure Maori; Maori in which there were a few whites; and one lately Maori now converted into a State school. This last was especially interesting—eighty boys and girls, about equally divided as to race, mixed in their seats and classes. Surely the manners and dispositions of the dark-skinned cannot be of a low type, or the parents of the white would never submit to such an admixture. It is considered inexpedient to attempt to enforce compulsory attendance on Maori children as on white.

It would be impossible to judge as to the character and extent of religious feeling among the race. Doctrinal Christianity has never recovered its pristine hold. Hauhauism prevails to a certain extent. Mormonism has made some way. The Maoris are eminently seekers after "some new thing." I asked a clergyman as to the number belonging to different denominations in a certain district. He apportioned so many hundred to one, so many to the other. "But," I said, "I counted only five in church, and five coming from mass." "Oh," he rejoined, "it is doubtless pretty much the same as with whites at present." That is perhaps the case.

It would be rash to dogmatize regarding the future, where Hochstetter, whose book, written in 1862, is the best authority on the geology, fauna, and flora of New Zealand, is likely to have proved so far wrong. He predicted that by A. D. 1900 the Maoris would be reduced to 29,325, and that they would be extinct by A.D. 2000. For the first time a census does not register a diminution in numbers. Educational and other influences are perhaps beginning to tell favorably. One of the enumerators in the last census reports that there is a marked decrease in general drinking habits, and adds that tribal intermarriage the Maoris "now recognize as being a means of staying their hitherto decline." An admirable handbook on hygiene is used in the native schools. It is specially directed to pointing out, in the kindest spirit, the respects in which Maori customs are deficient. In the latest edition I remark several footnotes to the effect—"This was true in 1884," "This is not true now in 1894," etc. Intermarriages will probably increase in number. Looking to the long future, the race is more likely to be absorbed than to maintain its individuality. The degree in which Maori blood may influence the character of the future New Zealander will depend upon the extent to which the population of the islands is increased by immigration or by internal expansion.

D. B.

* All interested in the subject of disease as a factor in the decadence of native races should procure from the Government Printer, Wellington, New Zealand, Parliamentary Paper A3, 1894, which embodies a treatise on the question by Surgeon Andrews, R. N.

NAPOLEON AND ALEXANDER I.—II.

PARIS, March 11, 1896.

IMMEDIATELY after the famous diplomatic audience of the 15th of August, 1811, when Napoleon made his complaints to Prince Kurakin, Napoleon left for Saint-Cloud and worked without interruption with the Duke of Bassano. He had all the diplomatic correspondence placed before him. Was he, was he not, to make war on Russia? He examined the question as a mathematical problem. Much was to be said on both sides, but all the arguments led him finally to the necessity of a war, and of an offensive war. At the same time the war must be deferred, as many diplomatic negotiations were to be entered into. The date fixed was June, 1812; up to that moment time must be gained.

The military preparations were made as secretly as possible; they extended from Dantzig to Italy. The Emperor, with the minuteness which was one of his characteristics, and which seems so amazing when you read his correspondence, saw to everything; he gave his orders for his German allies, for the army which was to operate on the northern coasts, the camps of Holland and of Boulogne, the army of Italy, the Guard; he prepared everything for the most formidable campaign which he had yet undertaken. Prussia had almost ceased to exist as an independent power; the King had become a mere vassal of Napoleon, and was in mortal fear of losing his crown. There was in Berlin, however, an ardent anti-French party. The Chancellor Hardenberg favored an alliance of Prussia with Russia; the King wrote secretly to the Tsar, on the 16th of July, asking him to come to his help if he was in danger; Scharnhorst, who had reorganized the Prussian army, left secretly for St. Petersburg and arranged a plan of campaign with the Emperor. Military preparations were made in Prussia which did not escape the eye of Napoleon. Nothing could be more unpleasant to him, if he had a war with Russia, than a sort of resurrection of the kingdom of Frederick the Great; he had asked Frederick William to allow him to occupy Prussia, and to give him a small auxiliary force, in case he had to enter the Russian territory—a force which he considered more as a hostage than as a help. For a moment, he thought of asking Prussia to disarm, and, if she refused, to suppress her entirely as an independent kingdom. With the army of Davout, the garrisons of the North, the troops of the Duchy of Warsaw, of Saxony, and of Westphalia, he thought himself able to do it. The King of Prussia was in a state of mortal anxiety.

Would the Tsar help him? If not, what was he going to do himself? Scharnhorst was in conference with Alexander, but the Tsar interposed difficulties: he was not willing to take the offensive and to enter Prussia. A military convention was signed on the 17th of October, 1811, in which Alexander promised, if Napoleon invaded Prussia, to advance his own troops towards the Vistula. This did not, however, put an end to the perplexities of Frederick William; how could he alone resist Napoleon? He felt in the end condemned to the French alliance. Davout had already prepared a plan of occupation, it may be said of annihilation, of the Prussian kingdom. Scharnhorst went from St. Petersburg to Vienna, hoping to detach Austria from the French alliance, but he obtained nothing from Metternich. On the 12th of January, 1812, the King accepted all the conditions imposed by Napoleon. An auxiliary corps of 42,000 men for the Grande Armée, the occupation of the cities of Prussia by the French troops—such were the most important of these conditions.

In February, 1812, all the elements of the Grande Armée were ready, and began to be gradually and silently put in motion. A general concentration took place towards the Russian frontier. Tchernitcheff had spies in the various departments of the War Office, and was aware of all the preparations. Several of these spies were arrested and accused of high treason. One of them was the porter of the Russian embassy. Kurakin, who was ignorant of this porter's relations with the secret agents of Tchernitcheff, made a complaint, but his porter had not been arrested in the embassy itself, and he had no more to say. Towards the middle of April, all the movements ordered by Napoleon had been executed. The winter in Paris had been extremely brilliant and animated; but war with Russia was in everybody's mouth—the negotiations had become a mere veil on both sides. Alexander, having signed a treaty of alliance with Sweden, separated from Speranski, who was the representative of the French alliance. The party hostile to Speranski went so far as to accuse him unjustly of treason. On the 17th of March, Speranski had work as usual with the Emperor Alexander. He remained three hours with him, and, when the door opened, Speranski was seen to come out, his eyes full of tears, making incoherent gestures. The Emperor appeared a moment, and said merely, "Adieu, Prince!" and, a moment after, "Adieu again, Michael Mikhailovitch." The same evening, Speranski was arrested, put in a kibitka, and taken to Nizhni. The court was in a state of exaltation, and it was said in St. Petersburg that the sacrifice of Speranski was "the first victory over the French."

Bernadotte had become very ardent against Napoleon; he denounced him as having the wildest projects. "They write to me," said he to Suchtelen, the Russian Minister, "that he hopes to have done with Russia in a couple of months; then he will go to Constantinople; he speaks of attacking Persia, of establishing himself in Ispahan, and in three years from this time he will march on Delhi and attack the English in India."

On the 5th of May, Napoleon showed himself at the Opera with the Empress; it was his farewell to Paris. On the 9th, early in the morning, he took his departure from Saint-Cloud; hundreds and thousands of carriages left Paris on that day, following the imperial carriages. It was said that the Emperor was making a mere inspection of his armies. The *Moniteur* announced that "the Emperor has left Paris in order to inspect the Grande Armée on the Vistula. Her Majesty the Empress will accompany his Majesty as far as Dresden, where she hopes to have the happiness of seing her august family." Napoleon went by way of Châlons, Metz, Mainz, Wurtzburg, Bamberg, travelling like an Asiatic potentate, and finding everywhere his vassals. Thousands of peasants kept the roads in perfect repair where he passed; and, in the night, great fires were kindled near the roads. In Dresden, the Emperor took possession of the Residenz; he lived in the magnificent rooms which had once been inhabited and embellished by Augustus II., the Elector King. The princes of the Confederation of the Rhine arrived one after another—the princes of Weimar, of Coburg, of Mecklenburg, the Grand Duke of Wurtzburg, the primate of the Confederation; then came Queen Catherine of Westphalia, Prince Eugène, the Emperor and Empress of Austria, Count Metternich, Prince Hatzfeld. For several days, Napoleon kept a Court of Sovereigns, but in the intervals of the great dinners and theatrical representations he worked with the Duke of Bassano and the Prince of Neuchâtel, the chief of staff. In the evening, at the theatre, Napoleon could look, as he had been said already to have looked, at Erfurt, on a "parterre de rois." He was in the great box, placed in the middle, between the two Empresses; the kings, princes and princesses, ladies and gentlemen, were placed according to the rules of the protocol. One night, after a representation of an opera of Paër's, there was a sort of apotheosis: the centrepiece was a revolving sun, with the inscription "Moins grand et moins beau que lui." The Emperor of Austria bowed mildly to Napoleon, who said, shrugging his shoulders, "Il faut que ces gens-là me croient bien bête." The King of Prussia arrived last, more like a victim than like a guest. It seemed as if all the sovereigns tacitly recognized a supreme authority, and, during these Dresden days, Napoleon appears as the Emperor of Europe.

On the morning of May 29, Napoleon took leave of the Empress, of the kings and princes, and started for the north. Marie Louise left for Prague, where she was allowed to stay some time with her parents. Napoleon went to Posen, without stopping an instant. He reached the Vistula at Thorn, where he found his army in its quarters on all sides. Thorn was the centre of a chain of armies which was no less than two hundred leagues in length. Half a million of men were waiting for his orders. He made a rapid visit to Davout at Dantzig, and also to Murat. Seven corps-d'armée advanced in order towards the Niemen. On the night of June 22, Napoleon in person made a reconnoissance on the river with Berthier, each dressed in a Polish uniform, with a lancer's shapska. He was a very good topographer, and chose a place near Kovno for the passage of the river; all the details of the passage were prepared by him. The troops were arriving on all sides: the Emperor placed them. He had a fall from his horse, on one of his excursions, but did not hurt himself. Caulaincourt, who was on the staff, heard Berthier, galloping by him, say: "This fall is of bad omen; we ought not to cross the Niemen." On the other side of the river, no troops, no sentries, were seen. Napoleon expected some resistance, and was almost disappointed in not finding any. He asked Caulaincourt: "Have the Russian peasants any energy? Are they of the same stuff as the Spaniards? Do you think the Russians will abandon Wilma to me without fighting a battle?" He was very anxious to have a battle; he hoped that the Russian nobles would make a revolution and overthrow Alexander. The river was crossed in admirable order, the troops marching as on parade; a whole night and a whole day were necessary for this operation. Napoleon witnessed it; the soldiers had built for him a sort of throne made of branches and of turf. He crossed the river early, and became almost intoxicated with the splendid military spectacle under his eyes; he was very gay, even jovial; he hummed between his teeth the air of "Malbrough s'en va-t-en guerre."

On the very day when Napoleon crossed the Niemen, Rostoptchin, who had been appointed Governor of Moscow, wrote to the Tsar: "Your Empire has two powerful defences, its extent and its climate; the Emperor of Russia will be formidable at Moscow, terrible at Kazan, invincible at Tobolsk." Alexander left

Wilna on the 17th of June; there was much division of opinion among his councillors and military advisers, but it was finally resolved that the principal Russian army, under Barclay de Tolly, should retire from Wilna to Drissa, and that Bagration, with a second army, should remain on the flank of the French army. When it became known how superior the Grande Armée was in numbers, Bagration also was ordered to retreat. Alexander made a last effort. Balakhoff, his aide de-camp as well as his Minister of Police, was sent to Napoleon with a final offer of negotiation and of peace. Alexander gave him a letter for Napoleon, but instructed him to say to the Emperor that negotiations could be opened only if the French recrossed the Niemen. "So long as a single soldier remained in arms on Russian soil, he would himself neither pronounce nor hear a word about peace." Balakhoff took a few Cossacks and a trumpeter with him, and arrived at the French line. He was conducted to the headquarters of the Prince of Eckmühl, whom he found occupied with the routine of his work, and who did not conceal from him the fact that he considered his mission the means of gaining a little time. Napoleon exulted when he heard of Balakhoff's arrival. He said to Berthier: "My brother Alexander would already like to come to terms; he is afraid. My manœuvres have thrown consternation among those Russians; in two months they will be at my feet." Meanwhile, he was in no hurry to give an audience to Balakhoff, and asked Davout to keep him, as he wished to see him only after having entered Wilna. He hoped to fight a battle before Wilna, but was allowed to enter it without meeting with any resistance. The Russians had burned the bridges and their stores.

It was only a few days afterwards that Napoleon sent for Balakhoff, on the 30th of June. Their conversation took place after Napoleon's breakfast, while he was taking his coffee. Napoleon as usual was eloquent, varied; he went over all the incidents which had preceded the war; he complained of Alexander's advisers; he put a hundred questions; he was sometimes angry, sometimes most amiable. He asked Balakhoff to dinner in the evening, with Berthier, Duroc, Bessières, and Caulaincourt. After dinner, after some very improper questions about Alexander's sojourn in Warsaw and his visits to a certain Madam S——, with his usual studied versatility he suddenly asked: "Which is the road to Moscow?" Balakhoff reflected a moment, and said: "Sire, this question is meant to embarrass me. The Russians say, as the French do, that all roads lead to Rome. You can take which one you like to go to Moscow; Charles XII. took the Poltava road." The answer is so clever that we ask if it was really made; it is at any rate in Balakhoff's official report on his mission.

Notes.

COPELAND & DAY, Boston, will publish directly 'Lyrics of Earth,' by Archibald Lampman; 'Undertones,' by Madison Cawein; 'The Road to Castaly,' by Alice Brown'; 'In Soul and Sense,' by Hannah Parker Kimball; 'In the Village of Viger,' by Duncan Campbell Scott; and 'The Captured Cunarder,' by William H. Rideing.

'The House: An Episode in the Lives of Reuben Baker, Astronomer, and his Wife Alice,' by the late Eugene Field; 'Cinderella, and Other Stories,' by Richard Harding Davis; Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Poems and Ballads,' now first collected in one volume; and a series of volumes of "Stories by English Authors," arranged according to the countries which are the scene of the action, are among the promised publications of Charles Scribner's Sons.

G. P. Putnam's Sons, resuming an old conjunction with the house of John Murray, London, in this particular, will bring out a new edition of George Borrow's 'The Bible in Spain' and 'Lavengro,' the first in two volumes. They announce also, for speedy publication, the 'Hastings Chess Tournament,' the seventh of the ten volumes of Ford's 'Writings of Jefferson,' and the fourth of Roosevelt's 'Winning of the West.'

Early spring announcements of Edward Arnold embrace 'In the Far Northwest: A Record of a Canoe Journey of 4,000 miles from Fort Wrangel to the Pelly Lakes, and down the Yukon to the Behring Sea,' by Warburton Pike, with illustrations; 'The Exploration of the Caucasus,' by Douglas W. Freshfield, in two volumes, with panoramic and many other photographic illustrations; and 'The Art of Reading and Speaking,' by Canon James Fleming.

Macmillan & Co. have nearly ready an 'Atlas of Nerve Cells,' edited by M. Allen Starr, M.D.

'The Wind's Will,' a college story, by Rey Tillotson; 'The Romance of Guardamonte,' by Arline E. Davis; 'A Pretty Bandit,' by Frank Bailey Millard; and 'Out of a Silver Flute,' by Philip Verrill Mighels, are in the press of J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, will publish 'A History of the American Tariff, from Washington to Cleveland,' by Eugene C. Lewis.

But six months have elapsed since we favorably reviewed Statham's 'Architecture for General Readers' (Scribners), and we now have in hand a second edition, revised. This compact treatise is attractively printed and bound, and freely illustrated, has its index and its list of plates and cuts, but, strange to say, has no table of contents, though the text is unbroken except by paragraphs in either of the two parts into which the work is divided. Dependence for a general view is solely upon the headlines.

Lovers of Dartmoor will welcome the new edition of Rowe's 'Perambulation of Dartmoor,' which has been issued by the enterprise of an Exeter bookseller, Mr. James Commin, and published in this country by Messrs. Putnam. Samuel Rowe, Vicar of Crediton, was an excellent specimen of the antiquary of the last generation—learned in an old-fashioned way, leisurely and gossipy, and with a weakness for Druids; and both the original edition of this his work of love, published in 1848, and the reprint of 1856, had become difficult to procure. It has now been revised and enlarged, by Mr. J. Brooking Rowe; there are additional chapters on the geology and botany of the moor by competent writers; there are two-dozen charming engravings of Dartmoor scenery from drawings of Mr. F. J. Widgery; and the needs of the pedestrian are amply met by four large-scale maps. Altogether it is a solid and handsome book, in whose five hundred pages tourists, topographers, and antiquaries may all browse with pleasure; and it reflects much credit on the "local" publisher and the "local" printer.

The centenary of Burns is now "on," and his admirers will find much satisfaction in the uncommonly pretty two-volume edition of the Poems just brought out in London by Clement Wilson, and in Philadelphia by J. B. Lippincott Co. Mr. James A. Manson proves a judicious editor, refraining from overloading the notes, which are relegated to the rear of volume ii. along with the glossary and index to first lines, and furnishing a sufficient introductory sketch. There is no embellishment besides the typography, which is elegant and not trying to the eyes, though condensed.

We have already noticed the appearance of the first volume of the Muirheads' translation of Helbig's Guide to the 'Public Collections of Classical Antiquities in Rome' (Leipzig: Baedeker). The publication of the second (1896) completes a most useful book. Intended to guide the student of archæology or the cultivated layman through the Roman museums, it takes up the different works of art in the order in which they naturally meet the eye, gives a description of each, and refers the reader to larger books in which may be found either pictorial illustration or fuller verbal treatment. To each description is prefixed a paragraph naming the provenance (when possible) of each piece of sculpture, and indicating the restorations which it has suffered. All the public museums are included except the Faliscan in the Villa di Papa Giulio. The accounts of the sculptures in the Square of the Capitol and of the collections in the Museum delle Terme are absolutely new. The volumes are of the regulation "Baedeker" size, are provided with an excellent index, and will be indispensable alike to the student and to the intelligent traveller.

The growing interest in "sociology" which is just now felt in France is illustrated by the fact that M. Ch. Baye has recently taken the trouble to translate into French the 'Grundriss' of the Graz Professor, Ludwig Gumplowicz (which appeared so long ago as 1885), under the title 'Précis de Sociologie' (Paris: Chailley). The American reader who shall make the acquaintance of Prof. Gumplowicz's work for the first time in this garb will find in it some very vigorous and suggestive criticism of previous writers, especially of Comte and Spencer, and an interesting account of one but little known save by professed psychologists, viz., Bastian. In the constructive part, he will find much confident theorizing with little definite evidence, and a principle put forward as fundamental—that civilization always began in conquest—which looks very much as if it had been suggested by the peculiar history of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. It is a small matter, but one would like to know what the circumstances are in Prof. Gumplowicz's part of the world which have produced a scorn, so fine and so much in evidence, for any opinion that seems to be tainted by "Biblical" or theological influences.

'La Force du Mal,' by Paul Adam (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a work in which the influence of Zola is visible. It is not open to the reproach of obscenity, as so much of the work of Zola himself, but it contains passages written in the veriest naturalistic vein, for which many readers will feel instant and instinctive repulsion. The descriptions of choleraic cases are no doubt faithful, but are also loathsome, however closely connected with the story. But the book is strong and presents strong characters—those of the young doctor, who sacrifices the certainty of wealth and a brilliant career to principle and truth, and of the girl who becomes his wife and who is of the same metal. The clear recognition of duty and the brave acceptance of poverty and calumny are the points which the author appears to emphasize, and are those which raise

his work above the level of the average "naturalistic" novel.

"Jean Rolland" is the masculine pseudonym of Margaret Belin, a writer who would greatly improve her work by a diminution in the length of her analyses, which are neither subtle enough nor profound enough to warrant their excessive development. This improvement is not found in her last book, 'Sous les Galons' (Paris: Colin), and the more the pity, for she has a simple and attaching subject which, when she gets fairly into it, she makes distinctly interesting. In this volume she has certainly kept the good wine for the last, and totally neglected Boileau's wise precept: "Le sujet n'est jamais assez tôt expliqué."

If any reader is inclined to look with suspicion on Roger Dombre's 'Tante Rabat-joie' (Paris: Colin), because it is marked "for young girls," let him not think he will waste time in reading it. The story is of a charming young girl and is delightfully told, with the *verve* of Gyp, to whom the book is dedicated, and the wit of De la Brète. It takes and keeps the attention, and "young girls" whose parents may buy it are not likely to get at its lively pages until the parents have read every one of them.

The sixth volume of Jules Lemaitre's 'Les Contemporains' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.) is composed mainly of a long and appreciative article on Lamartine, whom the critic puts on a very high pedestal indeed. His reasons for so doing are set out at length and will not be accepted as sufficient by every reader. The other important article is on "L'Influence récente des littératures du Nord," an influence never cordially admired by Lemaitre, and which he believes to have spent its force and to be on the point of disappearing altogether, thanks to a possibly near-at-hand reaction of the Latin spirit.

The thin index to Conrad's 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' is now followed by a "first supplementary volume" (Jena: Gustav Fischer) as thick as the last of the original six. Although the supplement contains articles upon several new subjects, it does little towards bringing the performance of the book as a whole into harmony with the promise of its title. The new subjects are, for the most part, such as might well have been embraced even within the restricted plan of the original volumes. One new article, indeed, is broadly entitled "The State," but the writing of it was intrusted to Adolf Wagner, and he, of course, treated the subject exclusively "in its economic aspects." Thus the whole field of political philosophy, like the fields of international and of public law, is still excluded, and the misnamed 'Dictionary of the Political Sciences' remains in fact a dictionary of political economy, theoretical and practical. The justification of a supplementary volume must be sought, therefore, not in the new rubrics which it introduces, but rather in the fresh material with which it elucidates subjects already treated in the body of the book. The publication of the 'Handwörterbuch' began in 1890. Since that date the principal countries of the world have taken censuses, whose results (except our own) are now available. Diligent use of these results, and of other recent statistical reports, is exhibited in not a few articles, notably in those on population, trades and occupations, corporations, strikes, and trade unions. The articles on such diverse subjects as factory laws, canals, industrial arbitration, paper money, the social democracy, and the German state pensions give excellent summaries of recent legislation. Particularly worthy of mention are the account of the recent reform of the Austrian currency, by Prof. Zuckerkandl of Prague, and the description of the Italian banks, by Prof. Ferraris of Padua.

Albert Bielschowsky's 'Goethe, sein Leben und Werke' (Munich: Beck) is to be completed in two volumes, of which the first, containing 520 pages, has just been issued. The author presents the results of his careful researches in a compendious and remarkably readable form, and enters sufficiently into the minor details, which may often seem trivial, but which really invest the lives of great men with human interest. Especially charming are his account of the poet's sojourn in Italy, and the critical analyses of "Iphigenie" and "Tasso" as the literary fruits of Goethe's immediate contact with classical art and antiquity. The second volume will appear in the autumn.

As an evidence of the general diffusion of elementary education in Bavaria, we note that of the 29,759 men enrolled for military service in that country during the years 1894 and 1895, only ten were unable to read and write. In Prussia 514 recruits out of 157,854 were found to be deficient in this respect.

Interesting from an ethical point of view are the recently published statistics of India, which show one convicted criminal out of every 274 Europeans, one to 509 Asiatics, one to 709 native Christians, one to 1,361 Brahmans, and one to 3,787 Buddhists.

There lies before us a little book, 'The Maxims of Chanakya,' translated into English by K. Raghunathji, author of 'The Dancing Girls of Bombay,' 'The Beggars and Criers of Bombay,' &c., &c., &c. (Bombay: Printed at the Family Printing Press). Chanakya was Prime Minister of the famous King Sandrokottos, about 300 B. C., founder of the greatest dynasty of Ancient India, and well known to the Greeks, whom he called Yavanas (Ἰάονες or Ἴωνες, *i. e.*, the Ionians). Listen now to Raghunath's version of a maxim: "The wise have declared that the Yavan (the Greek or Muhammadan) is equal in baseness to a thousand outcastes; and hence the Muhammadan [why not at least "Greek *or* Muhammadan"?] is the basest of men." Here is *fin de-siècle* hatred for Islam projected back, by jingo, to a time some eight centuries anterior to the Hejira! And what could surpass this precious blunder, unless perhaps the delightful confusion of the venerable Bengalee Baboo who mixed up Moses and his Ten Commandments with the Laws of the Twelve Tables! Was it intended that the products of the "Family Printing Press" should not get outside of this Hindu Jingo's "Family"?

Mr. Edward Field, one of the Record Commissioners of the City of Providence, has sent out a small edition (250 copies) of the 'Tax Lists of Providence during the Andros Period, 1686-89,' together with a list of persons liable to a poll-tax in 1688. He has added some schedules of taxable property of the same date, making a most acceptable contribution to the history of a colony which has been very unfortunate in respect to its archives.

The quarterly bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of recent additions arranged according to subjects with author and subject-indexes, and a chronological list of Spanish and Portuguese fiction. Its publication ceases with this number, and its place will be taken by monthly lists of new books, which may also contain special bibliographies and topical reference lists, though these may appear separately.

The House of Commons has finally settled the vexed question of the Sunday opening of national collections, by voting "that it is desirable that the national museums and art galleries in London should be open for a limited number of hours [on Sundays] after 2 P. M., upon condition that no officer shall be required to attend more than six days in the week, and that any one who may have conscientious objections shall be exempt from Sunday duty." A substitute Sabbatarian motion, rejecting Sunday opening and offering the sop of three weekly evening openings, was lost by a vote of 178 to 93. In the course of the debate, Sir John Lubbock, trustee of the British Museum, stated that its trustees were in favor of opening the collections to Sunday visitors. The mover of the resolution reported a petition from 109 London trades-unions, and referred to the favorable report of a committee of four bishops and a dean, who ventured the opinion that Sunday opening "would not be a desecration." It is worthy of remark that this revolution in the use of the British Museum, the National Gallery, and the great collections at South Kensington should be conceded by a Parliament unique in this generation for the size of its Tory majority.

The University of Pennsylvania has decided to establish upon the "George Leib Harrison Foundation, for the Encouragement of Liberal Studies and the Advancement of Knowledge," twenty-seven new scholarships and fellowships, of the aggregate annual value of $13,200. Of these, eight, of the value of $100 a year and free tuition, are open only to graduates of the University. Fourteen fellowships, of the value of $600 a year, less $100 devoted to publication or equipment, are open to the graduates of any institution, may be held for two years, and are intended for candidates for the degree of Ph.D. Five Senior Fellowships, of the value of $800 a year, may be held for three years, and are open only to those who have taken the degree of Ph.D. at the University. Further particulars may be had by addressing Mr. Jesse Y. Burk, Secretary of the University, Philadelphia.

Particulars concerning three fellowships for 1896-97 in the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, and a necessary blank form of application, may be had by addressing Prof. Samuel Ball Platner, Temporary Secretary of the Managing Committee, at Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. These scholarships, of $600, $600, and $500 (Christian Archæology) respectively, are open to bachelors of arts of universities and colleges in the United States and other American students of similar attainments. Residence for the full school year of ten months will be mainly in Rome, with possibility of travel and study in Italy and Greece.

—We are kindly permitted by Prof Breasted of Chicago University to make the following extracts from a private letter from Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, dated Luxor, February 14, 1896, and summing up this explorer's winter work in Egypt:

"The Ramesseum is of Ramses II.—the only thing left unchanged. The chapel of Uazmes was rebuilt by Amenhotep III., as his ring was under the doorsill. The temple next south is of Tahutmes IV.—yet unnamed in maps. Next is a big tomb of Khonsu ardus, goldsmith of the temple of Amen, XXV. dyn. Then comes the levelled plain with a scarp of rock-gravel on the W. and N., marked ⸺ ⸺ on maps; and on the plain—but later than its levelling—was a temple of Queen Tausert as sole ruler, 'Tausert, setep en Mut, Sat Ra, mery Amen,' who has left us in foundation-deposits 500 scarabs and plaques of colored glazes with cartouches, and 1,200 glazed objects, besides three slabs with the names. Then south of that is the so-called temple of Amenhotep

III., which is really the funeral temple of Merenptah. That beast smashed up all the statues and sculptures of Amenhotep II. to put into his foundations, and wrecked the gorgeous temple behind the colossi for building-material. We have a few fine pieces of Amenhotep III.; and the upper half of a fine black granite statue of Merenptah. I am now going to clear two small temples north of the Ramesseum; so you see we are getting through the field of temples here at a pretty good rate. Quibell is doing the Ramesseum, and I am doing the others. We make complete plans of all the buildings and foundations. This sort of clearing up is what 'exploration' should be, and not merely the elaborate clearing out of one building. The whole lot of half-a-dozen temple sites we shall clear up, and fix historically, for about $2,500 or $3,000. . . . I bought a piece of a stele dedicated by the 'Royal son, 'Ahmes, called Sapa'r,' explaining his name. He is figured as a boy. Bant anta was probably mother of Merenptah, as her name occurs in his temple ruins, but no other relatives."

—Mr. E. K. Chambers has done good service to letters in the 'Poems of Donne,' which he has contributed to "The Muses Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners). He has carefully revised the text on the basis of the old printed copies, very properly rejecting most of the manuscript readings introduced by Dr. Grosart into his exasperating edition; he has made an attempt (valiant, but not uniformly successful) to regulate the punctuation, and he has added a body of notes. These notes, though they contain a good deal of bibliographical information, and are particularly rich in details about the persons to whom Donne's poems are addressed, are very weak on the exegetical side. Few authors need notes more than Donne, and Mr. Chambers has passed by many difficult places in silence. *Per contra*, he has taken pains to explain a number of words which must be familiar to everybody who is likely to read Donne at all, and which, besides, are perfectly accessible in all the dictionaries. Nor are his explanations always free from vagueness. "Mithridate," for instance, is defined as "an antidote, so called from Mithridates VI., King of Pontus, who took elaborate precautions against poison." The volumes are so pretty, however, and contain so much that is good, that one is disinclined to pick flaws. Mr. Saintsbury contributes an introduction written in his usual jolting style.

—The preface to the Rev. William Cunningham's 'Modern Civilisation in some of its Economic Aspects' (London: Methuen) describes the book as "an elementary treatise on political economy." It is, we believe, Dr. Cunningham's first comprehensive book on the subject, and, so far as his economic notions appear in this brief "sketch of the mechanism by which business affairs are carried on," they seem to differ less, at bottom, from the notions of other English economists than both he and they have at times assumed. Dr. Cunningham's method of presentation, however, is fresh and attractive. For example, his third part, corresponding to the traditional book on Distribution in the traditional treatise, is entitled not "Wages, Interest, and Rent," but "Hiring, Investing and Letting." In other words, Dr. Cunningham, as becomes an historical economist, describes processes instead of criticising concepts—his economics are realistic. But economic realism, as he understands it, leads by no means to economic materialism. On the contrary, it demands the adequate recognition, in addition to self-interest, of other real forces, such as family feeling, public spirit, and religious influence, each contributing its share to that industrial self-discipline which alone can assure the fruits of material progress. In his discussion of the relative efficiency of self-discipline and of legal discipline, Dr. Cunningham enters a well-timed protest against the current tendency to speak of philanthropic legislation as socialistic whenever it distributes among the poor the taxes collected from the well-to-do, and to advocate reforms of all sorts under the name of "practical socialism." So far from being socialism of any sort whatever, all state action which aims, as wise philanthropic legislation does, to awaken and to strengthen the sense of responsibility, is distinctly individualistic. Such legislation avoids the greatest weakness of socialism, the failure to furnish an incentive to persistent exertion.

—Every amateur who chances to light upon a report of a trial by the Spanish Inquisition is so impressed by its skilful blending of cruelty and injustice that he hastens to communicate it to the world as though it were a new discovery. Thus in the *Revue Bleue* of February 8 we find a long account of a couple of cases against the dead in the tribunal of Ciudad-Real, in 1484, involving the confiscation of a large number of estates of wealthy New-Christians. They suffice to prove the thesis of the writer in contradicting the assertion of a certain school of historians that the Spanish Inquisition was a milder institution than its predecessor, but in themselves (and herein lies their only interest) they are merely commonplace examples of the daily routine of the Holy Office performing its function of stripping the descendants of their property and turning it into the royal coffers. In admitting the Inquisition into their dominions, Ferdinand and Isabella had shrewdly reserved the confiscations for the royal treasury, instead of allowing them, as in Italy, to inure to the benefit of the Church; so that greed and fanaticism joined hands in purifying the lands of the so-called heresy of the Judaizing Christians, forcibly converted since the days of San Vicente Ferrer. The process was neither better nor worse than that which had been followed since the thirteenth century, but the results were more profitable, for the victims were more numerous and more opulent. Possibly, moreover, their persecution may seem to us more odious, for it is easier to sympathize with steadfast adherence to the ancient faith—older in the Peninsula than Christianity itself—than with the devotion of the Albigenses to the upstart dualistic Manichæism whose principles were fundamentally irreconcilable with the Christian faith.

—A writer in the Milan *Corriere della Sera* of February 29 inquires what may be the cause of the *rapidity* of the decadence of the Italian Parliament, amid the general decline of all parliamentary bodies. He would trace this decadence beyond 1876, which many consider the date of its beginning, to the occupation of Rome as the capital of united Italy, and the temporary adoption of the Ludovisi palace constructed by Bernini in 1650, and furnished in the time of Innocent XII. with a huge semicircular court-yard, whose conversion into a hall produced the present Chamber of Deputies of Montecitorio. This makeshift contrivance was for the seating of 508 Deputies, or for 450 in actual attendance in the most exciting times, as this writer believes. He compares the dimensions of the hall with public spaces and with the projected substitute for the present French Chamber, to accommodate 900 Deputies, and finds Montecitorio twice as capacious as the latter for half the seats. He moralizes very judiciously on the physical effects of such vastness on debate—the premium it sets on mere lung power and gesticulation, the exaggeration it perforce imposes on the simplest statements or rhetorical devices. "The smile," he says, quoting a French writer, "which a pleasantry might have provoked in a parlor, becomes a sonorous peal of laughter in an assembly; an objection to an opponent made with diffidence in a small committee is transformed into a violent apostrophe in the midst of five hundred persons." The first remedy he suggests for Italy's case is of course a smaller hall, in which speaking and hearing will be easy and calm persuasion possible. But he also puts his finger on the evil of over-representation, so well illustrated by the number not only of our own Congressmen but of our State legislators—a crowd in which mediocrity and corruption flourish, business drags, and historical and legal consistency is all but lost sight of.

—It is gratifying to notice the prosperity of the Asiatic Society of Japan, and it will be good news to those who do not already know it that the invaluable Transactions, now numbering twenty-three volumes, in fifty-eight numbers, can be bought for prices averaging $1.50 a number in silver *yen*, which in American money is really but half price. Vol. xxiii. contains two excellent papers, by W. G. Aston in English and by Maurice Courant in French, on the Ōnmun, or phonetic alphabet of Korea. Both writers practically agree that the "clerk-method" of writing Korean in abbreviated Chinese ideograms was invented in the seventh century, but that the true Ōnmun, a phonetic alphabet of twenty-eight letters, is the work of a Korean statesman of the fifteenth century. Dr. D. C. Greene has an illuminating paper of fifty-one pages on the Tenrikyō, or the Teaching of the Heavenly Reason. This influential Japanese Shintō sect was founded by a woman named Miki, within the present century. The article is well worth reading in connection with Mr. Percival Lowell's 'Occult Japan.' Mr. Clay MacCauley writes felicitously of the Japanese landscape, but his discourse on "Silver in Japan" is not considered orthodox enough to go in as a body article, and hence is printed in small type in the appendix. As a rule, the Supplements to the Transactions are of even more value to special scholars than the varied contributions in the Transactions proper, and that to vol. xxiii. is no exception. Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, the indefatigable traveller, not content with his Aino studies, has, after hearing the Luchuan (Loochooan) language in its own home, as well as discussing it with educated natives in Tokio, written "An Essay in Aid of the Grammar and Dictionary of the Luchuan Language." It is more than probable that this study of a master will bear fruit in further researches into the Japanese language itself, besides throwing valuable light on Shintō and the archæology of ancient Japan, especially in the southwest. The first sample of Luchuan speech given to the outer world was by Captain Basil Hall, the grandfather of this present distinguished Anglo-Japanese scholar.

FOSTER'S COMMENTARIES.

Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States, Historical and Juridical. By Roger Foster. Vol. I. Preamble to Impeachment. Boston: The Boston Book Co. 1895.

More than sixty years have passed since the

appearance of Story's 'Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States.' Changes of the utmost importance in our constitutional and political history have taken place during these years. The development of the slavery controversy, culminating in secession and civil war; the partisan bitterness of Reconstruction; the experiments with tariffs and finance; the expansion of interstate commerce, and the admission of new States, have profoundly affected judicial interpretation of the Constitution, while the researches of numerous students in the field of American history have made available a mass of material relating to the origin and early growth of our political institutions which was virtually unknown even a generation ago. It is a high tribute to the value of Story's work that his 'Commentaries' is still the classical and indispensable treatise on the law of the Constitution, and that thus far the works of later writers have supplemented without superseding it. Nevertheless, there has long been need of a treatise which, by its broad and thorough survey of the whole field of judicial decision and historical research, should do for American constitutional law in 1896 what Story's treatise did for it in 1833. Mr. Foster's 'Commentaries,' of which the first of three volumes has lately appeared, is quite the most ambitious of recent attempts to deal with the subject in a large way.

There are certain qualities which are indispensable to a writer who would successfully expound a national constitution. He must have abundant knowledge joined to power of clear and accurate statement. He ought not to parade his learning, but will need skill in grouping his material effectively; and to do this he must have an intelligent sense of proportion. He must be free from partisanship and had better refrain from prophecy. To crown all, he must have a certain charm of manner, a gift for easy and dignified expression, without which his work, however valuable for reference, is likely to be uninteresting, and may be dull. How far Mr. Foster has met these requirements can be judged more fairly when the remaining volumes of his 'Commentaries' shall have appeared. He unquestionably has considerable learning; he has labored industriously and accumulated a great store of facts. But he does not always wear his learning easily, as is shown, for example, by the unnecessary and wearisome length to which the quotations and abstracts from 'Elliot's Debates' are prolonged. Similarly, the appendix to chapter i., a fourteen-page account of Lilburne and the 'Agreement of the People,' is interesting, but its appropriateness may be questioned.

One does not expect a legal treatise to be easy reading; but Mr. Foster does not lessen the natural difficulty by writing in a style which is almost uniformly dry and hard, and not seldom inelegant and inaccurate as well. On page 11 we read that "even the power to regulate trade upon waters wholly within the United States was vested nowhere, unless in a bay or river entirely within a single State"; on page 324, that "the natural imitation of the practice in the mother country had made the colonial legislatures elected directly by the people." The readmission of Georgia after the civil war was delayed by "a hitch in the proceedings" (p. 255). Chapter xii. has for its title "The Presidency and Other Officers of the Senate." Occasionally the meaning is obscure, as when, among Constitutional guarantees of State rights, there is mentioned (p. 276) "the right to have representation in the House of Representatives otherwise apportioned in accordance with population, unless a State for any reason except crime denies the right of suffrage to any of its male inhabitants who are twenty-one years of age, and citizens of the United States, except for crime." We are told on page 301 that the blending of legislative and executive powers has "spread into all countries where civil liberty is enjoyed, except a few like Germany, . . . and perhaps two or three countries in Central and South America besides the United States, where the presidential form of government prevails." The most extraordinary example of loose writing that we have noted is the following sentence on page 160: "By the Missouri compromise in 1820, it had been provided that slavery should not be allowed in the territory acquired from France, north of the parallel 36° 30′, which, when extended to the Pacific, included all but a small fraction of what are now the States of Texas, New Mexico and Arizona, the Indian Territory, Oklahoma, and a large part of Southern California."

The arrangement of Mr. Foster's work leads him to make brief mention in the present volume of a number of topics whose fuller treatment is deferred; it will be better, therefore, to withhold judgment in regard to some general subjects until the later volumes shall have appeared. The most noticeable portions of the present volume are those devoted to discussions of the doctrine of nullification, the legality of secession, the constitutional history of the Confederate States, Reconstruction, direct taxes, and impeachment. Mr. Foster has no difficulty in demolishing the theory of nullification; but the force of his argument against the legality of secession is likely to be weakened a little, in the minds of some readers, by the attempted justification of Southern feeling on the subject (pp. 110-115). The section on the constitutional history of the Southern Confederacy, while by no means exhaustive, is a welcome addition to our rather scanty knowledge on that point. The discussion of impeachment, which fills nearly a third of the entire volume, is painstaking and thorough; in particular, the history of impeachments in the different States is here presented at length, collected, we believe, for the first time. We note two errors in this connection. On page 605 it is stated that "in Massachusetts, judges may be removed by the Governor and Council or the address of both houses of the Legislature." The passage should, of course, read "on the address," etc. In commenting (p. 637) on the absence of impeachments in Maine, it is said that "the annual election of the Governor and other State officers has made it easier to punish their misconduct by action at the polls." Maine no longer has annual elections, biennial elections having been substituted by the constitutional amendment adopted in 1879.

The dealings of Congress and the Federal Government with the Southern States during the period of Reconstruction are subjected to a searching examination. At Mr. Foster's hands the story becomes a gloomy tale of vacillation, intimidation, and fraud; but he tells it with plainness and directness, and with more than his usual force. In his opinion, "the validity of the acts of Congress" is "open to investigation," and, "in view of the language of the Constitution, the decisions of the courts on cognate questions, and the action of Congress in other respects towards the States which were the seat of the insurrection, it seems impossible to find any justification for them in law, precedent, or consistency. . . . The Reconstruction acts must consequently be condemned as unconstitutional, founded on force, not law, and so tyrannical as to imperil the liberty of the entire nation should they be recognized as binding precedents" (pp. 265-267). Even less praiseworthy is Mr. Foster's treatment of the income-tax law of 1894 and the action of the courts in reference thereto. He admits that, "now that the dust has not yet gathered upon the papers, it seems impossible for a commentator to discuss the question without bias" (pp. 422, 423); yet he yields much to prejudice, and plays the part of advocate rather than expositor, when he says (p. 421) that "the representatives of the new States in the West against whose action Gouverneur Morris had warned the other members of the Convention, combined with those of the South to oppress the States upon the North Atlantic coast"; as also, though in somewhat less degree, when he mentions (p. 423), as one "salutary effect" of the final decision, that "it has defeated an odious scheme of class-legislation. If upheld, it will be a safeguard to property from any spoliation under the guise of Federal taxation, give encouragement to a new doctrine of State rights that may be of other assistance in the future, and afford a check to waste of the national treasury. Upon the other hand it has raised an obstacle against the further reduction of an oppressive tariff. It has shorn the United States of a power that might be essential to their preservation in case of war. And it has given a blow to settled principles of constitutional construction which makes no decision of the past seem any longer secure." We hardly know whether or not the attempt (p. 422) to frame a definition of direct taxes is to be taken seriously: "In consequence of this decision the only definition of direct taxes that can be formulated with any assurance is as follows: Direct taxes are taxes on land, poll-taxes, and, as long as a majority of the Supreme Court are of the same mind, taxes on rents and general taxes upon personal property and incomes which are not confined to a special class, although with large classes of exemptions."

It remains to notice a few points on which we think there is likely to be dissent from Mr. Foster's statements. It is rather extreme to say (p. 631), in reference to impeachment, that "were the power absent, we should have no check to executive or judicial tyranny. The necessity for its existence and for caution in its exercise is one of the strongest arguments in favor of the perpetuation of the Senate." In opposition to Mr. Bryce, the author contends (p. 496, note 22) that respect for the Senate of the United States has not declined as much as has respect for the House and for State Legislatures; but thoughtful men will not be comforted by learning that he "attributes the decadence of all to the fact that of late years the country has been so fortunate as to have few political questions of sufficient gravity to withdraw the ablest minds from business enterprises and legal controversies." The statement on page 338, that "a large number of the States allow aliens to vote . . . as soon as they have declared their intention to become citizens, although they have not been naturalized," while strictly true, might better have taken account of the practice of those States which require a previous term of residence before extending the suffrage to aliens. Mr. Foster finds an illustration of the evils that result from restriction of the suffrage to a class "in the liquor and Sunday laws, with which the inhabitants of the country districts still oppress the poorer classes in New York city" (p. 348); we are not

surprised, therefore, to find him arguing (p. 350) virtually in favor of some kind of suffrage for foreigners. A slip of rather more serious character occurs on page 162, where the text states that "it was the contention of the North that the clause in the Constitution which gave Congress power to make all needful rules and regulations respecting the Territories or other property belonging to the United States, included absolute power to regulate their domestic institutions." As Mr. Foster must know, the Constitution speaks of "Territory," not of "Territories"; and not a little of the slavery discussion in Congress from 1850 onward turned on the meaning of the word "Territory" in this particular section. Had the Constitution said "Territories," it is possible that the after history of the United States might have been somewhat different from what it was.

The list of errata is large. Among obvious misprints, we note the omission of part of a word in a title at p. 181, note 66; "Darrell" instead of Harrell, author of 'The Brooks and Baxter War' (p. 258, notes 167 and 168); a life of Clay, by *Shurz* (p. 357, note 6); *Cohen v.* Virginia (p. 270, note 6); Pollock *v. Farmer's* Loan and Trust Co. (p. 270, note 8, p 276, notes 41 and 48, p. 419, note 19); United States *v. Rees* (p. 334, note 15); Elliot's *Debate's* (p. 359, note 12), also *Elliott's* (p. 599, note 40, p. 600, note 43); Mills *v.* Green, *reserved* (p. 329, note 27), instead of *reversed;* and on page 357 the repetition at the end of the paragraph of a sentence which occurs a few lines above. The reference to Hildreth's History at page 17, note 15, should be to vol. iii., p. 46; and McPherson's 'History of Reconstruction' (not of the Rebellion) is doubtless the work intended to be cited at page 328, note 16. Tyler's 'Letters and Times of the Tylers' is quoted as "Life and Times" (p. 172, note 27); Furber's 'Precedents relating to Privileges of the Senate' is changed (p. 496, note 23) to "Precedents of Privileges in the Senate"; and the title of Montesquieu's work appears (p. 512, note 25) as 'De l'Esprit des Lois.' The name of the Kansas State printer (p. 708, note 102) should be Baker, not *Bowker*. Throughout the volume the use of "ibid." is as often a hindrance as a help to the reader; in at least one case (p. 339, note 25) it is impossible to tell what authority is referred to.

Mr. Foster's work is dedicated to Chief Justice Fuller. We doubt if the Chief Justice will appreciate the compliment any more highly for having his name dragged into the text, as is the case on page 2. We are bound to think, also, that the references to the Supreme Court (p. 278), to the practice of law in New York (p. 559), and to the value of a well-known New York daily paper (p. 205, note 97), are inappropriate in a book of this character, and had better have been omitted.

THE SUDAN AFTER GORDON.

Fire and Sword in the Sudan: A Personal Narrative of Fighting and Serving the Dervishes. 1879–1895. By Rudolf C. Slatin Pasha, C.B. Translated by Major F. R. Wingate. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 1896. Pp. xix, 636. 8vo.

THIS is the story of an extraordinary career which in romantic incident can hardly be excelled even in fiction. Slatin's adventures began early, for while still a boy in his teens he made an extensive and dangerous journey in the eastern Sudan. At the close of the Bosnian campaign of 1878, in which he served as a lieutenant in the Austrian army, he returned to Africa at the invitation of Gen. Gordon, and was made Governor of western Darfur, and shortly after, at the age of twenty-five, Governor-General of the whole province. This post he held for nearly three years, during which he fought twenty-seven battles, and then he became the slave of an Arab who but the day before had been one of the meanest of his subjects. Eleven years he served this master, now in favor and running barefooted at his bridle-rein or sitting at his palace gate, now loaded with chains in prison, and subjected to every indignity and hardship. Then, a year ago, came the perilous flight across the desert, and to-day he is in Egypt, a pasha only forty years old, and destined perhaps again to be the ruler of these lost provinces. According to the latest accounts, he has joined the expedition for the reconquest of the Sudan.

He tells this strange story in a simple, modest way and with an apparent truthfulness which does not fail even when self-interest would prompt him to conceal the truth. His constant deception of his master and his pretended devotion to the Moslem religion are as faithfully pictured as are the Khalifa's treachery and rapacious cruelty. The value of the book, however, does not lie alone in the personal narrative, but in the fact that it is a history, as well, of the Egyptian Sudan west of the Nile from the rise of the Mahdi to the present time. Considering the multitude of details of individuals, tribes, and places, it is a remarkable account to have been written from memory, for during his captivity the author was unable to make any notes or keep any diaries.

The half-savage inhabitants of Darfur were already ripe for revolt, through the misrule and oppression of their Egyptian rulers, when Slatin became Governor of the province. All his energies, therefore, were devoted to attempts to systematize and purify the government, to remove and punish corrupt officials, and to put down incipient rebellions. The Austrian missionary, Father Ohrwalder, in his 'Ten Years' Captivity,' has described in the following passage the manner of man Slatin was and the life he led at this time:

"His powers of endurance were wonderful, and he would often be twenty four hours in the saddle, constantly fighting and with nothing to eat or drink. He slept on the bare floor or ground beside his native soldiers, and lived on dhurra soaked in water. He was just, never took bribes, generous, ever ready to assist the poor and needy, and never refused admittance to old and young who sought his help."

His devotion to his task was so entire that, on learning that he had lost the confidence of his soldiers because he was a Christian, he promptly turned Mohammedan. Had he been but a few years earlier, there can be little doubt that his rule would have been brilliantly successful, but the struggle against the Mahdi's fanatical hordes was hopeless from the outset. Tribe after tribe joined the rebels. His principal officers deserted him, and, at length, the annihilation of the Hicks Pasha expedition having destroyed the last hope of rescue, and, his ammunition being exhausted, in December, 1883, he surrendered.

The story of his captivity is a monotonous and gloomy record of suffering and misrule unenlivened by a single ray of light. The Mahdi, to whom he took an oath of allegiance, gave him to the Khalifa Abdullahi, in whose service he remained till his escape. During the siege of Khartum he was for a time the medium of communication with the garrison, but he saw nothing of the active operations. At early dawn on January 26, 1885, he was "startled by the deafening discharge of thousands of rifles and guns; this lasted for a few minutes, then only occasional rifle-shots were heard, and now all was quiet again." Knowing that an assault had been planned for that night, he waited in intense anxiety for news. At length he saw three blacks coming towards him, one of whom

"carried in his hands a bloody cloth in which something was wrapped up, and behind him followed a crowd of people weeping. The slaves had now approached my tent, and stood before me with insulting gestures; Shatta undid the cloth and showed me the head of Gen. Gordon! The blood rushed to my head and my heart seemed to stop beating; but, with a tremendous effort of self-control, I gazed silently at this ghastly spectacle. His blue eyes were half-opened; the mouth was perfectly natural; the hair of his head and his short whiskers were almost quite white. 'Is not this the head of your uncle the unbeliever?' said Shatta, holding the head up before me. 'What of it?' said I quietly. 'A brave soldier who fell at his post; happy is he to have fallen; his sufferings are over.'"

Slatin reports the Mahdi as expressing regret at Gordon's death, as he had intended to convert him and then exchange him for Arabi Pasha, in the hope that "the latter would have been of assistance to him in helping him to conquer Egypt."

A striking account is given of the circumstances connected with the death of the Mahdi, which took place soon after the fall of Khartum, and the accession of the Khalifa. This man, like many Orientals who have been suddenly raised from an obscure position to great power, has shown considerable capacity as a ruler. He is not hampered, however, by obligations which bind other men. He is above all law, even of that of the Koran, as all of his actions are held to be directly inspired of God. No regard for life or considerations of justice move him. His rivals and enemies have been destroyed, and he has surrounded himself with people whose interests are identical with his own. The Arab tribe to which he belongs has been brought from Darfur to the Nile, and has either driven out or enslaved the riverine inhabitants. His rule is one of pure terrorism and his acts are those of an ignorant savage. The whole Nile fleet, for instance, consisting of some 900 vessels, small and great, was declared one day to be the property of the Government, and thousands were deprived of their means of subsistence. The coinage has become so debased that "the present dollar is merely a heavy copper coin covered over with a thin layer of silver," but the merchants are compelled to accept it as good money, under penalty, if they refuse, of the "confiscation of their property, accompanied by flogging and imprisonment." Commerce, naturally, has dwindled to comparatively nothing, and the slave-trade, especially in women, alone thrives. This, together with war, famine, and disease, is fast depopulating the country. The statement is made that 75 per cent. of the whole population of the Sudan has perished since the advent of the Mahdi, "while of the remainder the majority are little better than slaves." Nor is there any hope that this desolating rule will come to an end except through the reconquest of the Sudan by Egypt. This will not be an easy task, for the religious fervor aroused by the Mahdi has not wholly subsided, and the Khalifa strives to keep it alive by every means in his power. Five times a day the faithful are called to prayers, and, in imitation of the Mahdi, he frequently harangues them from the pulpit of the mosque, though he has but little of the eloquence or intelligence which characterized his master. At all these services, Sla-

tin and all suspected men were compelled to be present and to kneel in the front rank of worshippers, an easy and sure way of keeping watch over them. There are now in Omdurman, the dervish capital, about 100 Christians, men and women, Greeks, Syrians, Copts, an Italian Sister, and a German.

In no part of his book does Slatin show to better advantage than in the story of his escape. It is told with great simplicity and without the slightest straining for effect, but the scenes and incidents of the flight are brought very vividly to the imagination. The long night rides; the hiding by day in the rocks exposed to the pitiless sun; the harassing delays while awaiting guides; the four-days' march bare-footed and leading the camel of his disabled guide, all are described with peculiar force. He escaped on the night of February 20, 1895, and reached Assuan on March 16. On his arrival in Cairo, the Khedive conferred upon him the title of pasha, and appointed him, with the rank of colonel, to the Intelligence Department.

Major Wingate has translated Slatin's narrative into excellent idiomatic English, the conversations being especially well done. There are some interesting and striking illustrations, a plan of Khartum and Omdurman, and a map showing the present extent of the Mahdist influence. The work is so bulky, however, as to discourage the ordinary reader, and many of the details in regard to obscure tribes are uninteresting. An abridged edition, which should contain only the personal narrative, is therefore very desirable.

A Wandering Scholar in the Levant. By David G. Hogarth, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, sometime Craven Fellow in the University of Oxford, F.S.A. With illustrations. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

"To be at once a Scholar and a Wanderer is to indulge the least congruous desires," so Mr. Hogarth tells us in his opening sentence; and a little later he writes: "If the Scholar wanders into inland Asia, he is fain to play the explorer first and the scholar second." We hear, most briefly, of the discovery of the skeleton of a dead city, the ancient Cilician pirate city Olba, of Roman camps and roads and milestones and boundary lines and ruins, of the finding of coins and seals and Hittite monuments, but no details are given; the interest lies in the discovery. Most characteristic of Turkish methods is the story of the discovery of a Hittite monument at the town of Bor in Asia Minor. Ramsay discovered it in 1882, but the owner would not sell. Finally, in 1890, she offered it to Mr. Hogarth for 500 liras, and he, being pressed for time and unable to bargain at great length, offered five for it, and finally on the second day secured it for twenty.

"We could not hope to carry off so well-known a treasure, under the very eyes of the local governor, unless prepared to pay as much in *backshish* as in purchase. . . . Making, therefore, an ostentatious virtue of necessity, we conveyed it ten miles to Nigdeh, and lodged it there in trust for his Majesty the Sultan. . . . Strolling that night in the dark over the crowded roof of the *khan*, I heard that certain Franks had tried to escape with a stone worth 10,000 liras, but had been arrested by the police and forced to disgorge! The officials themselves deprecated such wasteful generosity; and a Government Secretary approached us next day with a kind suggestion that, if our difficulty related to the conveyance of the stone to the coast, he could arrange that we should be robbed of it outside the town, and for a slight consideration recover it at the port."

Mr. Hogarth's story may be supplemented by the statement, from the Sultan's end, so to speak, that his unusual conduct in purchasing an antique monument from its owner and presenting it to the Ottoman Government instead of smuggling it out of the country rendered him *persona gratissima* at Constantinople. At the same time it strained the powers of the Ottoman Government to obtain possession of the stone, so firmly did the provincial governor hold on to it in the belief that it was of fabulous value, and the hope that he might himself have a share in the money which he supposed some one in Constantinople or on the coast was receiving for it. There is a sequel equally characteristic. It turned out that another fragment of the same monument existed in the hands of another owner. The latter offered it to Mr. Hogarth on condition that he would himself carry it away and not give it to the Government, and, when he refused, destroyed it rather than let the Government know of its existence, for fear of imprisonment and blackmail. Many valuable monuments of antiquity are destroyed in the same manner, because of the corrupt and oppressive way in which the law of antiquities is administered, at least in the provinces.

But the most interesting part of this little book is the description of land and people through the almost unknown parts of central Anatolia and along the upper Euphrates. Mr. Hogarth describes the Turk of this region as a "slow-moving, slow-thinking rustic, who limits his speech to three tenses out of the sixty-four in his language, and his interests to the price of barley. Aliens, Greek, Armenian, Circassian, thrust him on one side and take his little parcel of land by fraud or force—there is no real distinction in Anatolia. . . . In energy and intelligence he takes rank a grade below his dog, who shares his profound and not altogether causeless suspicion of strangers, but attacks more vivaciously and is reconciled more frankly." He adds, however: "One is bound to like him, if only for his courage, his simplicity, and his blind fidelity and his loyalty." The condition of the women among these Anatolian Turkish peasants is, according to his account, pitiable in the extreme; they are "mere chattels of the man, condemned to the hardest field-work and to walk while their lords ride." His ethnological observations on the origin of these Turks of Anatolia are worthy of remark. "Three parts," he says, "of the 'Turks' of Anatolia never came from Turkestan, but are children of aborigines, Carians, Galatians, Phrygians, what you will." The Turks of some regions he finds identical in type with the Armenians by and with whom they live, evidence of forced conversions in the older time such as are horrifying the world to-day. He identifies the true Turk by his inclination to wander, which displays itself, among the denizens of towns and cities, by "the practice of migrating to a *yaila* in summer." This, he says, "is the most infallible sign that a village of 'Turks' is not a village of converted aborigines."

In the old Seljukian regions, the Seljuks having been less fanatical than the Ottomans, Mr. Hogarth found more and more ancient Christian settlements. One curious Greek community he visited on an island in the Lake of Egerdir. There is "a remnant of fifty Christian families with two priests. Service is held only on the great festivals, and then in Turkish, because neither priest nor people understand any other language." "The priests told us that the families became fewer every year; the fathers could teach their children nothing about their ancestral faith, for they knew nothing themselves; the Moslems were 'eating them up.' We had to force the church door, and brush dust and mould from a vellum service-book dated 1492." Both Turks and Christians are dying out in Anatolia, according to Mr. Hogarth. The country is fertile and rich in natural resources, and the climate is salubrious, but the Government is execrable, and constantly growing worse. The hope of the future is colonization from Europe. Not that Mr. Hogarth is hostile to the Turk, however. He is decidedly friendly to him, in the usual manner of the English Tory, and deprecates Exeter Hall agitation against Turkish atrocities. Mr. Hogarth travelled up the Euphrates on his last trip in 1894, shortly before the massacre of Sassun, passing on the way the unsubdued Kurdish strongholds of the Dersim. He did not observe a reign of terror among the Armenians at that time, although there was "repression." What is ordinarily called the "Armenian question" is to him the "Kurdish question."

The last two chapters of this little book of 206 pages are devoted to Egypt and Cyprus. The whole book from beginning to end is readable, entertaining, and instructive. There are a fair map and a baker's dozen of illustrations, mostly half-tones from photographs. The volume is dedicated to Prof. Ramsay, under whose training, one would judge, Mr. Hogarth became "a wandering scholar in the Levant."

The Life of Thomas Hutchinson, Royal Governor of the Province of Massachusetts Bay. By James K. Hosmer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 453.

In this volume Prof. Hosmer has performed a public service, inasmuch as he has turned away from recording the triumphs of a political "boss" like Samuel Adams, to do justice to a greater but unsuccessful public servant. Whoever reads the history of Massachusetts knows that the intelligence, the learning, the public and private virtues, were not monopolized by the side which won in the Revolution. In fact, as may happen in any such contest, the losing side contained by far the greater proportion of conscientious men who risked everything for a principle without a prospect of gain by victory. The loyalists of Massachusetts were not a faction overthrown for its own misdeeds, a dethroned oligarchy, but they were the quiet, substantial, conservative men, who were conscious of small restraints imposed by England on the colony and of great benefits received from her protection. Luckily, the Refugees were not men of action, and probably not one of the melancholy passengers in the fleet which left Boston for Halifax had a drop of blood upon his conscience. Hence, the Tories have been despised or pitied, but mainly forgotten, by the present generation. Of this party, Gov. Thomas Hutchinson was not only the leader but the most perfect example, and it was a wise, kindly, and patriotic task which Prof. Hosmer has brought to a satisfactory end.

As we have on various occasions discussed the life and character of Hutchinson, we shall attempt no summary at this time. The reader of this book will find a thorough narrative, written with the skill of a practised historian, master of his subject, pleased with his theme, and sympathetic in his treatment. It is not a eulogy, but a tribute paid to an honorable antagonist. As a type of the best class of New Englander at that period, Hutchinson challenges a sincere if languid admiration. As a

citizen, a public servant, even as a crown official, he is worthy of respect, and we must regret that his native country could not retain his services. If we may venture on the comparison, fortunately not carried to so painful an ending, Hutchinson stood at a crisis where the Bell-Everett party stood in 1860, or where many, less known, at the South, stood. The very virtues of one year may seem vices the next, when the rush of events carries us far from the old landmarks into the unknown currents of the future.

Mr. Hosmer has given, on p. 308, an admirable résumé, from which we quote. After saying that Hutchinson hoped and argued for a compromise of the views of the Government and the colonists, he adds:

"These things being gained, the glorious empire of England might remain undivided, mother and daughter remaining in peace together, an affectionate headship dwelling in the one, a filial and loving concession of precedence in the other. To attain such a consummation seemed to the Governor a thing worth suffering and striving for. To bring this about, as shown by all his acts and all his words, he contended year after year, sacrificing to his aim his reputation, his fortune—at last, hardest of all, his citizenship—dying in exile, of a broken heart."

Certainly every one who wishes to obtain a true view of the beginnings of our nation will read this biography, and will learn from it that an honest devotion to principle is an honorable legacy to posterity. It by no means follows that we belittle the principles or the actions of our favorite heroes if we allow that what they did was revolutionary, and that the word implies the creation of a new standard of right and wrong. No admirer of Hutchinson will deny that the world was the gainer by his defeat, nor that our patriots discovered and utilized a new force. Looking back, we see that the revolutions of Cromwell, of William the Third, even the bloody French Revolution, were immense steps in the progress of mankind. But we cannot blind ourselves to their attendant cruelties, nor refrain from a sigh over the Cavaliers, the Jacobites, and the old noblesse. Our Tories are the corresponding examples in American history, and are at least as deserving of a little sympathy. It is to our national credit that not only was the separation effected with a minimum of personal injury, but that the conquerors are at last willing to concede the undeniable merits of their opponents.

Vacation Rambles. By Thomas Hughes, Q.C. ("Vacuus Viator"), Author of 'Tom Brown's School Days.' Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THESE letters cover a period of more than thirty years' duration. They are bright, cheery, full of animal spirits. The writer is observant, easily pleased, and can communicate to us the pleasures he himself enjoys. But time leaves nothing long the same, and its tooth is very sharp on letters of former generations unless they chance to deal with circumstances and events of special interest or to be written in a fascinating manner. There remains chiefly an element of interest in the comparison of things past and present, and in noting to what extent the writer's prophecies and anticipations have been justified by events.

The first series of letters take us to Constantinople and Athens by way of the Tyrol and the Danube and back to England by another route. Mr. Hughes's impressions in Constantinople were extremely favorable to the Turks, but even Freeman would have allowed all he claims for the Turk's personal morals, and still have maintained that his official character is "unspeakable." That, too, has its variations, and Mr. Hughes's Sultan and Vizier are now turned to dust. Some of the pictures of the French coast in this section are most agreeable and entertaining. The next section following is made up of home letters written from America in 1870, all the others having been written to the *Spectator*. These home letters are more free and easy than the others, and they have the attraction which always inheres in books and letters that enable us to see ourselves as other see us. Mr. Hughes was as much impressed as Matthew Arnold with the kindness showered upon him, and describes himself as "a spoilt child," and very naturally, because in 1870 the recollection of his services to America in the civil war was still fresh. These letters are extremely personal, and the substitution of initials and dashes for the full names of people is the thinnest possible disguise. A good many readers will be much pleased with the fine things said about them, and few will be grieved by the injurious comments. Col. Higginson's share in this feast is mixed of fat and lean, whatever the exact meaning Mr. Hughes intended to convey: "He was very fascinating to my mind and the most refined man in manners and look I have yet met, but I should say decidedly a cracked fellow in the good sense." There is about the usual number of misspellings of American proper names that we find in English books. Field for Fields, Hoare for Hoar, and even "Jef Davies" for "Jeff Davis" in the John Brown song. Naushon Island, where Mr. Hughes enjoyed with uncommon zest his hospitable reception and the company assembled, is disguised as "Nashont." His comparative impressions of Philadelphia were as flattering as Arnold's. He is less critical than Arnold of our eating and drinking, and does not express the English preference for tepid over cold water on the table, if any such is his.

A very different kind of interest from that attaching to this series of letters belongs to the series "America—1880 to 1887." These are concerned mainly with the Rugby settlement in Tennessee, and are very graphic in their accounts of life and scenery in the Cumberland Mountains. Mr. Hughes's story of a placard over the piano at a favorite resort of Texas cowboys is a variant of a more piquant form—the scene, a Western church; the placard, "Don't shoot the organist," etc. Still another series is exceedingly diversified, with the emphasis on the coast towns of England and France. One of the longest letters here deals with Lourdes, describing the place pretty carefully, and treating the miracle-working of the spring described by Zola as "a soup of microbes" with as much sympathy as any Roman Catholic could desire. Nothing is more becoming to Mr. Hughes in this volume than his way of leaving off. He reserves for his last chapter his address in Boston, October 11, 1870, "John to Jonathan," as clear a statement of the relations of England to our civil war as we have ever seen. It is quite as good reading now as then. In another letter Mr. Hughes says of England: "I believe that on the whole there is not, nor ever was, a nation that kept a more active conscience, or tried more honestly to do the right thing according to its lights." This is particularly interesting at the present time as the opinion of as good a friend as America has ever had on English soil, who did more for us in the day of our distress than some of our inverted Anglomaniacs could ever do if they should do their best—and whose death has just been announced.

Iranisches Namenbuch. Von Ferdinand Justi. Gedruckt mit Unterstützung der Königlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften. Marburg: N. G. Elwert'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1895.

IN this book of 526 quarto pages, arranged in double columns, Prof. Justi has treated 4,490 Iranian proper names borne by 9,450 persons. Considering that each name and person is placed by references (sometimes by several), an idea may be formed of the amount of labor which the book has cost. The interesting Introduction discusses the origin of names, and also classifies them. Prof. Justi finds that they are derived for the most part from literature, being original only in a subordinate sense. As to the earliest of Iranian proper names, they lingered as the echoes of the 'Zend Avesta' long after their meaning as words had disappeared; but, after the Conquest, Arabian names ran both the Zoroastrian and the Persian ones hard. So, later New-Persian names, many of them, were the result of the great epic poem of the 'Shah Nameh.' The same thing has happened elsewhere in mediæval and even modern times. Since 1566 and 1614, Romish saints have supplanted older heroes in Germany, and in Italy the Knights of the Round Table found many namesakes. So in England, under Cromwell (Justi recalls Barebones with his compound "Christian" name), the Old Testament poured out its quaint titles, and within this last half-century Tennyson has been largely responsible for the readoption of beautiful Old English words, while Wagner's operas have given us Elsas and the like.

We may mention, in passing, one curious device which is reported at least in poetry; it could, however, hardly be so extended as to be called a custom, says Firdusi. Prince Feridun (Avestic Thraetaona) kept his young children nameless. First he waited till their characters had developed, and then he thought they might be safer unchristened. An unnamed princeling avoids "insult" and "tattle." No one could "call" after a child without a name, and no one could malign it. The same principle is partly apparent in "throne-names," which often displaced originals. We know more, for instance, of Ochus and Codomannus than we do of either Darius the First or Darius the Second. The same practice had appeared in Egypt and Assyria.

To collect historical and mythical names from Iranian lore was imperative upon some one, but few are aware that in the proper names of human beings we have often preserved to us our only trace of words that have otherwise vanished, as of gods which are little remembered. As to the latter, we know only of an original polytheism among the ancestors of Israel from their first (?) name for God, which is the plural Elohim; and who would remember how lately the moon was worshipped if it were not for Monday, or that Tiv exists in Tuesday, Woden in Wednesday, etc.? As to lost words, or word-roots, we have, in Ariabigna, "The Glory of the Aryans," and in Baga-bigna, "The Glory of God," the sole signs of the root *bhaigv* in Iranian. Sabiktas, "Blessed with Glory," and Dibiktas (?) show the participle of the past. In Frata-karâ, "The Maker of Fire," the oldest name of the Kings of Persia, we have again a past participle, this time of an Iranian *fra;* so in Fratagune, "Color of Fire," and Frataphernes, "Fire's Glory." In Codomannus we have an Iranian *mannus*=man, etc. Another feature in the character of names is the clear evidence which they afford as to national traits actually present or once existing in forgotten ancestors.

Take even the "horse-names" of Iran, they point beyond a question to the well-accredited opinion that Persia, whose cavalry was the terror of the Romans, was the cradle of horse-culture. Even a king could bear the personal or family name of Vishtasp, "Horse-owner." Pourushaspa (Zarathushtra's father) meant "Many Horses"; Aurvadaspa was "Fleet Horses" (cp. also early English Hengist and Horsa). So Ushtra shows camel-breeding; Frashaoshtra meant "Quick Camels"; Zarathushtra, "Sorrel Camels." Again, of arms: Berezyarshti was "High Lances"; Frayadratha, "Swift Chariot"; Skârayadratha, "Leaping Chariots"; Zairivairi, "Yellow Armor" (polished bronze), Bastavairi, "Woven Mail," and Yukhtavairi, "Jointed Armor"; Azad-feroz, "Born for Victory" (or Prince of Victory); Harpates, "the All-shielder," and Satrabates, "Shield of Empire."

Coming to religious and moral conceptions, we have only to follow the list of the Ameshaspends of the Gâthās to trace an interesting development. The name of God himself was used quite simply as a proper name. Ormizd is Ahura Mazda spoken as one; and in the inscriptions of Persepolis and Murghâb we see the actual process of this change; Aura and Mazda occur once (and once only), each separately inflected; everywhere else the names form one word inflected at the end. Ormizd is shown by Justi to have been used as a name by persons known in history no less than forty-seven times; it survives even in modern use. Is not this singularly exceptional if not unique? We have plenty of names with "God" in them, but here is "God" without relief. It was and is used in profoundest reverence. In compounds we have it, as in Ohramazd dat, "God's Creature," and Ormizdukht, "God-daughter," etc , more in the common line. Then Bahman is Vohu-manah, the "Good Mind," God's first or second attribute; Justi gives us twenty-two instances of the word in history as a proper name. In compounds we have Bahman-dukht, "The Good Mind's Daughter," and Bahmanyar, "The Good Mind's Friend," etc.

The next and not less prominent divine attribute is the Holy Order of the Law. This appears in Astvad-ereta, "The Embodied Righteousness," Ukhshyad-ereta, "Increasing Righteousness," Artavardiya, "Strong through Righteousness." Khshathra, "the kingly power," which was the third attribute, appears in Khshayārsha, which is Xerxes, "The Right Ruling," but more literally in Arta-Khshathra, which is Artaxerxes, "King of Righteousness." (Ardashîr is the same word in a later form.) Spenta Aramaiti, "Holy Zeal," the fourth Ameshaspend, occurs in Ispandarmad, while Ameretatât, Immortality, the fifth, comes out in Vardanoyis, "Increasing the Deathless," and Sahakanus, "Immortal Friend." A final optimism is familiar in the Avestic Haurvatât (Sanskrit Sarvatāti), which is "Universal Weal"; it becomes Khurdâd in the proper name. Azad-bakht, "Born for Fortune" (or "Prince of Fortune"), and Shîguftehbakht, "Wonderful Fortune," are hopeful in the selfsame key. In the matter of specific religious expression, ritual, the sacramental fire is a striking feature, and the name Anoshadar, "Unquenched Fire," may show at once the interesting belief that the altar-flame brought down from Heaven to Zoroaster has never failed. This belief still lingers; and Oharamazd-ature, "Fire of Ahura," shows that the element was sacrosanct indeed; while Artasher Atashe, "Holy Fire King," shows "Church and State" (the King as a priest). Buland-Akhtar, "Lofty Star," and Farkhundeh-akhtar, "Luck-Bringing Star," attest astrology. Mihradar, "Fire of Mithra," recalls the post-gâthic sun-god.

Following upon this extensive collection of proper names come tables of descent (pp. 390-479), the most important mythical dynasties being treated as well as the historical. The iconography of the book is indexed in two pages, containing 296 names of kings, satraps, pretenders, officials, warriors, magicians, persons indefinable, and women, whose portraits appear on stones or in statues. In pages 484-520 we have a valuable analysis of etymologies, and pages 521–526 treat of the affixes. Immense labor has been saved in this work to all who wish to have their citations sound and serious. Several languages have been examined in the course of the formidable undertaking, and the result does honor to the Academy of Sciences, whose liberal subvention has placed the book within our reach.

The Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain. By S. H. Jeyes. [Public Men of To day.] Frederick Warne & Co.

Mr. Jeyes's volume is a brief account of the public career of Mr. Chamberlain seen by a friendly eye. His hero, a man sixty years of age, has already played many parts, and played them all skilfully. A Radical, a Socialist, a Liberal, a Home-Ruler, a Dissentient Liberal, a Liberal Unionist, and finally a Conservative, he has boxed the compass of opinion, and yet has maintained a steadily growing prestige, so that his hold on power seems with time to be increasing. As man of business, administrator, orator, and diplomat he has been equally successful. He has won his success, too, at times in the teeth of violent opposition. He has been dreaded as a "Red," denounced as a traitor, laughed at as a would-be courtier; but, through all, his weight and influence in public affairs have steadily grown, until he is to day one of the half-dozen foremost men in England. Mr. Jeyes's volume gives a brief and readable account of his career; but evidently the time has not yet come for a full explanation of it. Possibly there is no mystery; perhaps Mr. Chamberlain is nothing more nor less than appears on the surface—a versatile man of business, with the knack of foreseeing the drift of public opinion that marks the great opportunist.

His biographer thinks that the one dominating object of his life is "his desire to improve the daily lot of the poor, and to use legislation for the purpose of helping and protecting those who cannot help or protect themselves"; but the only proof of this is that he began life as a radical with all sorts of schemes for remedying the ills of life, which have been gradually more and more relegated to the background. When people talk about Socialism in England, they continually overlook the fact that many things elsewhere looked upon as natural functions of government, and in this country taken as a matter of course, were not long since in England regarded as doubtful novelties. Mr. Chamberlain, who is never slow to take advantage of any opening afforded him by his opponents, recognizes the opportunity for confusion in a word capable of such various definitions, and boldly declares that he is a Socialist because "the poor-law is Socialism; the education act is Socialism; the greater part of municipal work is Socialism; and every kindly act of legislation by which the community has sought to discharge its responsibilities and its obligations to the poor, is Socialism." This is quite a mistake. We support criminals in prison, but no one calls it Socialism. Most cities in the United States have a municipal water supply, but nobody ever regarded the Croton water-works as having socialistic tendencies. Public schools are based on the necessity of diffusing knowledge among those who are to be citizens. Socialism means something very different from advancing a confessedly public object by taxation. It implies some attack on those customs and institutions on which our civilization rests—liberty, property, contract, and marriage. Does Mr. Chamberlain wish to subvert any of these? His question, "What *ransom* will property pay for the security it enjoys?" was distinctly socialistic; ransom paid by property for security is nothing more nor less than blackmail, to which there is no other limit than the pleasure of the person who fixes the sum demanded. If Mr. Chamberlain's opinions of to day were those which he seemed to represent in putting this question, he would be one of the most dangerous public men alive. But are they the same? This volume seems to make it highly improbable that they are.

The Growth of the Brain: A Study of the Nervous System in Relation to Education. By Henry Herbert Donaldson, Professor of Neurology in the University of Chicago. [The Contemporary Science Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895. 8vo, pp. 374.

Within very moderate compass is here presented much important and interesting information from many sources as to the structure, development, and functions of the brain. There are seventy-seven illustrations, original or from standard works. The most notable feature of the volume is the number of tables embodying statistics respecting the weight, number, and condition of the brain and its visible or microscopic constituents at various ages and under different circumstances. The following topics are discussed with more or less fulness: the growth of the nervous system compared with that of the body; the interpretation of brain weight in terms of cell structure; the early limitation of the number of nerve-cells; the peculiar relation in this system between increase in size and in organization; the large though variable number of cells which have but slight importance in the final structure; the dominance of nutritive conditions; the wide diffusion of nerve impulses; the incompleteness of repose; the reflex nature of all responses; the native character of mental powers; and the comparative insignificance of formal education.

These are serious matters, and Dr. Donaldson's systematic and thoughtful consideration of them is worthy of attention even when some of his views may not commend themselves to us. The following are a few of the passages worthy to be quoted:

"The aim at the moment, then, is to determine what limitations anatomy places to the educational powers, and thus to obtain a rational basis from which to attack many of the pedagogical problems" (p. 342).

"On neurological grounds, therefore, nurture is to be considered of much less importance than nature, and in that sense the capacities that we most admire in persons worthy of remark are certainly inborn rather than made" (p. 344).

"The demonstration here of the loss of energy in learning what needs only to be unlearned is very striking, and if one experience produces such an effect, it is not difficult to understand how habits early formed and long cultivated become so difficult of eradication" (p. 347).

"Knowledge comes, for the hindrances to knowledge are in a large measure from without; but wisdom, as heretofore, continues to linger,

and still to occupy its place as the rare performance of a balanced brain" (p. 365).

Professor Donaldson hopes that his work may be useful to parents, teachers, and physicians, and that, "as a result of their demands, there may be supplied an account far more extensive and luminous than his own." At present it is to be feared that any failure upon the part of many educated people to profit by the information he offers, must be ascribed less to any want of desirable clearness and completeness in this work than to the non-existence of an adequate basis of facts, names, and ideas in their own minds. If Prof. W. W. Goodwin was even approximately correct in declaring in these columns that "whatever study is to be pursued with effect must have its foundations laid before the age of fifteen," then it is not enough that (as in at least one large American university) all undergraduates outside the technical courses supplement the instruction upon the brain by actual dissection of the organ; work of this sort, even more thorough, must constitute an absolute prerequisite for admission to college.

Dr. Donaldson uses few technical terms, and the proportion of mononyms is notably large. On the other hand, since *brain* is a component of the title and distinctly preferred in the index, it is not easy to account for the frequency of the ponderous *encephalon*, especially in the plural. Why, also, the indiscriminate employment of *fissure* and *sulcus*, *gyrus* and *convolution*? Due recognition is given the achievements of Dana, Hodge, Lombard, and other American neurologists. The author's own valuable observations upon the brain of the blind deaf-mute Laura Bridgman might well have occupied more space. The index is not full enough, and a summary of each chapter would have been acceptable.

The Worship of the Romans Viewed in Relation to the Roman Temperament. By Frank Granger, D.Litt. London: Methuen & Co. 1895.

THE object of this book is, as Dr. Granger puts it, "to interpret some of those thoughts which lay nearer to the average Roman mind than the Greek elements in its [*sic*] literature." By these "thoughts" he means a set of beliefs or practices which were closely bound up with the religion of the Romans as we find it, and he wishes "to point out the manner in which they are related to each other, and to justify them as a necessary factor in the awakening of the religious sentiment." After an introductory chapter which is entitled "The Roman Spirit," but which turns out to be rather of the nature of a homily to the English on the subject how best to govern India, we are hurried, without any transition whatever, from Calcutta to the first of this group of beliefs—namely, that in dreams and apparitions. Hence we pass to the "Soul and its Companions" (a title suggestive of 'Sintram,' but we find no dread Little Master here, only the *genius*, deified ancestors and other spirits); next, to "The World Around," by which is meant the supernatural world. Then follow accounts of Nature- (including of course Tree-) Worship, Primitive Thought, Roman Magic, Divination and Prophecy, Holy Places; and the book closes with chapters on the Divine Victim and the Sacred Drama. It will be evident to the elect that we have here an attempt to bring together into a small volume (of not much more than 300 pages) what may be called the folk-lore of religion, a subject which has of late years received learned consideration in many German works, and in English by scholars like Fraser, Baring-Gould, Lang, and others.

Not much that is new to students of comparative religion will be found in the book. It is in general a mere account of the said beliefs (Dr. Granger is *not*, by the way, possessed by a corn-demon, for which we are grateful), strung together in a pleasantly discursive style—perhaps too discursive for some scholars, while we fear that the author's habit of taking much for granted may frighten off the uninstructed. He has a way of beginning a story, drifting off (Herodotus-like) into something else, too often into sermons of the sort indicated above, and then coming back to the main thread only to drop it (*not* like Herodotus) as being too trite for further handling. And yet, as we have just said, his style is pleasant, and the topics which he has chosen to treat have always been attractive to men. To this day all are fascinated by the supernatural and the unknown.

The Roman lived in a world peopled, as he fancied, with spirits—his *genius*, the wraiths of the dead, whether showing themselves as ghosts by night or as noonday demons in the light—and rendered fearful by the terrors of the evil eye in man or by the prodigies and portents of the gods. But in one point, at least, he had the advantage of us. His was an age when, no matter what the torturing doubt, there was always somebody at hand who knew how the thing really was and what must be done to solve the doubt or to avert the danger. Sound and withal amusing is Dr. Granger on the great principle of primitive philosophy, that each occurrence has one cause, and but one only. We may perhaps put it in this fashion: You have a mysterious ailment and don't know what the reason is; you are worried by a recurring dream; you have seen a ghost or the "astral body" of a living friend; Pan has met you in the woods. You, the modern, are helpless because you don't believe that there is anybody who knows what it all really means. But the Roman had somebody—or thought he had, which, after all, is having. He went to his medicine man of the appropriate variety and was by him made whole. Something had been left undone, or something done which ought not to have been done—it was always *one* thing (a great comfort!), easy to understand and simple (though sometimes expensive) to expiate. The finding out what this thing was, and the doing of it on the one hand, or paying the price of the past action on the other, formed the main business of the Roman religion.

Dr. Granger, in his last chapter, may have been upon the track of this great truth; but, having mentioned the hymns which were sung at festivals, and having committed himself to the somewhat surprising statement that Horace was one of the first Romans to write poetry for such occasions, he is naturally led away to descant upon the lyrics of the Augustan bard, and all of a sudden the book ends, in delightfully consistent fashion, with the suggestion that children of succeeding generations may have often sung these lyrics in their walks along the country lanes. No, not even here ends; for it is added that they were perhaps "set to plain and strenuous music like that of the Delphic hymn." Delphic indeed, and Delphic the utterance! Still, we love it, for "we too were born in Arcadia."

But it would be unfair to have treated this book altogether in a sprightly—we hope not in a too flippant—vein. It has in it much that is useful to know as well as interesting to read. And among other valuable suggestions of Dr. Granger's, he is to be congratulated upon his idea that the masks of ancestors, the *imagines*, were a survival of an original practice of preserving the actual heads of the deceased. He cites as a parallel the preservation of the skulls of the dead, each in its own wooden case, in a certain church in Brittany. It seems strange that he should not also have recalled the very similar cu tom of the Issedones described by Herodotus (iv. 26). The publishers, too, deserve thanks for the clear black ink upon its good white surface, and above all for the light body of the paper used, which makes the book a joy and not a burden to hold. But the index is wholly inadequate.

Mind and Motion, and *Monism*. By the late George John Romanes. Longmans. 1895. Pp. 170.

WHEN Mr. Romanes began this book entitled 'Monism' (to which a lecture on 'Mind and Motion' is prefixed) by saying that it is established to the satisfaction of every physiologist that there is an absolutely exact correspondence between every mental fact and some concomitant fact of the brain, he exaggerated. There are physiologists enough who regard the correspondence, whether absolutely exact or not, as limited to feeling and sensation corresponding to excitation of nerve-cells, and to volition corresponding to nervous discharges, while maintaining that there are in the mind general ideas which correspond only to potentialities in the brain, not to any actual facts. However, having put out of court all who do not pin their faith to the invariability and exactitude of the correspondence between mental and material events, Mr. Romanes proceeded at once to divide believers in that proposition into Spiritualists, Materialists, and Monists, thus furnishing the last word with one signification the more. Monism originally meant the doctrine that mental phenomena and material phenomena have one substratum; and monism was said to have three forms, Idealism, or the doctrine that material phenomena are but a species of ideas; Materialism, or the doctrine that mental phenomena are merely a special variety of those facts which lie at the bottom of material phenomena; and Neutral Monism, which was described as the doctrine that material phenomena and mental phenomena are equally universal, and merely different aspects of any facts. The monism of Mr. Romanes seems to be a variety either of materialism or of this neutral monism; for he says, in the introductory essay, that mind and motion are substantially identical. Thus, of the three elements which compose the physical universe, to wit, matter (or inertia and identity), motion, and energy, he holds that one is coextensive with mind. In the old triad, he has displaced Idealism to make way for Spiritualism, which was always held, and which he himself held, to be a dualistic and, therefore, not a monistic doctrine, though as monistic he classes it. But he does not mean spiritualism in general; for of spiritualists and others who do not accept his first axiom of the absolute perfection of the correspondence between mental and cerebral events, he takes no notice whatsoever. Upon this point he is explicit (p. 42).

What Mr. Romanes wishes to prove is, that the hypothesis that all material motion has a feeling, and *vice versa*, besides accounting for sufficient facts to render it reasonable, leads to the proposition that all "causality" (could not this antiquated notion have been replaced by something more scientific?) is, on its inside, volition, and gives room for, as he at first says,

but subsequently (for he never gave the work the revision necessary to make its doctrine quite consistent) that it "sanctions" and almost necessitates, the assumption of a universal mind of the world (which he calls Theism), and, finally, that it reinstates the freedom of the will, and, with that, moral responsibility. Many readers will seem to see in the book the phenomenon of a man setting out from materialistic assumptions, but led, under the influence of a broad study of nature, toward idealistic conclusions, and going, at last, so far as to say that the ultimate reality is "either mental or something greater." Others will say, with some justice, that it is the work of an invalid, so weak that pages are occupied with reasonings and logical diagrams to show that a universal affirmative proposition cannot be converted *simpliciter*, and with another diagram altogether worthy of Dr. Fludd (except that it is a rough woodcut, instead of a beautiful copper-plate), and full of the most puerile propositions. The style, however, is as strong and clear as anything Romanes ever wrote, if not more so. That, if he had recovered from his illness, he would, by this time, have been advocating an idealistic theory of the evolution of all things, including the laws of causation, there is hardly room to doubt. Such is the theory that the great advocate of Darwinian ideas would inevitably have adopted as the fittest survivor in the struggle of theories.

Professor Koch on the Bacteriological Diagnosis of Cholera, Water-Filtration, and Cholera, and the Cholera in Germany during the Winter of 1892–93. Translated by George Duncan, M.A., with Prefatory Note by W. T. Gairdner, M.D., LL.D., F.R.S. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: William R. Jenkins. 1895.

NOTWITHSTANDING the disappointment that the scientific world and the general public experienced in the failure of his promises for the relief of consumption by inoculation, Prof. Koch remains a great authority on all bacteriological subjects connected with the recognition and prevention of disease. The three essays of the title-page of this book give collectively his personal views on the spread and the restraint of that pestilence through which, by the discovery of the comma bacillus, he first acquired fame. The control of epidemics, like the management of any condition affecting large areas or many people, requires popular coöperation; and it is by the absorption of such teachings that the popular mind is prepared to assist in the work. Koch believes that the comma (or cholera) bacillus is the efficient cause of that disease. A few deny it that power, but nearly all recognize in its presence a clear indication of the epidemic variety, which, under certain aspects, cannot be distinguished clinically from cholera morbus or cholera infantum. At least to believe that it is pathognomonic is to be on the safe side.

It has long been recognized by epidemiologists that the study of any outbreak means the detection of the first case, either at or after its occurrence. But the recognition of undeveloped cholera is a clinical impossibility, although such undeveloped cases furnish the sparks that light the greater flame of general infection. It is here that the bacteriologist is at his best. When the tornado strikes the ship, every sailor realizes it. It is the master's province to foretell the storm while the disturbance is yet recognizable only by his barometer. Koch expresses the true principle of all this work when he says: "The proper field of bacteriological work, however, is the beginning and the end of an epidemic, when all depends on the correct judging of each individual case and the swiftest possible prevention of danger to the neighborhood." Almost every cholera epidemic is like an extremely flattened ellipse whose vertices are the first and the last cases. Upon determining just where the lines that enclose the disease begin and cease may depend the safety of the immediate and of the proximate communities. Bacteriology will do this; and the moral for us is to have enough skilled bacteriologists and equipped laboratories to render an intelligent and immediate verdict. Early measures of control may thus be instituted without waiting for the epidemic to become epidemic in the one instance, and the unsuspected case, held as a precaution, may be restrained from ignorantly spreading the disease in the other. For it is well established now that a person may appear and may feel perfectly well, and yet be an actual disseminator of cholera germs. Certain and immediate recognition of the disease can be made in about 50 per cent. of the cases, when the excreta are examined by competent observers; and in every instance it can be determined in from six to ten hours by means of the peptone (supplemented by the gelatine) plate-cultivation. In relation to detecting the cause *en route* when water-borne, there is no pretence that cholera-infected streams will always yield bacteria to the investigator. The probable explanation of this is not that there are no bacteria in the water, but that their distribution has excluded them from the particular specimen examined.

The essays on water filtration and on cholera in the winter of '92–'93 are excellent examples of clear description and logical reasoning. An underlying motive running through the whole book is antagonism toward, or defence against, the attacks of the Pettenkofer or Munich school, which teaches a theory of localism with special reference to groundwater and little regard to bacteria. The controversy is not always in good taste, and there is an expenditure of energy that appears more personal than scientific in motive. Nevertheless the book is a good contribution to the literature of public health, which those charged with its care as engineers and civil officers, as well as physicians, may well consult, and the translation is in idiomatic and most readable English.

A Japanese Marriage. By Douglas Sladen. London: Black; New York: Macmillan. Pp. 401.

MR. DOUGLAS SLADEN'S 'Japanese Marriage' would not need to be spoken of had not this writer, by a certain straightforwardness and naturalness of style, gained an attention not usually given to books which exhibit such full measure of ignorance and coarseness, not to add effrontery. There was no need of resorting to what the world knows as fiction, for his former books and articles on Japan illustrated to a sufficient extent the writer's power of producing pure and silly inventions. In this volume, as usual, the Japanese is invariably a "Jap" (no other respectable writer on Japan ever repaid the country's hospitality by this impertinence), and the foreigner is incapable of speaking except in copious slang; but we have also such passages as the following (p. 166), which the former volumes have hardly equalled:

"Bryn's newly formed passion for Philip [she is his wife's sister, and lives in their household]—if one may use the word where the question of sexual feeling did not enter—would have carried her through a much more severe trial. She thought the grandest sight she had ever seen in her life was Philip, unarmed, and in his night-clothes, first hurling one sworded assailant over the banisters . . . and then tearing the life out of the other's throat. . . . There was no more taint of jealousy than there was of sexualism in her passion for Philip. She did not desire his caresses, though they gave her a dog's pleasure."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. A Fight with Fate. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Armstrong, E. Lorenzo de' Medici, and Florence in the Fifteenth Century. Putnams. $1.50.
Berringer, Mrs. Oscar. The New Virtue. Edward Arnold. $1.
Björnson, B. A Happy Boy. Macmillan. $1.25.
Blackwell, Alice S. Armenian Poems, Rendered into English Verse. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Vol. VII. Population Classified by Trades. Macmillan. $3.
Crockett, S. R. Cleg Kelly, Arab of the City. Appletons. $1.50.
Curtis, H. H. Voice-Building and Tone-Placing. Appletons. $2.
Del Mar, Alexander. The Science of Money. 2d ed., revised. Macmillan. $2.25.
Durège, Prof. H. Elements of the Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable. Philadelphia: G. E. Fisher and I. J. Schwatt.
Emerson, R. W. Two Unpublished Essays. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Everett-Green, Evelyn. Judith, the Money-Lender's Daughter. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Field, Eugene. The House: An Episode in the Lives of Reuben Baker, Astronomer, and his Wife Alice. Scribners. $1.25.
Gissing, George. Sleeping Fires. Appletons. 75c.
Greene, Rev. F. D. The Rule of the Turk. Putnams. 75c.
Hatton, Joseph. When Greek Meets Greek. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Hearn, Lafcadio. Kokoro: Hints and Echoes of Japanese Inner Life. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Holman, Prof. H. Education. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
In a Silent World: The Love Story of a Deaf Mute. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Ingle, Edward. Southern Sidelights. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.75.
Jacks, William. Robert Burns in Other Tongues. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Jerram, C. S. The Ion of Euripides. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Johnston, Henry. Doctor Congalton's Legacy. Scribners. $1.25.
Lawton, W. C. Art and Humanity in Homer. Macmillan. 75c.
Lee, Albert. Tommy Toddles. Harpers. $1.25.
Lemcke, Mrs. Gesine. How to Live Well on Twenty-five Cents a Day. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. 25c
Maclaren, Rev. Alexander. The Beatitudes, and Other Sermons. London: Alexander & Shepheard; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Manual of Statistics, 1896. New York: C. H. Nicoll. $3.
Martin, A. S. On Parody. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Mather, Marshall. Lancashire Idylls. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Mears, Mary M. Emma Lou—Her Book. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Meynell, Alice. The Rhythm of Life, and Other Essays. London: John Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Morrow, Josiah. Life and Speeches of Thomas Corwin. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co. $3.50.
Overall, J. W. A Catechism of the Constitution of the United States. New York: The Author.
Price, W. J. Pope's Iliad (Books I., VI., XXII., and XXIV.). Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Ribeiro, A. B. Sonho no Carcere: Dramas da Revolução de 1893 no Brazil. Rio de Janeiro: Casa Mont'-Alverne.
Ridge, W. P. The Second Opportunity of Mr. Staplehurst. Harpers. $1.25.
Ridley, Annie E. Frances Mary Buss, and her Work for Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.25.
Roberts, C. G. D. Earth's Enigmas. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Roberts, W. Book-Verse. London: Elliot Stock; New York: Armstrong. $1.25.
Russell, Dora. A Hidden Chain. Rand, McNally & Co.
Sala, G. A. The Thorough Good Cook. Brentanos. $4.
Scollard, Clinton. Hills of Song. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Seilhac, Léon de. Le Monde Socialiste: Groupes et Programmes. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Smith, Gertrude. Dedora Heywood. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75c.
Snaith, J. C. Mistress Dorothy Marvin. Appletons. $1.
Stackpole, Rev. E. S. Prophecy; or, Speaking for God. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Sudermann, Hermann. Magda. [Sock and Buskin Library.] Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.
Tarbell, Ida M. Madame Roland: A Biographical Study. Scribners. $1.50.
The Danvers Jewels and Sir Charles Danvers. Harpers. $1.
The Life and Letters of George John Romanes. Written and Edited by his Wife. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Thibaut, George. The Vedânta Sûtras. [Sacred Books of the East. Vol. XXXVIII.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.25.
Thurston, I. T. Boys of the Central: A High-School Story. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
Vivekananda, Swami. Eight Lectures on Karma Yoga. Brentanos. $1.
Vogüé, E. M. de. Devant le Siècle. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Wegmann, Edward. The Water-Supply of the City of New York. 1658–1895. John Wiley & Sons.
Wheatley, H. B. The Diary of Samuel Pepys. Vol. VII. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Willoughby, W. W. An Examination of the Nature of the State. Macmillan. $3.
Wordsworth, Dora. Journal of a Few Months' Residence in Portugal and Glimpses of the South of Spain. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 2, 1896.

The Week.

THE New York Republican State convention last week put the word gold in its platform, and thus declared, without qualification or subterfuge, what it meant by the phrase sound money. A declaration so far in advance of the usual platitudes of party conventions deserves to be quoted in full:

"The agitation for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 seriously disturbs all industrial interests, and calls for a clear statement of the Republican party's attitude upon this question, to the end that the trade of this country, at home and abroad, may again be placed upon a sound and stable foundation. We recognize in the movement for the free coinage of silver an attempt to degrade the long-established standard of our monetary system, and hence a blow to public and private credit, at once costly to the national Government and harmful to our domestic and foreign commerce. Until there is a prospect of international agreement as to silver coinage, and while gold remains the standard of the United States and of the civilized world, the Republican party of New York declares itself in favor of the firm and honorable maintenance of that standard."

A more decided expression of sound and wholesome doctrine on the money question it would be hard to frame. It is to be welcomed all the more since it stands in such notable contrast to the McKinley deliverance, adopted by the Ohio convention two weeks ago, in favor of "gold, silver, and paper with which to measure our exchange," and demanding the use of both gold and silver as standard money either by international agreement or "under such restrictions and such provisions, to be determined by *legislation*, as will secure the maintenance of the parities of values of the two metals, so that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal." Mr. Morton could hardly have gone into the convention as a candidate on any other platform, nor could his party have expected to carry this State on any other. No matter who is nominated at St. Louis, the business men of New York are a unit in demanding that sound money be defined and described so that no room shall be left for two interpretations of it.

The financial plank of the Massachusetts Republican platform follows closely upon the lines of that of the New York Republicans, and is sound and strong. It is not afraid to say gold when gold is meant, and, in addition to declaring entire opposition to the "free and unlimited coinage of silver," opposes "any change in the existing gold standard except by international agreement," and demands that "every promise must be rigidly kept, and every obligation redeemable in coin must be paid in gold." This declaration puts the Republicans of Massachusetts squarely upon the ground which Congress has refused repeatedly to take, for it says that by "coin" we mean "gold." If Congress had made this declaration before our issues of bonds, the country would have been several million dollars better off, so far as interest on the bonds is concerned, and many hundred millions better off in the way of improved business and industry. If the Republican conventions in other Eastern and Middle States will follow the lead of New York and Massachusetts on this question, their party will be placed in a better position before the country at the opening of the Presidential campaign than it has occupied for years. It may be that even Speaker Reed will be encouraged to say something more definite on the subject than that the "day cometh with the Republican morning soon to dawn." As matters stand now, there is a ludicrous discrepancy between the frank and manly financial declaration of the Massachusetts platform and his comic-opera treatment of the same subject.

Sound as the platform is on the currency question, allowing Senator Lodge to draw it up and sit on it gives it a touch of drollery. There has been no more insidious friend of the silver movement than Lodge himself. He has not missed a single opportunity in the Senate to show his sympathy with it. Two years ago he introduced in the Senate a resolution to put discriminating duties on English goods, to punish England for not abandoning her gold standard, which the sorry wag now exalts in Massachusetts. Still later he wrote to Moreton Frewen that the cause of the American hatred of England, as revealed in his Jingo enterprise, was her treatment of silver—that is, her refusal to aid us in giving up the gold standard. There is no more melancholy sign in politics to-day than that such a man can make this open parade of his hypocrisy, and yet retain his influence undiminished in a party like the Republican party in a State like Massachusetts. He "steered" the late convention in everything.

The *Manufacturer* of Philadelphia furnishes an explanation of the recent meeting at Washington between certain Republican Senators from the silver-mining States and certain Pennsylvania manufacturers. It denies, in the first place, that the initial steps for the meeting were taken in Philadelphia. The movement began in some other place (Pottsville, perhaps). The Philadelphia men were invited by the Senators to come to Washington for consultation and an exchange of views. When they came together the Senators informed them that the Dingley bill could not pass, nor could any other tariff bill pass now or in the next Congress, unless something were done at the same time for silver. "This statement," it says, "was challenged, and a demand was made for proof that the silver-men will have power to defeat tariff legislation." The Senators said that "however much they might desire to sustain a tariff bill, the sentiment of their constituents was too violently opposed to such a course, unless silver remonetization should be at the same time supported, to permit them to advocate protection alone." The manufacturers expressed regret, "and in some instances indignation," that silver and the tariff had been so coupled together, and they separated not at all convinced that they would not be able to carry their measures without silver legislation, "but probably with some anxiety to learn positively if such is the case."

That the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia is not in favor of the silver standard, or of bimetallism in any form, was made plain at its meeting on Monday. The official organ of the club, for two or three years past, has been advocating legislation in favor of silver in one way or another, and its editor has been delivering lectures in various parts of the country in favor of bimetallism of one sort or another. In short, the influence of the club has run in the same direction as the speeches of Stewart, Teller, Bland, and Bryan, and has probably done more mischief than those because it has been addressed to a Republican audience in the Eastern States. A full meeting of the club was held on Monday, at which the subject was well thrashed out, and resolutions were adopted declaring "that the question of bimetallism can be permanently settled only through an international agreement, and that the Manufacturers' Club declares its unalterable opposition to the free coinage of silver by the United States alone, firmly believing that such a policy will result in disaster at home and dishonor abroad, and would only operate to place this country upon the basis of silver monometallism." Various attempts made by a small band of silver-men to modify the resolutions were voted down. Even a recommendation that Congress take steps for another international conference was rejected.

The McKinley boom is in great force in the newspapers, and the editor who has not some figures of his own upon it is decidedly unenterprising. Less than one-half the convention has been chosen, the total of delegates elected up to Saturday evening being 388, while the full convention will contain 909. The *Tribune*, which does its claiming on Sundays for some inscrutable reason, gives McKinley 204.

Gen. Grosvenor, the Washington manager of the McKinley boom, says this is too small a number, and publishes a table by States giving the Major 255 delegates. In order to do this, Gen. Grosvenor includes thirty-four delegates not yet chosen, but he says that these "are pretty sure to be for McKinley, and might as well be counted now." Why not? If you are going into the "claiming" business, why not throw your whole soul into it? The *Herald* makes the *Tribune* "look sick" by publishing telegraphic estimates from various parts of the country which show that McKinley will have 393 votes on the first ballot, or only sixty-two short of enough to nominate. This is good claiming, but the *World* beat it two weeks ago by a similar convincing calculation which gave him 564 votes on the first ballot, nominating him with nine votes to spare. The Philadelphia *Press*, which is not a McKinley paper, gives him only 201 of the delegates thus far elected. Per contra, the *Tribune* has held an election in New Jersey, and has discovered such a spontaneous boom for McKinley there that it seems safe to give him that State's electoral vote now, for, whether he be nominated or not, New Jersey is bound to vote for him.

Joe Manley continues to put forth figures on this subject, and, in his latest calculation, makes a striking comparison between McKinley to-day and Blaine in 1876:

> "The situation is precisely as it was twenty years ago. You will remember that three months before the convention met at Cincinnati, we were confident of Mr. Blaine's nomination. He stood then as the apostle of protection, but he had opposed to his nomination Senator Conkling of New York, Senator Morton of Indiana, Secretary Bristow of Kentucky, Gov. Hayes of Ohio, and Gov. Hartranft of Pennsylvania. We felt so sure of Mr. Blaine's nomination that we regarded it as settled, and yet he was defeated in the convention, and the Maine man went down before the Ohio Governor."

Another feature of the deadly parallel which Mr. Manley does not mention is the uproarious support of the *Tribune*. Mr. Blaine had that in 1876, as McKinley has it now, and it was given in the same way then as now, with calculations, and tables of delegates, and whoops and claims; but it was of no avail when the balloting began, mainly because it was begun too early and maintained with too much zeal. Of course Mr. Blaine's reputation had something to do with his failure, but the chilling influence of that could scarcely have been more disastrous than McKinley's unfortunate career as a business man will be now. For the first time in the history of the country a man who has failed in business and has had his debts paid for him, is proposed as a Presidential nominee by the very men who have paid his debts, and who would be the direct beneficiaries of the economic policy which would be put into operation were he to be elected. There are the elements of as great a political scandal in this situation as there was in Blaine's public record.

The Davis resolutions are now surely dead, because Davis himself is dead. He lost his own State on Tuesday week, and telegraphed that he would "loyally respect the wishes" of the people of Minnesota and quit trying for the Presidency. Thus vanishes the original occasion and continuing cause of the Davis resolutions, and we shall hear of them no more. For having accomplished this, as also for coming out squarely against free coinage, the Minnesota convention deserves all thanks. On the question of peace and war and a fighting navy, its utterances were of the usual incoherent order. It "believes thoroughly" in arbitration, but at the same time wants to see preparations made for this country to become "invincible in war." But it doesn't want ships and invincibility in order to fight with; oh no, only to "secure peace" without a struggle, by simply displaying them. But haven't we "secured peace" absolutely for eighty years with the great naval powers, without any navy ourselves? Has any country respected us the less, or attempted to ride over us or wrong us? Have not, in fact, the talk and threat and actual imminence of war increased *pari passu* with the increase of our navy? Everybody except the Jingoes and the platform-makers knows that this is so.

We must all be grateful to Mr. Phelps for the address on the Monroe Doctrine which he has just delivered in Brooklyn. It is a remarkable outburst of common sense on a topic which has apparently a remarkable affinity for folly and ignorance. We are the more grateful for it because one of the worst phenomena of our time (if this be not a bull) is the silence of our leading men, of the men who know, and can speak with authority, in times of popular excitement, about matters of national importance. Every "craze" and every folly which comes up and takes hold of the popular mind through the newspapers, has generally a good run of a month or two before any rational person of weight or distinction takes hold of it, and "calls a halt." Lodge, Morgan, Chandler, Livingston, and the Old Pensioner, and a score of others, one-third ignoramus, one-third fool, and one-third knave, were blathering away about the Monroe Doctrine for months before a policeman could be found to interfere with them. No nation can go on in this way. If its men of light and leading will not talk, it cannot last as a civilized and free state. It is mind, after all, that moves the mass. Mass without mind means brute force, and the moral decline to which brute force always tends. Speaking out entails no penalty of which the "vir justus et tenax propositi" has any reason to be afraid. A little newspaper vituperation is all he has to fear, and this to a good citizen ought to be as water is to a duck's back.

Mr. Ritchie, President of the British Board of Trade, and a member of the cabinet, said last week that overtures looking to the establishment of a permanent court of arbitration between this country and Great Britain had been laid before the United States Government by Lord Salisbury. This news will be received with the utmost satisfaction by the promoters of the conference which is to meet in Washington on the 22d and 23d of April. The conversion of Lord Salisbury to the doctrine has been looked upon as the difficult task in the whole proceeding. Now that it has been accomplished, there ought to be no difficulty in bringing about the desired result, except such as is inherent in the nature of the undertaking. The mode of constituting the court and of defining its procedure will be the subject of discussion after the principle has been agreed to. As our Government was committed to the principle by the unanimous vote of both houses of Congress in 1890, there ought to be no remaining obstacle on this side of the water.

The prolonged marching up hill and down on the Cuban resolutions has at least had one good effect. It has plainly notified the country that Congress has not one spark of honest conviction, and only the dullest gleams of intelligence, in the whole affair. The agreement of the conference committee, now on the House resolutions, then on the Senate, does not mean that a particle of rational discussion has been given to either set, but only that a desperate and shamefaced determination to have resolutions of some kind has controlled the conferees. To be dignified, to act on full information, to weigh the consequences of action, to inquire what our duty is under law and treaty — none of these things is dreamed of in congressional philosophy. The pretence that it is, has now been fortunately dispelled by the public display of insincerity and shuffling kept up for a month, and the President would be perfectly justified in paying no more attention to the resolutions than he would to the voting of a mock Congress in a grammar-school.

The London *Spectator* remarks upon the recent blather in our Senate on Cuban affairs, that the Americans imagine they are dealing only with Spain, but in reality they are risking an alteration in the relations of all Europe. It says that Spain has already applied to France for diplomatic assistance in the event of a war with the United States, and that she is able to offer terms which will make it worth while for France to assist her. One method by which assistance could be rendered to her without any breach of relations with us would be by making it easy for Spain to borrow money in Paris. Whatever aid France might supply would tend to detach Spain from the Triple Al-

liance, where her sympathies now lie, and place her on the side of France in the next European conflict. In short, the United States cannot attack the interests of Spain without producing grave consequences in Europe and causing a storm which they have no intention of producing. The *Spectator* writes without the intention of influencing opinion here, but merely to show that the American policy of non-intervention in the affairs of Europe cannot be maintained if an aggressive policy is pursued toward European governments. This is true, even though our Senators have no intention other than that of "hollering" and proclaiming their readiness, like Senator Thurston, to spill the blood of their nearest relatives to vindicate the nation's honor. An American Congressman does not concern himself so much with the shifting of the balance of power in Europe as he does with the shifting of the balance of the delegates in the "deestrick." You may talk till all is blue about France and Spain and the rest of the world: you will never get his attention very far from the caucus that deals with his renomination.

Secretary Lamont's answer to the inquiries of the Senate committee on military affairs for information as to the reason why the War Department is opposed to the bestowal of a lieutenant-generalship on Gen. Miles, seems so complete that one cannot help regretting that it was not called for before the movement for Gen. Miles's promotion was set on foot. It is unpleasant to have such a movement, when once begun, fail for any reason whatever. Its failure seems to raise a question about the General's own merit, when there is and can be no such question. Mr. Lamont simply says that only six officers have held the grade of Lieutenant-General since the foundation of the Government; that in no case has it been bestowed on any officer who has not commanded an independent force in active service; that it was not bestowed, prior to 1870, on several officers, such as Halleck, Meade, and Hancock, who had fulfilled this condition; and that it was provided by positive enactment in 1870 that the offices then held by Sherman and Sheridan should not be filled after their death. In other words, the rank seems to be reserved, by a piece of commendable national policy, for officers who command the whole army, or an independent part of it, as a reward for successful active service. We ought in many ways to display a good deal more of this reserve than we do. It is extremely difficult to maintain any degrees in our rewards or eulogies, so prone are our Congressmen to get everything there is in the way of honor or prize for anybody whom they like. It is no fault of Gen. Miles that he has not fulfilled the conditions annexed by precedent or law to the bestowal of this rank. That he would fulfil them if the occasion offered, no one who knows him doubts, but it is not kind of his friends in Congress to compel controversy in the matter. Glory is a thing which should never be haggled over.

The manner in which the Greater New York bill passed the Assembly on Thursday left no room for doubt as to the political influences which are behind it. The Platt and Tammany forces voted solidly for it, under the leadership of Hamilton Fish, who, only a few years ago, won the testimonial of a set of diamond shirt-studs from Tammany as a reward for his usefulness in leading a similar "combine" through a session of the Assembly which had a Democratic majority. Without Tammany support the bill would have failed. The strongest speeches against it were made by Republicans, although it is a Republican machine measure, and no less than thirty-eight Republicans voted with the opposition. Nearly all the Tammany contingent, twenty-two of them, voted with the Platt men, and without this support the bill would have fallen seven votes short of enough to pass it. Of the 103 Republican members, only 63 could be induced to support the bill, although the power of the Platt machine was exerted to whip them into line. The bill is now under consideration by the Mayors of the three cities affected, New York, Brooklyn, and Long Island City, and its merits will be discussed at public hearings. It is assumed that the Mayor of Brooklyn will refuse to approve it, and it is generally believed that Mayor Strong will do the same. Public sentiment in Brooklyn is strongly aroused against it, and the result of the hearings there is well known in advance. The people of this city have been strangely lethargic about the question, but we believe that they are beginning to awake to the grave considerations involved in it, and that before the hearings upon it are ended they will leave no doubt as to their position toward it.

It is so long since the Congregationalists have had the pleasant excitement of a trial for heresy that the recent case at Madison, Connecticut, was naturally regarded as an entertaining novelty. The findings of the council, moreover, acquitting the accused clergyman, have a humorous relish about them. At least they appear humorous to inexpert outsiders, though how they struck the staid old church-members who brought the charges we cannot say. The council gently reminds them of "the differences in the training and environment of the pastor and the complaining members." The pastor, that is, had been studying and assimilating the results of modern scholarship, while the sleepy people in Madison had been foolishly trusting to the stability of the faith once delivered to the saints, and had not awakened to the necessity of a new creed every twenty-five years. It evidently seemed laughable to the learned members of the council that any one should be so old-fashioned, at this time of day, as to insist upon a literal interpretation of the Incarnation, the Atonement, and Inspiration. With the honest zeal of politicians, they advised pastor and people to "get together," and it is gratifying to learn that "a general love feast" followed, as a result of which it is confidently hoped that all differences of training and environment will be hereafter amicably surmounted.

The declarations made in the Italian Parliament on March 25, to the effect that an alliance had been made between Italy and Great Britain, not in a formal way, but based upon common interests, are very important, but probably are not a surprise to the statesmen of Europe. The maritime power of the Mediterranean, said Baron Blanc, the ex-Minister of Foreign Affairs, was the effective bond between Great Britain and the Dreibund. The Mediterranean being the highway to India as well as to Egypt, England is bound to make the control of it her first consideration, and here she can look only to Italy as an ally. The Italian navy is next to that of France, and, when combined with that of Great Britain, so far outweighs everything else in those waters that little account need be taken of the remainder.

The protest of France and Russia against the use of the Egyptian Reserve Fund for the expedition against the Dervishes has but little consequence except as an expression of dislike of the English occupation of Egypt and of the virtual addition of England to the Triple Alliance. It could have importance only if it were likely to be followed up by war, and of this there is no prospect whatever. In fact, France may for the present be counted out of the military game in Europe. In case of a reverse, the Government would be overturned, and we should have a repetition of the Commune. In case of triumph, the victorious general would surely be carried into a dictatorship. Both the parties in France are fully aware of these contingencies, and shrink from facing them, so that the British will probably have nothing more serious to fear than energetic discontent. The Porte will do nothing more than make inquiries, and Italy with England behind her will probably be able to patch up a peace with Menelek that will at least *seem* honorable. One of the most curious results of the Italian disasters is a great revival of the hopes of the Blacks in Italy about the temporal power: Menelek, acting under divine guidance, has shaken the Italian throne, and prepared the way for the restoration of Rome to its lawful owner.

FATAL MAJORITIES.

AMID all the ups and downs of parties in State and nation for the past ten years, one fact stands out conspicuously—the increasingly fatal effect of a majority. To get a majority is the great end of party striving. Sea and land are compassed to secure it. When obtained it is welcomed with immense huzzaing, and loud-sounding talk is heard of an "assured lease of power for twenty-five years," and so on; whereas the usual, the now almost invariable, result, is, that a party in a great majority at one election is in a humiliatingly small minority at the next. And the small minority appears to be the direct consequence of the big majority. It is as if all the straining and desperate labor to get a party majority were but so many elaborate preparations to commit party suicide.

Politicians themselves are dimly aware of this law of political self-destruction. It is generally considered, for example, a disadvantage to have control of the Congress just preceding a Presidential election. On the stump the wicked incapacity of the other fellows is a much more inviting theme than the wisdom and patriotism which you yourself have displayed, in ways too often past finding out. It is safe to say that the greatest menace to Republican success next fall is the present Republican Congress. We know, in fact, that Republican leaders, in Congress and throughout the country, are in distress and dismay over the performances at Washington. Some of the very Senators and Representatives who in public take on the loftiest tone, in private wring their hands and almost shed tears as they speak of the mad passion, the mulishness, the greed, the sheer stupidity put so disastrously on exhibition by the party in control of Congress. To be sure, they do nothing effective to check the madness. They appear to be themselves as mad as the rest. Though they groan and grieve over the reckless imbecility of their party following, they imitate the example of the French leader of a "section" who, standing in a doorway as his people rushed off to tear up the paving and make a barricade, was heard to mutter despairingly: "I must go along with them, for I am their chief" ("Il faut que je les suive, car je suis leur chef").

Why is it that the triumph of parties so swiftly becomes their destruction? Why do Platt and Croker, Crisp and Reed, so surely turn a majority into a rope to hang the party with? What is the reason that a majority can no longer be used for the benefit of both country and party, and so retained or made larger? One answer is, the decline of political leadership. We have more shrewd and masterful captains of fifties and captains of hundreds than ever before, but political commanders of the higher ranks are growing fewer. The men who get supreme control cannot see beyond their noses. They have never been to school in higher politics. They have never learned the first lesson of government by majority—moderation. We say a majority can do what it pleases, but it cannot. That prime minister or that boss is near his fall who says: "This measure is pretty bad; we must apply our majority to it." Moderation is the last thing our party chiefs and bosses think of. What is a majority for if not to be used for all it is worth? Hence, one after the other, in dreary succession, they run the same old round. Swept into power by the popular disgust with the party last in the majority, they straightway proceed to execute the villany the other side has taught them, usually bettering the instruction, display wilder partisan fury, excite deeper disgust, and go down in completer wreck. Then they crawl out from under the ruins, and complain of the fickleness of the popular judgment.

Another deadly element in a party majority is the character of too many of the men who compose it. In every great political reaction strange bits of driftwood are borne to the surface. Adventurers who know that they are but the accidents of an hour, wretched political ephemeridæ that buzz their little day and then fall into putrefaction, they make up a difficult audience to which to preach moderation. Are they to miss the only chance of a lifetime? Will the leaders who implore them to be considerate and far-sighted guarantee them a return to the next Congress or Legislature if they refrain from selling themselves to the devil in this? It is all very well to remind them of the interest of the party, but how about the interest of the party of the first part? That is what they have both eyes on, and that is what they pursue day and night, turning neither to the right hand nor to the left, and by log-rolling, by voting as they are paid, by "strikes," and speculations, and legislative "good things," they rush madly ahead to enrich themselves and ruin their party.

There is, moreover, something in the very methods and machinery by which a party majority is won that carries in it the seeds of death. The bosses are partly the cause, partly the creature, of the forces with which they work. They get a majority only by lavish promises right and left of patronage and largess, and then they have to go to work to invent the patronage and to swell the corruption fund. The pack of snarling, snapping curs that is at the heels of every boss, threatening to bite unless a bone is thrown them, is enough to embitter the sweetest temper. No wonder that so many of our naturally amiable bosses grow melancholy and irritable. Doubtless many of their schemes of plunder are resorted to, not out of native wickedness, but only to still the clamor of the greedy underlings whose support has been won by promises and can be kept only by spoils. There is thus an accelerated motion in a party majority, as nowadays secured, which hurries it on ever faster and more furiously along the path of corruption until it crashes into ruin. Imagine Phaeton McKinley successful in getting a majority by the methods his boodling managers adopt; one can easily picture the terrific party smash that would be certain to follow from his reckless driving, and the thunderbolt of popular rage that would lay him low.

How not only to get a majority but to keep it, and make it decent, conservative, useful, is the study to which party leaders should give their midnight vigils. How not to do it is writ large enough for even their not too alert minds to perceive, in the political history of the past decade. Horrible examples, solemn warnings, they have in plenty—let them look in the mirror if they see none elsewhere. But shining exemplars, successful models, they also have, if they would look at them, in the history of Anglo-Saxon popular government. It is an old lesson, but one so forgotten that it seems new, that moderation in victory, putting the public good before partisan advantage, building a majority upon a political principle, not upon greed and pelf, are the only ways of making a party majority more deadly to your opponents than to yourself. How many more surgical operations will our politicians need to undergo at the hands of Doctor Civis Americanus before they get that idea into their heads?

THE POLICY OF RECIPROCITY.

CONGRESSMAN HOPKINS, a member of the ways and means committee and chairman of its sub-committee on reciprocity and commercial treaties, has sent out a circular to manufacturers and others asking whether the effect of the treaties negotiated under the authority of the McKinley tariff act was favorable or unfavorable to this country, and what was the effect of their repeal by the existing tariff act; also, what can be accomplished by diplomatic negotiations in extending the export trade of the United States.

Reciprocity, it should be remarked, was not a Republican doctrine, but rather the contrary, until the famous scene took place in a committee-room of the Senate, where the late James G. Blaine, Secretary of State, smashed his hat on the table and denounced the McKinley tariff in excited terms, declaring that it would not make a market in any part of the world for another bushel of wheat or barrel of pork for the American farmer. When this emphatic declaration became publicly known, Senator Aldrich offered a new clause as an addition to the McKinley bill, which was known as the reciprocity amendment. It provided that whenever the President should be satisfied that any country producing and exporting sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, or any of those articles, should impose duties on the products of the United States which he (the President) should deem unreasonable in view of our

admitting those articles free of duty, he should suspend the free admission of such articles from those countries for such time as he should deem just, and impose upon them certain specified rates of duty. Under this provision, treaties of reciprocity were negotiated with Central America (except Costa Rica), Brazil, British Guiana, the British West Indies, San Domingo, and Spain (for Cuba and Porto Rico). Venezuela declined to make a treaty with us, in consequence of which her coffee was subjected by President Harrison to a duty of three cents per pound, although it had been free of duty under our tariff for nearly twenty years. Colombia and Hayti also declined to make such treaties, and their coffee was subjected to duty in like manner.

In this way the principle of reciprocity, which has been called "free trade in spots," was lugged into the party creed and received the sanction of the Minneapolis convention. In the platform of 1892 it was referred to in these terms:

> "We point to the success of the Republican policy of reciprocity, under which our export trade has vastly increased, and new and enlarged markets have been opened for the products of our farms and workshops. We remind the people of the bitter opposition of the Democratic party to this practical business measure, and claim that, executed by a Republican administration, our present laws will eventually give us control of the trade of the world."

A copy of the Hopkins circular having been sent to Mr. James M. Swank, general manager of the American Iron and Steel Association, he publishes a reply to it in his *Bulletin*, saying, however, that it is an expression of his individual views only. His answer is interesting as coming from a protectionist of the old school who has not been tainted with any new-fangled notions on the subject of foreign trade. It also contains statistics of our trade with the several countries, covering the period immediately before the treaties were negotiated, and during their continuance, and immediately after their repeal. These statistics, since they embrace only eight years, some of which were marked by financial panics, cannot be considered decisive, yet they have a negative value in the way of disproving the claims of the new-fledged advocates of reciprocity.

They show that our export trade to the above-named countries increased during the three years *before* reciprocity went into operation from about $31,000,000 to nearly $42,000,000, or 35 per cent.; that during the next three years, while reciprocity was in operation, it increased to $53,500,000, or 28 per cent.; during the year 1894, while the treaties were still in operation, it declined to $52,800,000, and that in the last year for which statistics are given, 1895, it declined to $45,500,000, the decline being wholly in the trade with Cuba and being due to the rebellion in that island. Although the treaties were all repealed, the trade with the other countries taken together showed no diminution.

By way of comparison Mr. Swank introduces the statistics of our trade with Canada (with which we had no treaty) during the same years, and here the changes and percentages correspond closely with those of the treaty countries, showing that the treaties had slight effect if any, our export trade being controlled by forces of wider scope. On the other hand, Mr. Swank shows that our exports to Mexico, with which we had no treaty, increased more rapidly than to any of the countries where reciprocity existed. In the matter of iron and steel, with which Mr. Swank is more especially concerned, he says that our exports "increased over 66 per cent. in the four years from 1887 to 1890 without reciprocity; that from 1891 to 1894 there was an actual decrease under reciprocity; and that in 1895 there was an increase over 1894 of over 17 per cent. without reciprocity."

Having demolished reciprocity with statistics, Mr. Swank decries it on grounds of principle. He calls it "a fatal error," an abandonment of the policy of the fathers of the republic, and a substitution of "the British policy of commercial treaties." This new policy was adopted, he says, "not to protect and preserve the home market for home producers, which is the very essence of the protective policy of the fathers, but that foreign markets of less value than the trade of one of our great States might be captured." He thinks also that a deplorable mistake was made when sugar was put on the free list in the McKinley tariff and a bounty voted to our own sugar-planters. This feature of the bill he considers the parent of the reciprocity clause, since without free sugar there would have been no basis for reciprocity at all.

The statistics introduced by Mr. Swank may serve to refute the advocates of the treaties, in so far as they set up a claim that our exports were largely increased thereby, yet they cannot be considered conclusive. There were two disturbances of trade during the period covered by them, the Baring crisis in England in 1890 and our own panic of 1893, the effects of the latter being still felt. Moreover, a longer period than four years would be necessary for a test, even in normal times. Mr. Swank's letter is chiefly significant as a protest of the old school against the schism and heresy which crept into the party as a consequence of Mr. Blaine's hat-smashing episode in 1890.

THE DELAWARE SENATORSHIP CONTEST.

ARMS have been so much to the fore in the Senate during the past two months that the laws have been silent. Yet a highly important legal and constitutional question has been under discussion, off and on, for four weeks, to which the newspaper correspondents, and therefore the people in general, have given almost no attention. We refer to the contest over the representation of Delaware in the United States Senate. It is now up as a question of the highest privilege, and has the right of way over all other business until it is settled. The debate is still going on, and will doubtless go on for some time to come, though all the essentials both of law and of fact have been pretty thoroughly displayed in the speeches already delivered.

The facts are agreed to by all concerned. The Delaware Legislature was in prolonged deadlock in its balloting for United States Senator. "Gas" Addicks had bought the State for the Republicans, and supposed that, of course, the senatorship went with it; but a few ridiculously squeamish members refused to vote for him, and an adjournment without election seemed probable. On the last day of the session, however, May 9, 1895, 28 ballots were taken; 30 members were present in joint assembly, 15 votes being cast for Henry A. Du Pont, and the other 15 being divided. No majority for any candidate appears upon the record, therefore, but Mr. Du Pont makes his contest, and the majority report of the committee on privileges and elections proposes to award him the seat, on the ground that one member present and voting in the joint assembly was illegally present and voting. With this vote expunged from the record, there would have been a total of but 29 votes, and Mr. Du Pont would have been elected.

This member, thus challenged, was William T. Watson, the Senator duly elected from the county of Kent, chosen Speaker of the Delaware Senate on its organization, and becoming, under the State Constitution, acting-Governor upon the death of Gov. Marvil on April 8, 1895. On May 9, the last day of the session, Mr. Watson entered the Senate chamber, took his seat as Speaker (the President *pro tempore* resigning it to him), and went with the Senate to the hall of the House of Representatives, where he joined, without protest, in the balloting for United States Senator. It is contended by Mr. Du Pont that the office of Senator from Kent had been vacated by Mr. Watson's accession to the acting-governorship, and that therefore the legal number of the joint assembly was 29, not 30.

The argument for the contestant, which was presented at length by Senator Mitchell, is based, first, upon the common-law doctrine of incompatibility—in other words, that the same person shall not simultaneously exercise incompatible offices, and that the offices of Governor and member of the Legislature are incompatible. It is also argued that the Constitution of Delaware expressly prohibits such duplication of office. The right of the United States Senate to go back of the record of a Legislature is maintained, not as to facts, but as to the law governing the organization. If the Legislature, or a branch of it, did not perceive that the law and Constitution of the State made a seat va-

cant, that does not estop the United States Senate, so Senator Mitchell contended, from revising the legislative record so as to make it conform to law. The record in question thus revised would show that Mr. Du Pont had received a majority of the votes legally cast for United States Senator, and is therefore entitled to his seat.

The argument for the minority of the committee, which was ably presented by Senator Turpie, sets forth, first, the absolutely binding nature of a legislative record upon the United States Senate. The Senate of Delaware is the sole judge of the qualifications of its own members. The uniform practice of the United States Senate was laid down in a report on a contested-election case in 1873:

"In the opinion of your committee it is not competent for the Senate to inquire as to the right of individual members to sit in a Legislature which is conceded to have a quorum in both houses of legally elected members. But, undoubtedly, the Senate must always inquire whether the body which pretended to elect the Senator was a Legislature of the State or not, because a Senator can only be elected by the Legislature of a State."

Judicial decisions point the same way. A Kansas Legislature once contained an unconvicted felon. Under the State Constitution his seat should have been declared vacant. But the Legislature refused to act, and when his case was brought before the Supreme Court of the State, Judge Brewer, now of the Supreme Court at Washington, decided that there could be no interference from the outside, holding that if either house of the Legislature "refuses to oust a member, his seat is beyond judicial challenge."

It is denied, further, that the Speaker of the Delaware Senate succeeds to the "office" of Governor. The Constitution says that he shall "exercise the office until a Governor elected by the people shall be duly qualified." As a practical construction of the clause it is averred that, historically, every one of the five persons who, under the present Constitution of Delaware, have succeeded to the governorship, as Speaker Watson did, "without a single exception, after the expiry of the time limited for the temporary exercise of executive authority, went into the Senate and completed his term as Senator without protest, without objection." At the time of Mr. Watson's participation in the joint assembly no protest was made against his action until *after* the last ballot was taken, when, apparently as an afterthought, a protest was presented as a ground for the contest before the United States Senate.

Without undertaking to affirm how the Senate ought to or will decide this question, we are bound to say that any attempt of the Senate to go back of the record of a State Legislature is certain to lead to great abuses. The qualifications of electors, as well as of legislators, may be inquired into on the same ground; the fairness of elections passed upon; and thus the constitutional right of all Legislatures to be the sole judges of the qualifications and credentials of their own members insidiously undermined. For better or for worse, we must stand upon the right and duty of the States to manage their own affairs without federal interference; and the election of a United States Senator is a State affair.

GERMAN AND IRISH CRIME AND DISORDER.

THE recently issued census volume on Crime, Pauperism, and Benevolence shows how much more numerous on June 1, 1890, among the persons of Irish birth or parentage than among persons of German birth or parentage were the inmates of prisons, almshouses, juvenile reformatories, and benevolent institutions. At that time there were in the United States 4,142,199 persons both of whose parents were born in Ireland, and 5,776,186 both of whose parents were born in Germany. Thus there were 140 persons of pure German blood in the country for every 100 persons of pure Irish blood. On June 1, 1890, however, 13,490 of the latter class were confined in prison, as against only 4,869 of the former. Or, stating the same thing in another way, it appears that out of every million persons of Irish birth or parentage there were 3,257 confined in prison, and out of every million Germans there were only 782, or but little more than one-fourth as many.

The same disproportion, though in a somewhat slighter degree, exists among the juvenile offenders, 2,587 of whom had Irish parents, as against 1,060 of German parentage. Out of every million persons of Irish parentage there were 624 confined as juvenile offenders, while out of a like number of Germans there were only 183. Among the paupers in almshouses the difference was nearly though not quite so great: 15,933 of such paupers were of Irish parentage, 7,793 were of German parentage. That is, there were 3,844 paupers per million of the Irish inhabitants and 1,349 per million of the German. Substantially the same proportions are maintained among the inmates of benevolent institutions: 24,147 were Irish, 11,505 were German. Out of every million inhabitants both of whose parents were Irish, 5,824 were to be found in benevolent institutions; 1,991 out of every million of German parentage were in like places.

It thus appears that out of every 1,000,000 persons residing in this country in 1890, both of whose parents were Irish, 13,549 were, on the first day of June of that year, public charges, as against 4,305 in every 1,000,000 persons of pure German parentage. In other words, the Irish contribute to the dependent and delinquent classes, in proportion to their numbers, something more than three for every one furnished by the Germans.

Any complete explanation of this difference would be difficult if not impossible. But partial explanation is comparatively easy. The Irish went so long without popular or technical education, or common social justice, that the national character was seriously affected by it. It bred a certain disinclination and incapacity for steady industry, which is the leading characteristic of low civilization. The absence of legal protection, in like manner, bred disrespect for law and a tendency to protective law-breaking. Moreover, the possession of a franchise during the last hundred years which had no influence whatever on the government of their country, begot skill in the use of electoral machinery, and in electoral tricks and intrigue, without developing any sense of political responsibility or of public duty. The love of drink in the Irish is probably temperamental—that is, compounded partly of love of excitement and partly of sociability. The disposition of the Irish who land here to go into the liquor business is due partly to ignorance of all other kinds of business, and partly to want of capital.

That the Catholic religion counts for something in their apparent want of political capacity must be admitted, without meaning to be disrespectful to the church, if we rely on historical experience, for no Catholic community can be said to have succeeded in modern politics. The histories of Spain, France, Italy, and the Spanish-American republics, contrasted with those of England, Germany, Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, strongly suggest, at all events, the belief that creed has much to do with the ability to carry on modern governments. The Catholic creed probably lessens individual initiative and self-dependence by the large part direction plays in it, and for similar reasons may possibly weaken the power of resisting the temptation to certain forms of crime and social disorder. The knowledge of the English language, too, has been in America a misfortune for the Irish, from which the Germans escape, because it brings them at once in intelligent contact with the worst American tendencies.

The Germans, on the other hand, besides the greater phlegm of their race, come here with a much better home education, with a much more widely diffused training in handicrafts, with a love of beer instead of whiskey, and with no training in the use of political machinery. Their relations to the law in their own country have always been normal, and their respect for official and other superiors has had a better basis than mere superiority of force. It has been historical in most cases, and maintained by superiority of knowledge and of function. Though last, not least, ignorance of the language keeps the German to himself and his own people for some time after his arrival in this country, and out of the way of the American temptations which foreigners are least fitted to bear. Foremost among these is the contempt for the government which

grows out of observation of the office-holders, and is very trying, especially to the more ignorant immigrants. In truth, America is the last conntry to which a wise despot, seeking to transplant people according to their defects and capacities, would have sent the Irish, while he would probably have sent a large proportion of the German population here in the beginning of the century.

Correspondence.

A SINGLE-TAX COMMUNITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the eastern shore of Mobile Bay, and some fifteen miles distant from the metropolis of Alabama, there is a growing community of men, women, and children whose daily lives are, to a great extent, governed by the fiscal theories of Mr. Henry George. Fairhope is the name of this unique colony, and its members appear to be as happy and contented as one could expect to find a community of one year's experience. The fundamental principles of the community are thus set forth in the Fairhope *Courier:* "That which nature provides is the common property of all God's children; that which the individual creates belongs to the individual; that which the community creates belongs to the community."

These enthusiastic advocates of the common ownership of land have chosen for the site of their interesting social experiment one of the loveliest spots in the South. From the watershed about two miles back in the country the ground slopes gently towards the bay, and ends in a steep bluff of some fifty feet in altitude, thus affording an excellent system of natural drainage, while along the entire water-front a thick growth of oak, cedar, yupon, holly, pine, and magnolia forms a beautiful screen of perpetual foliage between the water and the bluff. The entire water-front, for a depth of 150 feet, has been reserved as a public park. The main street of the community begins at the bay, and, climbing the bluff by easy stages, runs back for about half a mile, being lined on either side with the cottages of the settlers. These are neat, substantial frame buildings of yellow pine (which grows here in great abundance), and are constructed in a manner that speaks well for the taste and skill of the occupants, while their modern furniture and doorbells are striking innovations in Southern farm life. At the intersection of the two principal streets are the store, the post-office, and the public well. A school building is soon to be erected. Religious services are held in the private residences.

The community owns about 350 acres of unencumbered land, and is, so far, free from debt. It has also constructed a wharf and pier-head. The system of land tenure has already been mentioned; but while the title is vested in the community, the members may obtain parcels of land under leases voidable only at the option of the lessee. The rental of the land is fixed by annual appraisal, according to its natural advantages of fertility and location. The unearned increment is appropriated by the community.

The government of the community is a pure democracy, and the administration of public affairs is vested in an executive council composed of the superintendents of lands and highways, public services, industries, and public health, together with the treasurer of the community. In order to render all officers directly responsible to the people, the Swiss expedient of the initiative and referendum is incorporated in the scheme of government. Hence any act of the council must be submitted to a communal vote, if ten per cent. of the voters petition it, while, on petition of twenty per cent. of the voters, the question of the dismissal of any officer must be submitted to popular vote.

No taxes other than the rent of land are paid by the members of the community, and all State and local taxes are paid by the community itself. Some revenue is derived from wharf tolls.

The members of the Fairhope Colony are mainly from the Northwest, the moving spirit in the experiment being Ernest B. Gaston, a graduate of Drake University, Iowa. Others whose names are associated with the venture are Alfred Wooster, a Western journalist, and J. Bellangee, sometime professor of mathematics in the University of Nebraska.

It was desired to found a community which should put into practice the principles held by its members, and a committee of two was sent out to find a favorable location. After a long search through Texas, Arkansas, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Alabama, the present spot was finally chosen for the home of the Association. The land was purchased, and on January 14, 1895, the first ground was broken. The succeeding summer was mainly taken up in clearing the ground, but a small crop was raised and sold. For the coming season the amount of land under cultivation will be much greater, and fruits, "truck," and grain will be grown. Of course the main source of revenue is the sale of these products, which are for the most part shipped North and West. A canning-factory is projected for next summer.

Curiously enough, very few of the colonists come from agricultural pursuits. Some of the callings represented are medicine, journalism, gardening, draying, woodworking, and cigar-making. A detective, a sailor, and a "new woman" are also to be found in the community. More of the settlers come from Iowa than from any other State. Some are from Missouri, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Indiana, Florida, Illinois, and Pennsylvania, while even British Columbia and England are represented.—Respectfully yours,

Gardiner L. Tucker.

University of the South,
Sewanee, Tenn., March 28, 1896.

CONCERNING ROCK-FISHES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of March 12, in a notice of my paper on the Crania of *Sebastodes*, these words occur: "His [Cramer's] statement that these fishes [the group of Rock-Fishes] abruptly disappear to the southward of the United States to reappear in the temperate and cold waters of western South America, is somewhat incorrect; they retire to greater depths under the tropics—that is all."

This statement may be true, but it is only guesswork. The southernmost limit of *Sebastodes* on the North American Coast is found in the Gulf of California (*Sebastodes sinensis*). The northern limit in South America is found in the Mejillones Islands, off Southern Peru. In other words, not a specimen has been taken between the tropic of Cancer and a point near that of Capricorn. Until we have information as to the habits of the tropical *Sebastodes*, we cannot say whether they retire. F. C.

[There are now in print illustrations of Pacific Rock-Fishes, taken at points less than ten degrees from the equator, which will before long enable Mr. Cramer to judge of the actual scientific value of the positive assertions he bases entirely on his lack of specimens or of knowledge.—Ed. Nation.]

HIRED GIRL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is not necessary to go back to former generations to find out the origin and use of the term "hired girl," as, on Cape Cod, Massachusetts, it is used by the inhabitants at the present time. The hired girl is usually the daughter of a neighbor; she takes her meals with the family, and is treated in every respect as an equal—as she is.

There are many other terms used on "The Cape," which I have never heard elsewhere. When a person is ill, and confined to his bed, they speak of him as being "sick in his naked bed." A thunder-storm is always called a tempest, etc. In 'The Raiders,' by S. R. Crockett, I noticed the term "naked bed." Why called "naked"? P.

Pau, France, March 19, 1896.

Notes.

Ginn & Co. will shortly bring out 'A Guide to the Study of American History,' by Profs. Edward Channing and Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University.

Mr. William Astor Chanler's 'Through Jungle and Desert,' in northeastern Africa, namely; the private correspondence of Ernest and Henrietta Renan, under the title, 'Brother and Sister'; and 'The Geographical Distribution of Mammals,' by R. Lyddeker, are just forthcoming from Macmillan & Co.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. are about to issue 'Four-Handed Folk,' by Olive Thorne Miller; 'Spring Notes from Tennessee,' by Bradford Torrey; the fourth, unfinished, volume of the late Prof. Herbert Tuttle's 'History of Prussia'; 'The Expansion of Religion,' by Dr. Donald, the successor of Phillips Brooks; and 'Pirate Gold,' by F. J. Stimson.

'Motion Songs for Public Schools,' by Miss Mabel L. Pray, photographically illustrated, will be issued immediately by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A play which has had the rare distinction of being represented in this city within a few months in four languages, and by three of the most eminent living actresses, Sudermann's "Heimath," has just been admirably translated for the "Sock and Buskin Library" of Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, by Mr. Charles E. A. Winslow. It has been beautifully printed at the University Press in Cambridge, and tastefully bound. The title, "Magda," is that under which this very modern drama is given by the incomparable Duse, whom no one should neglect to see in a rôle so well adapted to her power to move and to charm. The reading of Mr. Winslow's refined translation will be a most valuable preliminary.

Mr. William Kent, author of 'The Mechanical Engineer's Pocket Book' (John Wiley & Sons) is evidently well qualified by talent and

experience for his task, and his book, for industrial engineers at least, is well in advance of any of its predecessors, as Molesworth, Haswell, or Nystrom. In the thousand or more closely printed pages dealing with general or mechanical engineering matters there seems to be little or nothing either superfluous or criticisable. While the book deals to only a small extent with matters purely electrical, the main body of the matter contained in it is of nearly as great value to electrical engineers as to their mechanical brethren. It is unfortunate that the few pages (less than fifty) which relate distinctively to electricity do not contain a better selection; and while we cannot expect all knowledge to be contained in one book, we must regret the admission of doubtful matter in a province with which the author can scarcely be expected to have an intimate acquaintance. Reward awaits the man with the necessary ability, experience, and industry to compile an electrical engineer's book as satisfactory in its special field as is Kent's book in the mechanical field. The typography of this volume is remarkably good.

The appearance, in an eighth edition, of Legouvé's 'Histoire Morale des Femmes' (Paris: Hetzel) reminds us anew how unfailingly the charm of literary beauty may be relied upon to save from oblivion works otherwise mainly of temporary interest. It should be said, however, that only part of the claims advanced in this eloquent plea for justice to woman—first published nearly half a century ago—have since been realized. The gracious and high-minded author of the book, now the Nestor of French Academicians, may therefore hope to see its influence continue among the younger generations. As a chapter from the history of civilization in France the work may well be read with interest and profit.

That Georges Ohnet is not a literary artist has been repeated *ad nauseam* by every French critic who values his own reputation. That he cannot write like the author of 'Le Lys Rouge,' or the author of 'Les Demi-Vierges,' or the author of 'La Cendre,' has become a truism repeated in every *chronique littéraire*. He is sentimental, wishy-washy, flabby, namby-pamby, and all the rest of it. Nevertheless, his books sell nearly as well, if not quite as well, as those of Zola, and 'Le Maître de Forges' is a success on the English and on the American stage, and not a failure on the French. Ohnet has written poor work, it is true, but he has also done good work, and at least he knows how to write a novel which is interesting without being obscene or sensual, which contains well-drawn characters not analyzed to weariness, and can tell a story bright enough to be read from start to finish without a pause. Such a story, and forcible withal, is 'La Fille du Député' (Paris: Paul Ollendorf), somewhat romanesque, and introducing the now almost inevitable priest, though in modest fashion, a very charming figure of a young girl who does not put passion above duty, a young Frenchman wonderfully like a decent American or clean-run Englishman, and a capital Socialist Deputy, most faithfully depicted as to his convictions and inconsistencies.

'Le Roi Apépi,' by Victor Cherbuliez (Paris: Borel), is a brilliant little novel, with all its author's qualities in evidence. The subject is by no means new: the rescue of a fine young fellow from the hands of a designing woman. The rescuer is a delightful old diplomat, clever, cool, and witty, who circumvents intriguing mother and fascinating daughter, and brings about their total discomfiture. The novel is not one to be read because it is naughty, for it is not this, but simply because it is a capital story, very well told by a very clever writer.

The Comtesse de Martel, whom everybody knows as "Gyp," the audacious, the amusing "Gyp," has given us another book, 'Le Bonheur de Ginette' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), which, however, is not in any respect up to 'Le Mariage de Chiffon,' though the heroine recalls at times that very attractive young lady. It is a work which disappoints us when two-thirds read, for just there Gyp goes off into the tiresome old beaten track of illicit love, though Ginette has up to this point shown too much force of character and individuality to render intelligible her fall from grace, common sense, and womanliness.

'Aus meinem Leben: Erinnerungen und Rückblicke' (Stuttgart: Nägele) is the fragment of an autobiography by the eminent naturalist Carl Vogt, who died in Geneva, Switzerland, on May 5, 1895. He was born in Giessen, July 5, 1817, and was descended from a long line of rough-hewn and sturdy ancestors, who belonged for the most part to what he calls "the honorable guild of butchers." The first chapter, entitled "Die Stammfamilien," is a series of realistic sketches of these rude and robust forefathers, with anecdotes illustrative of their character. Then follow three chapters on his native town and its inhabitants, the gymnasium and university, and his own experiences as a lad and a student. His strictures on the methods of instruction are severe and doubtless well deserved. Modern European history and literature were utterly ignored, and there was never the slightest intimation given in the school that such persons as Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller had ever existed. Vogt joined Agassiz and Desor at Neuchâtel in August, 1839, immediately after having taken his doctor's degree at Berne, where his father was professor of clinical medicine. He speaks in the highest terms of Agassiz's ability as a zoölogist, declaring that he never met a man endowed with equal talent in this department of natural science. The volume ends with Agassiz's departure for America in 1846. It was Prof. Vogt's intention to complete this autobiography, giving an account of his sojourn in Paris and Italy, his political activity during the Revolution of 1848, his subsequent scientific studies at Nice, and his life at Geneva, where he was appointed in 1852 to the chair of geology in the university of that city; but his death occurred before he found time to execute his plan.

Debes's 'Neuer Handatlas' (Leipzig: Wagner & Debes), which for some time has been appearing in *Lieferung* fashion, is now complete and becomes a sharp competitor of the other excellent atlases in Germany. That country naturally receives the most attention. The lands of the Empire and those neighboring from Paris to Russia, and from Jutland to Genoa, are treated in surprising detail on eleven double-page maps. Each of the other European countries is represented by one double page map; and twenty-two such maps are devoted to countries outside of Europe, many of them being more complete and exact than are to be found in almost any other work, *e. g.*, Palestine, Eastern Asia, and, more especially still, the German colonies. One map is devoted to North America, one to the United States, and one to the Eastern States of the Union. The climatological charts are worthy of special mention. The book is provided with an admirable index having over 150,000 geographical names. The mechanical preparation of the work is the very best in every particular. Like many other admirable German books, this atlas is sold at an astonishingly low price—thirty-two marks.

Pure science predominates in the *Geographical Journal* for March. In the opening article Prof. J. Milne treats of the movements of the earth's crust, with special reference to his observations of earthquakes during a twenty years' residence in Japan. These have had unexpectedly practical results in demonstrating the value of certain methods of building, by following which "the security of life and property is greater than it was in former years" in that country. The Government has established a bureau for earthquake investigation with 928 stations, and has endowed a chair of seismology at its university. Next follow an account of the researches of the Swedish oceanographers on the movements of the surface waters of the North Sea, and a description, by Mr. W. L. Sclater, of the geographical distribution of the mammals of the Ethiopian region. Each of these papers is illustrated with diagrams and charts. There is also a map of Siam showing the recent treaty boundaries as well as the French and English spheres of influence, and a communication from Prince Henry of Orleans, narrating his remarkable journey from China to India. His route was the shortest and most direct between the two countries, and has long been searched for by Englishmen without success, but it proves, unfortunately, not to be "practicable for trade."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains a vivacious account by Miss M. W. Kingsley of some incidents in her recent extraordinary journey in western equatorial Africa. She gives very graphic pictures of the abundant animal life on the Ogowé River—hippos, elephants, and crocodiles—of the swamp through which she waded for two hours "up to our chins all the time, and came out with a sort of astrachan collar of leeches," and of her Fan companions, whose cannibalistic propensities she describes with a cynical humor. The most interesting incident was an encounter with five gorillas, two of whom were "well over six feet." "When they passed from one plantain-tree to another across the clear ground, they waddled along in a most inelegant style, dragging their long arms knuckle downwards on the ground." But when disturbed, they displayed an amazing celerity. "I have seen various wild animals one time and another in their native wilds, but I have never seen anything so grand as a gorilla going through the forest. It is a powerful, graceful, superbly perfect trapeze performance." Sir D. P. Chalmers, recently Chief Justice of British Guiana, contributes an interesting sketch of that colony. He believes that its value lies "rather in its resources than in their actual present development." Though the sugar industry has declined, yet the export of gold has increased from 250 ounces in 1884 to 122,935 ounces in 1895.

The first four parts of *Biographische Blätter* (Berlin: Ernst Hofmann & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) compose volume one, and prove a worthy conception to have been worthily carried out. The "portraits" or sketches are mostly of Germans, and in the table of contents we remark one Englishman (Browning), one American (Holmes), one Russian (Bakunin), two Italians (Cagliostro and Pio IX., queer bedfellows), and half-a-dozen Frenchmen. There is considerable diversity in the matter. In part ii., for example, is a series of interesting letters from and to William von Humboldt, including one from Prof. G. F.

Welcker of Bonn, pointing out Rousseau's 'Héloïse' as the source of Schiller's song to Emma, and of the beautiful chapel scene with the corpse of Ottilie in Goethe's 'Elective Affinities' (*Die Wahlverwandtschaften*). In part iv. we meet with two letters of the late Karl Hillebrand on reading as a means of culture, with a systematic outline, and five letters of E. M. Arndt's, written from 1844 to 1849. The *B. Blätter* is handsomely printed in the Roman letter.

In the last number of *Cosmopolis* there is a somewhat curious article by Herr E. Engel—an "appreciation" of the French Symbolist poets which lacks nothing in point of severity. Mr. Engel does not admit that the poets of the Symbolist group have any talent whatsoever. He makes, indeed, or half makes, an exception in the case of Verlaine, since he admires even profoundly the poem that begins:

"Il pleure dans mon cœur
Comme il pleut sur la ville."

But this he thinks is the only true lyric that Verlaine ever wrote. As to the rest, the younger men, like Maeterlinck, get but hard measure; they are nothing but so many "fumistes," and their vogue is due solely to the wilful obscurity of their work.

About a month ago the *Figaro* published an enlarged reproduction of the new model for French postage-stamps, for which a commission was given, under the ministry of M. André Lebon, to M. Grasset, the decorative artist. This showed a certain dryness in its design and execution which recalled the work of some of the old wood-engravers; but its archaism was too plainly a result of force of will and of main strength to be entirely pleasing. Since then both *L'Illustration* and the *Revue Encyclopédique* have given facsimiles of the new stamp unenlarged. In these the work of M. Grasset is seen to much better advantage: the figure of France in it losing its stiffness, and becoming much more youthful and graceful. But this amelioration came too late to save the stamp. M. Grasset's drawing has been rejected by the Ministry, and another trial is to be made.

Lilies and morning-glories and passion-flowers, with many spring flowers, furnish forth the customary Easter output of colored booklets and cards by L. Prang & Co. They are adapted to many tastes and purses.

The recent action of the Congregation at Oxford, and of the Senate at Cambridge, in regard to granting women students B.A. degrees, as a matter of fact leaves the whole question of degrees for women *in statu quo*. At Cambridge there was no opposition to the resolution providing for a syndicate to inquire into the whole subject, the opposition having gathered its forces to defeat the second "grace," nominating the syndicate, which was rejected by only 186 votes to 171, and this on the score that some of the members were too closely identified with Girton and Newnham Colleges. At Oxford a more reactionary spirit prevailed: the various resolutions about degrees, diplomas, and certificates were rejected one after another, and resolution No. 5 (framed by the opponents of any recognition of residence or the complete course of study for women), providing for a diploma for any and every examination, was lost by only the narrow majority of 4 (140 to 136). It is not difficult to read between the lines of resolutions, debates, and votes, and to see that both Oxford and Cambridge must, in the near future, grant their degrees to those women whom they have instructed, examined, and endorsed.

It is announced that the "Antigone" of Sophocles will be represented at Athens this year, during the celebration of the Olympic Games. It will be performed in the theatre of Dionysos, at the foot of the Acropolis, where very likely it may have been heard centuries ago. A committee, composed of competent persons, is at present engaged in arranging for the music of the play and the *mise en scène*, as well as in putting the ruined stage and amphitheatre into the best condition possible for the representation. The tragedy will be played by amateurs, students and composers.

The *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, published in Boston by the Society bearing a corresponding name, which was incorporated in 1845, has now entered upon its fiftieth volume. Its indispensableness to all who engage in genealogical research is known to the well informed, and a complete set is a desideratum for every public library. Its indexing began in a day when the art was ill understood and little appreciated, and only within the past half-dozen years has it been competent. It is now proposed to make a consolidated index to the whole series, "comprising subjects, places, and persons," the last arranged by Christian names as well as by surnames. The mere compilation will cost $3,000, but the Society foresees no difficulty in raising the funds for printing if the preparation is secured. It accordingly invites contributions to the sum named in any amount, and will make a beginning when $1,000 has been subscribed. Communications and contributions may be addressed to John Ward Dean, editor of the *Register*, at 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

—The fine edition of the Works of Edgar Allan Poe (Chicago: Stone & Kimball) is now complete in ten volumes, five of tales, four of literary criticism and miscellaneous writings, and one of poems. Mr. Woodberry's notes on the criticisms supply names of periodicals in which the articles appeared, dates, and in fact all the information that can be desired by the most curious. Longfellow's letter, exculpating himself from the charge of plagiarizing Motherwell's ballad, "Bonnie George Campbell," shows that Poe might have gathered from the New England poet some salutary ideas about his own specialty—taste in literary composition. With the notes on the poems a complete variorum is printed for the first time, the editors having thought this desirable, "partly because there is no such illustration in literature of the elaboration of poetry through long-continued and minute verbal processes, and partly because so large a portion of the verse written by Poe perished in those processes." Mr. Stedman's introductions to these two divisions of the Works are as interesting, thoughtful, and discriminating as is that to the Tales. For the preservation of Poe's critical writings apart from those which deal with what it is art's function to express and the technique of expression, he gives perhaps the only very good reason, saying that though they might not have been worth much if produced in any other period, "in consideration of the man and the time—as a part of our literary history—they have a very decided value." After considering the nature and quality of Poe's lyrical genius and the violently different opinions about it expressed by authoritative writers, Mr. Stedman concludes definitely that "a distinctive melody is the element in Poe's verse that first and last has told on every class of readers—a rhythmical effect which, be it of much or little worth, was its author's own; and to add even one constituent to the resources of an art is what few succeed in doing." The bibliography of English and foreign editions is careful, and even the index has not been slighted. If a glimpse of the edition could be wafted to the poet, "within the distant Aidenn," the perfection of its make-up might almost persuade him to forgive the unflattering justice of some of the comments on his life and works.

—In the latest Report (1892–93) of the Commissioner of Education, which has just been distributed, we notice some special features, besides the usual elaborate statistics and compilations. First of all, the whole of Part II., covering 800 pages, is devoted to "Education and the World's Columbian Exposition," under which general heading are given programmes, addresses, papers, and notes on educational matters as far as related to the Exposition; furthermore, reports and comments on the educational exhibits and topics suggested thereby, by several American and foreign authorities. Among the latter, Dr. Emil Hausknecht's article on the American System of Education, and Prof. A. Riedler's on American Technological Schools, are noteworthy as productions of thoroughly competent and strikingly impartial observers. Then, the large number of papers read by eminent librarians before the World's Library Congress are here gathered into a valuable set. Prof. Hinsdale of Ann Arbor contributes to the Report a series of documents relating to earlier American educational history, dealing mainly with legislative and constitutional provisions—a useful compilation, since many of the documents are drawn from sources not easily accessible to students. The Commissioner has also incorporated in his official volumes the now famous Report of the "Committee of Ten," with comments thereon by leading educators (vol. ii., chap. 2); and, considering the prominent place which this educational classic—for so it may well be termed—assigns to the study of geography, it seems appropriate that a special chapter (vol. i., chap. 7) has been devoted to recent developments in the teaching of that subject in the principal European countries. Finally, a complete subject-index to all the papers read before the National Educational Association since its first organization is to be mentioned as a valuable part of this Government publication.

—Gaston Boissier has suffered many things at the hands of a translator of his 'Promenades Archéologiques: Rome et Pompéi.' The original is a pleasant book enough, made up of articles contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* between 1866 and 1876, and revised and corrected here and there in the course of the three or four editions through which it has passed in the French. In spite of the contradictions sure to attend upon such a plan (for example, the excavations of the temple and house of Vesta are described in the first part of the chapter on the Forum, while in the third we are told that the excavations have not yet progressed so far), yet the book has a charm of its own, and, without professing any great depth, it is still both useful and interesting to the general reader. In particular, the chapters on the Catacombs, on Hadrian's villa, and on Ostia contain matter which is not conveniently collected anywhere else in English. A good translation would therefore have been welcome. But Mr. D. H. Fisher's (under the title of 'Rome and Pompeii,' New York: Putnams), in its stiffness and dearth of idiom, reads almost like the effort of a schoolboy. "Tribune

of harangues" (*tribune aux harangues*), "an ingenious machine to shorten the work of plan-raising" (*une machine ingénieuse pour abréger le travail de la levée des plans*), and "the memory of Caligula is not less lively (*vivant*) on the Palatine"—such things are little more than transliterations. Delphic oracles were nothing to such an utterance as "the right of the jolly fullers was privileged to amuse the people," while Dionysius and the Dioscuri, masquerading under their French names of Denys and Dioscures, awaken the suspicion that Mr. Foster is not over-familiar with ancient literature. This suspicion becomes a conviction when we find *Ancyrae* for *Ancyra*, *virginis* for *virginio;* and *oculos* for *oculis* in Ovid's famous verse—

"Inque oculis facinus barbara mater habet."

And Scylla for Sylla caps the climax—for we are willing to suppose that "parson" is a mere misprint for "person" in the description of the well-known caricature of the Crucifixion.

—From the records of the Roman Inquisition, preserved in Trinity College, Dublin, supplemented by documents in the Venetian archives, Count Ugo Balzani has put together, clearly and instructively, a very curious and interesting story regarding the remains of Fra Paolo, which is printed in the *Rendiconti della R. Accademia dei Lincei*. When Sarpi died, in 1622, the Signoria proposed to honor him with magnificent obsequies and a monument, but his Servite brethren preferred to bury him secretly, fearing, in view of some attempts to steal the body, that it might in future be exposed to indignities. Its place of interment was forgotten until, at the end of a hundred years, in 1722, it was discovered and identified in the course of some repairs to the altar of Our Lady of Sorrows in the Servite convent. Except in the portion of the head wounded in the attempted assassination of Sarpi, it manifested the attribute of sanctity in the absence of decay, and popular devotion was not slow in exhibiting itself; miracles speedily began to multiply as cures were sought through supplications for his suffrage, and votive tablets recording them were hung up. When the body was returned to its coffin it was accompanied with a parchment, signed by the prior and brethren of the convent, attesting its identity and lauding his merits.

—News of this untoward event was conveyed to Rome, where the Inquisition and the Servite General at once exerted themselves to neutralize its dangerous tendencies. The Papal Nuncio, the Inquisitor at Venice, and the Servite Provincial, Padre Bertolli, were ordered to use every influence with the Signoria to put a stop to these uncanonical proceedings, and more especially to have the body transferred to the common sepulture of the brethren, where its identity should be irrecoverably lost. Active correspondence and still more active intrigues were set on foot, which were partially successful. The Signoria gave the Servites to understand that the miraculous cures must cease; the parchment was replaced with a less laudatory inscription on paper, and the coffin was securely fastened with locks, of which the keys were retained by the authorities. A woman named Gabrielli, who had been cured by Sarpi's intercession, was induced, through her Carmelite confessor, to withdraw a votive tablet which she had suspended. Politic deference to Rome led the magistracy to yield thus far, but it steadfastly refused to undergo the humiliation of treating with indignity the corpse of the great citizen who had incurred the undying hostility of the Curia by his defence of the sovereignty of the Republic. In this it was firm, and, when the Provincial Bertolli made himself too objectionable by his persistent intrigues to effect it, he received a peremptory order to leave Venice. In communicating this to his General, he sought to enhance the merits of his persecution by the unhappy device of forging a letter of condolence to himself from the secretary of the Supreme Tribunal. A rumor of this got out, the Government arrested him in Padua, and, on his confessing the forgery, condemned him to five years' imprisonment "in uno de' quattro cameroti all' oscuro." Venetian dungeons were not salubrious; he was released after three years, broken in health and fortune, to get scanty relief from the Holy See, which did not care at the moment to arouse the susceptibilities of the Republic.

DODGE'S 'GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.'

Gustavus Adolphus: A History of the Art of War from its revival after the Middle Ages to the end of the Spanish Succession War, with a detailed account of the Campaigns of the great Swede, and of the most famous Campaigns of Turenne, Condé, Eugene, and Marlborough. With 237 illustrations in charts, plans of battle, armor, etc. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Bt.-Lieut.-Col., U. S. A., retired, etc., etc. [Great Captains.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 864.

THE 'Gustavus Adolphus' is the fourth in the important series of military memoirs from Colonel Dodge's pen. Each has been a welcome contribution to military history in English dress. The last is not least in the series, for a satisfactory connected treatment of the period outlined in the title-page has not been easily within reach of the English reader. Half the volume is devoted to Gustavus; and after the death of the Swedish King in the battle of Lützen, there follows a briefer narrative of the remaining campaigns of the Thirty Years' War and of the latter half of the seventeenth and the first decade of the eighteenth century.

It is more or less an arbitrary selection which limits the number of great captains to six. Some of the forgotten names of all ages may be quite as worthy of the distinction as Gustavus, and among those of his own century who are made subordinate in rank to Gustavus, it is fairly debatable whether Turenne and Marlborough were not quite as great generals as the Swede. The passion for classification is a universal human trait, of every age and clime. The sacred numbers were known before Pythagoras. Trinities are found in every department of nature. We group things in sevens because there are seven days in the week, or in dozens or half-dozens on the pattern of the signs of the zodiac or the number of the holy apostles. There is something of sophism, or at least of question-begging, in every such selection of a group.

It is noticeable, also, that each of the selected half-dozen is a sovereign ruler, except Hannibal; and his distant separation from Carthage made his case very like that of an independent prince waging war on his own account. This means more than at first meets the eye. Turenne's greatness was in spite of being often thwarted by Mazarin and Louvois, as Marlborough's was often clipped by the vetoes of the Dutch Deputies. The King-General, like Gustavus, or Frederick, or Napoleon, was "The State" in Louis the Fourteenth's sense, and his military plans ruled the State policy instead of being subordinated to it. To compare Turenne to Gustavus in any satisfactory way, we must make full allowance for this subordination to the civil power, and estimate his accomplishment with careful consideration of the limitations on his power and his means. Did he show as much resource and ability in view of these limitations? is the question. The problem is not easy to solve, but, as we study his action and his thought, his executive energy and courage, with his aims and ideas, we get to feeling that Turenne was a leader one would love to follow with an enthusiastic confidence to the full as great as could be felt for Gustavus; and it is very much so with Marlborough also.

Colonel Dodge is of the opinion that Prince Eugene has been belittled by English writers in his association with Marlborough. It may be so, and in that case a judicial criticism of the actual offenders would have historical value. To carry weight, however, the criticism must be really judicial. The Colonel says: "It is because we English-speaking peoples slur over the deeds of all but our own heroes that we are wont to make Marlborough the only General of his day" (p. 711); and while he says also that "all nations suffer from want of perspective in gauging their own military history," he adds, "but we Anglo-Saxons are almost the worst offenders." Our reading of military history does not bring us to the conclusion here stated, even in the case used as an illustration—that of Waterloo. It would seem, rather, that whoever reads the French, German, and English histories, although they will agree that there is a good deal of human nature in men of all nations, will also conclude that there is no specially bad eminence for the "Anglo-Saxon." But that discussion would take us too far afield. Colonel Dodge's remarks are apropos of his estimate of Marlborough's strategy in marching from the Low Countries to join Eugene on the Danube and fight the battle of Blenheim. He says:

"It is quite inaccurate to call Marlborough's unopposed march an unheard-of enterprise. . . . The bald fact is that Marlborough marched to the Danube because, as all the military world knew, he was needed there; but he does not even appear to have had any immediate strategic objective. He was only, like the true soldier he was, marching to the sound of the guns. In common with the others, he saw that the allied cause could be best helped on the Danube, because the French were most seriously threatening this section."

This extract bristles with evidence that, in his advocacy of Prince Eugene, the author strangely misjudges Marlborough's strategy, and "suffers from want of perspective." Historians of repute do not generally speak of Marlborough's march as "an unheard-of enterprise," but they call it a very brilliant piece of strategy, which proved him to be a general of the larger kind and not merely a "battle-captain." He could have had plenty of work nearer his camp. In the Palatinate and in Alsace he could have found enemies for the seeking; but he chose to give them the slip and make a flank march past them, half across Europe, to reach decisive results instead of partial ones.

But it was "unopposed"! So are all strategic marches proper. Was Napoleon opposed in his march from Boulogne to Ulm, or over the Alps to Marengo? The strategy in its very essence *consists* in the wise transfer of an

army "unopposed" to the decisive and advantageous terrain of battle which the general has chosen in advance. If he fought his way there, it would lose the name as well as the character of a strategic movement. As Jomini well states the principle: "Il est un principe essentiel dont il ne faut jamais s'écarter à la guerre: c'est de marcher au point stratégique décisif avant de combattre, et de n'engager l'affaire que quand on est parvenu à s'en rendre maître." (*Hist. des guerres de la Rév.*, L. III., ch. x.).

Again, Marlborough marched "because, as all the military world knew, he was needed there": he saw this "in common with the others." Then why did not the others meet him on the way, when the French had sixty thousand men along the Rhine to his thirty thousand? It is rare that the warmth of advocacy so blinds an author that he contradicts what he has said on the preceding page; but in his zeal to belittle Marlborough Col. Dodge has done this, unless the French were not in "the military world." He had just said:

"Becoming aware of his advance, the French *seemed to lose their heads;* they grew fearful for their Alsatian fortresses, particularly Landau, and quickly concentrated here from the Netherlands, the Moselle, and the Middle Rhine all the troops of Villeroi, Coigny, and Tallard, nearly sixty thousand in the aggregate, to check Marlborough, *whose intention they could not divine.*"

The words we have italicised tell the story. Marlborough's strategy was the splendid success "the military world" has always taken it to be, and he marched from Coblentz up the Rhine to the Neckar and thence over the watershed into the Danube valley "unopposed." That was no small part of his glory. The victory of Blenheim consummated it.

Col. Dodge knows all this as well as anybody, but he is suffering momentarily from the psychological effects of warm advocacy of Eugene, and these disturb his vision as to Marlborough. This becomes still more plain if we compare his treatment of the two generals in their respective campaigns of 1705. The outline of Eugene's campaign was this: He was ordered to Italy with 28,000 men, to cooperate with the Duke of Savoy, who was with difficulty holding the French, under Marshal Vendôme, at bay at Turin. The latter had a large army scattered in garrisons, so that he took the field against Eugene with inferior numbers, often with less than half. He blocked the way against Eugene on the west side of Lake Garda, between the mountains and the lake, and held him there for a month. Leaving a subordinate in command, Vendôme went about other business. Eugene turns the left of the forces in his front, and marches to Brescia and on to Romanengo. This brought Vendôme back, who stopped Eugene's progress. The latter did not offer battle, but resorted to manœuvring. Vendôme out-manœuvred him, checking him at every turn. On the 10th of August Eugene stole away by a night march, hoping to cross the upper Adda and approach Turin that way. Vendôme overtook him and again barred the way with 9,000 men. Eugene stole back, hoping to crush a detachment Vendôme had left at Cassano, but the latter foiled him again and faced him in a position difficult of approach. Eugene attacked with more than double numbers, but was repulsed and himself wounded in a bloody combat. For two months now the armies remained face to face, when Eugene tried another flank march, was again checked, and Vendôme captured Soncino and its garrison under his nose. The Prince now gave it up, and early in November started for winter quarters near Mantua. Vendôme again headed him, and forced him back to the west side of Lake Garda where he began in the spring.

Col. Dodge's comments on this are all apologetic. He concludes that "Eugene had done well for the Duke of Savoy. He had kept Vendôme so busy that he could not besiege Turin; and while he had not been able to join his ally, he had accomplished the spirit of his task if not the letter."

Let us turn now to Marlborough's campaign of the same season in the Netherlands. By the plan agreed upon among the allies, Marlborough and the Prince of Baden were to have operated together from the line of the Moselle and Saar. The forces, by the fault of the Governments, were not forthcoming by midsummer, and Marlborough was called back to meet a vigorous advance of the French army under Villeroi, who had brilliantly taken the initiative there, capturing Huy by assault and besieging the citadel of Liège. On his approach the French raised the siege and withdrew within the entrenched lines of the Méhaigne, which, according to the theories of those days, were regarded as nearly impregnable. Marlborough manœuvred to mislead Villeroi as to his point of attack, succeeded, and carried the lines by a brilliant assault at Léau. The French fell back behind the River Dyle. Marlborough planned an attack there, and opened with preliminary success, when the Dutch commanders flatly refused to go on. He manœuvred Villeroi back to Waterloo, and had issued his orders for attack when the Dutch Deputies interposed their veto.

Nothing can be plainer than that Marlborough was master of the situation, and performed beyond criticism everything devolving upon a general, but was thwarted by the civil authorities, who had a veto upon his operations. But how does his treatment by our author compare with that of Eugene? It must be said that it is studied depreciation. We are told:

"This campaign must be pronounced a failure. Though it is true that the Duke was not to blame for his lack of support, and had many things to contend against, yet these are the same conditions which neutralized the best efforts of many another general of his era. And though, as is so often asserted, it is true that Marlborough never lost a battle or failed to take a place he laid siege to, it is also true that, from one or another cause, he conducted as many barren campaigns as any of the other generals whom we place in the same rank with himself."

This is not judicial. Contrasted with the apologies for Eugene's campaign of the same year, the bias is too evident. It is intimated, but not asserted, that this was a "barren campaign" from some lack of generalship on Marlborough's part. Nothing could well be further from the fact. There is also a strong suggestion without assertion that the lack of support from the civil authorities was a more or less doubtful apology for deficiencies of his own. The detailed evidence in the English authorities would make it impossible for any intelligent critic to assert this openly. Every military student has a warm side for Prince Eugene, but it is doing him an ill service to seek to make him Marlborough's equal by pooh poohing the latter's generalship.

We have commented on what is almost the only blemish in a large book, full of most interesting and clear narrative of military campaigns. The task Col. Dodge has already accomplished in his four fine volumes might well be a life-work for an industrious man. The present one is an advance upon earlier ones in the system of map illustration. A general chart of central Europe is folded at the back of the book, while outline sketch maps of each campaign are found in the text, with still more detailed plans of battles numerously interspersed. These are uniform in style and artistically neat, adding very greatly to the ease and comfort with which the reader follows the chain of events.

When so much valuable material is given, it is almost ungracious to criticise the composition, and yet there is an impression of haste, if not of occasional carelessness, which detracts a little from the weight the book should have. In these days of stenographers and type-writers revision is necessary to prevent the impression that rapid composition may mean ill-considered substance. It is a little startling to find an event located "way beyond the Isar." The use of the singular form "victual" instead of "victuals" is plainly intentional, but does not seem an improvement on the established usage. "To collect victual," "hard up for victual," "depôts of victual," are phrases that jar on the ear. For a general term, "food" is ready for use, with its half-dozen synonyms in single words or phrases.

GERMAN AND ENGLISH COMMERCE IN ELIZABETH'S TIME.

Hamburg und England im Zeitalter der Koenigin Elisabeth. Von Dr. Richard Ehrenberg. Jena: Gustav Fischer. 1896. 8vo, pp. viii, 362.

THIS learned monograph, while addressed to specialists, contains much to interest the general public. The body of it gives a detailed account of the devious methods by which the city of Hamburg, in the second half of the sixteenth century, endeavored to secure the benefits of trade with England while avoiding an open breach with the other cities of the Hanseatic League, which were, at the same time, engaged in a bitter struggle with the English Government. The introduction consists of a graphic recital of the various causes which enabled England to wrest the supremacy of commerce from Germany, the most important of these causes being the energy and boldness of English statesmen, combined with the lack of unity among the Germans.

The commercial ascendancy which England has enjoyed for now more than three centuries is so familiar a fact that most people will learn with surprise that at the beginning of the modern era Germany surpassed England not only in culture, but also in population, in wealth, and in commerce. The reports of the Venetian ambassadors—the principal authority for the period—are unanimous in stating that at the end of the sixteenth century the population of Germany was twice as dense as that of England. The population of England and Wales was estimated at two millions and a half, which would make its density about equal to that of European Russia of to-day, not including Poland and Finland. In the matter of cash capital Germany was in like manner superior. The richest English merchants were estimated to be worth from $250,000 to $300,000, while German firms possessing that amount were considered as being in the second rank. As far back as 1546 the great German house of the Fuggers possessed a fortune of more than four millions of dollars, as appears from their account-books, still in existence. Up to the outbreak of the troubles

in the Netherlands, the English Crown had to place its loans in Antwerp, there not being wealth enough in England. The German merchants, on the other hand, controlled so much surplus capital that for a long course of years they supplied the sinews of war not only to their own Emperor but to his enemies, the kings of France, as well as to most of the European potentates, including the rulers of England.

The standard of living was much higher in Germany than in England, and there was greater luxury in dress and more comfort in habitation. In agriculture, too, Germany was more advanced; the only agricultural industry in which England excelled was sheep-raising, and that was promoted by an extensive enclosure of commons accompanied by wholesale evictions of farmers. Still greater was the preponderance of Germany in mining. Henry VIII. made repeated attempts to induce German operators to come to England and develop its mineral wealth. It was not till the time of Elizabeth that these efforts resulted in the formation of a company of Augsburg merchants with whom were associated a number of English capitalists headed by two of Elizabeth's greatest statesmen, William Cecil and Lord Leicester. It was from the imported German mechanics that the English learned how to conduct the iron industry profitably. In 1528 a German merchant was appointed by the King as "principal surveyor and master of all mines in England and Ireland." In 1560 Thomas Gresham induced an association of German merchants to undertake the urgently needed reform of the English coinage.

Germany was, at that time, in as great a degree as England is to-day, the land of machines and inventions. John Owen, an English Latin poet, published epigrams in 1612 in which he satirized the Germans as being highly skilled in pursuits and inventions which required manual expertness rather than in such as called for acuteness of intellect. This calumny elicited a refutation from a German doctor, who extolled the power and wealth of Germany, and instanced as German inventions of a higher character the Roman Empire, gunpowder, the art of printing, the reform of religion, the medicines of Theophrastus Paracelsus, and the mysteries of the Rosicrucians.

Among the many branches of manufacture in which Germany surpassed England was the cotton industry, which did not exist at all in England down to the time of Elizabeth. What were known as cotton goods were really light-weight woollens. Cotton goods were largely exported from Germany to England, and it was at a later period that they were imitated at Bolton and Manchester and were long known under the name of fustians. It is true that England did a large export business in woollen goods; but English cloths and kerseys were only partly finished products, and had to be finished and dyed abroad, in spite of the great efforts made by the Government to foster the industry. From statistics prepared for Sir William Cecil it appears that in the year 1564-65 the total exports from England amounted to less than £1,100,000, of which more than four-fifths consisted of woollen cloths. German exports were much more varied. The most important class was that of metals and metal goods, especially copper, brass, and brass wire, iron and steel, together with a great variety of tools and implements. Without going too far into particulars, it will suffice to say that down to the middle of the sixteenth century Germany was far ahead of England along the whole line of economic development. Further, such trade as England had was to a great extent in the hands of foreigners; that is to say, foreigners did forty-two per cent. of the cloth export, fifty-four per cent. of the export of skins, twenty-two per cent. of the importation of wines, etc. The only branch entirely in English hands was the export of wool.

That England succeeded in wresting the supremacy from Germany Dr. Ehrenberg considers principally due to three causes: (1) the energetic and skilful activity of the English Government; (2) the growing technical and commercial capacity of the English people; (3) the geographical situation of England; but by far the most potent of these was the first. Germany, on the other hand, owed everything (1) to its great natural advantages, and (2) to the industry and dexterity of the middle class of the population. During the middle ages the kings and princes of Europe sacrificed the material welfare of their subjects in their struggles for political power; the cities strove for greater liberties and became the refuge of industry and commerce. If the cities of Germany were more successful in this endeavor than those of England, it was because the German citizen had reached a higher stage of culture, and partly because the princes of Germany were even more incapable than the kings of England of pursuing a wise commercial policy. It is to the free German cities and their union in the Hanseatic League that the commercial preponderance of Germany must be ascribed.

The accession of the house of Tudor at the close of the long wars of the Roses marked the turning point. The Tudors did so much for England because their policy was dictated by the wishes and interests of the nation, which recognized them as its born leaders and revered them with sentiments which are but imperfectly expressed by the word "loyalty." The power of the Crown reached its highest point. Its financial position was strengthened by its confiscation of church property, and, later on, by the readiness of the city of London to guarantee the loans which the Government placed among capitalists abroad. In their foreign policy the Tudors did not aim, like their predecessors and the princes of the Continent, at increase of territory and population, but rather attempted to procure advantageous treaties for the trade and industry of their people. Through long-continued and bitterly waged struggles with the protectionists of the Netherlands, they secured for English cloths the world-market of Antwerp. While in the middle of the fifteenth century England exported mostly coarse cloths and imported the finer grades from the Netherlands, and shipped its surplus stock of wool there to be worked up, the situation was completely reversed by the end of the sixteenth century. England still got a few coarse cloths from the Continent, but exported immensely of the finer sorts, and required so much wool for its manufacturing that it had to import quantities of it from abroad.

It would lead us too far to follow the author in his exposition of the unfailing vigilance bestowed by the Tudor "citizen kings" on the commercial progress of their subjects. He points out, among many other things, as illustrating the influence of merchants in the government, that Thomas Cromwell, Prime Minister under Henry VIII., was in his youth a merchant, while Sir Thomas Gresham, Cecil's right hand, was a merchant all his life. Concerning the important Guild of the Merchant Adventurers there are many interesting details. Some of their regulations still survive in commercial usages of the present day, in the constitutions of trades-unions, in the rules of the New York Stock Exchange. Readers interested in such inquiries will derive much profit from Dr. Ehrenberg's book; such as do not know German will find them treated in Professor Ashley's 'Introduction to English Economic History and Theory.'

THE KING'S PEACE.

The King's Peace: An Historical Sketch of the English Law Courts. By F. A. Inderwick. [Social England Series, edited by Kenelm D. Cotes.] Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE history of the English law courts, beginning with the *Curia Regis* and ending with the Supreme Court of Judicature, covers a period of eight centuries. Notwithstanding all the researches of scholars, our notions of Anglo-Saxon procedure are mainly conjectural. As Mr. Inderwick says: "If A owed B fifty pence, a trustworthy account of the precise course of procedure to be adopted by B to recover his money cannot be given." Anglo-Saxon law was mainly unwritten and customary law, administered by ecclesiastics, and when we speak to day of the common law being unwritten, it is because there once was a period when the great body of it rested in oral tradition handed down from father to son. This fact may explain, in part at least, the divergence between what Mr. Inderwick calls the lawyers' view of the English courts and that of "the philosophers," or, in other words, of the modern students of the Anglo-Saxon period. The lawyers' view—that taken by Coke and the fathers of our system—is usually summed up in the phrase that the King is "the fountain of justice." The philosophers, on the other hand (or some of them), insist that he was merely an overlord, whose decrees might be overridden by the freemen of the county court. Now, whatever view may be held as to the position of the Anglo-Saxon kings, the important question for us is what was the position of the King after the Norman conquest; and that he then became the source from which justice flowed, is shown by the fact that the courts were established by him. Every single important court of original jurisdiction of which we have any accurate knowledge, from that of the chancellor to that of the justice of the peace, is of royal origin. The courts which became established throughout England after the Conquest were the King's courts. The peace which they established was the King's peace, and in process of time these courts supplanted the old gemotes of the Saxons.

On the other hand, justice is older even than the Conquest, and unquestionably the new courts introduced and developed by William and his successors took many of the principles of justice as established locally throughout England and administered them. In other words, the Norman King introduced a new judicial machinery, but not new principles of common right; the ancient common law of Alfred survived and was perpetuated by the very machinery which was destined to blot out that of the Saxon courts. That the King was in the habit of allowing his decrees to be overridden by the freemen of the county court seems very unlikely; but that the King, sitting as a judge at Westminster, might lay down a rule for the disposition of a matter of private right, while at the distance of a day's journey a local custom might prescribe the exact opposite, is not only highly probable, but entirely in accord with everything that we know about our early

jurisprudence. The very notion of uniform law over a wide extent of territory was a novelty, and it is in great measure to the Norman kings that we owe it. This view of the matter seems to be borne out by the recent researches of Messrs. Pollock and Maitland. Mr. Inderwick treats the point as still open, but says that, for himself, he holds to the view of the lawyers.

The discussion of this point suggests another which writers on the history of the law frequently overlook, and that is that at no time during the whole 800 years has the law been a reasoned body of jurisprudence. If we take the law of any century as a test—even that of our own—we shall find that, side by side with principles based on reason and utility, are rules which owe their origin to custom, to superstition, and to accident, to say nothing of others, imbedded in the law for centuries, the explanation of the meaning of which has been completely lost in the lapse of time. When we hear that one T., tried for and acquitted of the murder of Mary A., has an appeal of battle brought against him by the girl's brother in the King's Bench, and that all the judges order a battle to be fought in their presence, but that, the appellant crying craven, judgment is again given in favor of T., we are carried back to the days of Ashby de la Zouche and Richard I.; but all this actually happened in 1818, and it was when George III. was King that the aid of Parliament had to be invoked to change the law. Even to-day the imputation of unchastity to a woman will not, by the common law, sustain an action of slander, and judges are constrained to enforce the rule while deploring its existence, and confessing themselves unable to explain its introduction. Vice-versa, in the most primitive period we are continually coming across proof that our ancestors applied rational rules just as we do, though side by side with them we find practices and customs founded upon the grossest superstition. At p. 19 Mr. Inderwick gives some examples of ancient oaths in civil cases. In an action for what we should call breach of warranty of the soundness of a horse, the plaintiff swears, "In the name of Almighty God, thou didst engage to me sound and clean that which thou soldest to me, and full security against afterclaims on the witness of N., who was then with us two." N. then makes oath to the fact for which he is called to vouch. Nothing could be more modern or rational than this; it is exactly the kind of proof that we should ourselves resort to if the art of writing were suddenly lost. Yet with our ancestors and their judges this was merely one kind of proof. Another, equally good, in criminal cases, was the oath of the accused, supported by that of his friends that they believed his oath; another the ordeal by water, the probative effect of sinking being to establish innocence—of floating, guilt (p. 21). Facts like these perpetually warn us against assuming that logical analysis has ever explained or will ever finally explain the law as a whole.

Mr. Inderwick's volume brings out in an interesting way the continuity of judicial administration in England from the time of the Confessor, and the strictly professional character of the bar, historically. The serjeant, for instance, was the King's servant-at-law, as assistant of the *Court* in the administration of justice, owing duty at once to the client and to the judge. This fact, which is the key to many of the riddles of professional ethics, is a sufficient answer to Lord Brougham's remarkable rhodomontade on the subject of its being the first duty of a lawyer to forget every obligation in the world except that to his client. The ancient professional character of the bar is at the bottom of the old and sound rule forbidding lawyers to take cases on contingent fees, and not to solicit employment—rules entirely broken down in this community, to its own great loss.

A history of the English courts brings up so many interesting points that it is impossible in a brief notice to do justice to a volume like Mr. Inderwick's. 'The King's Peace' is not literally an alternative title, because one or two ecclesiastical jurisdictions are included, while on the other hand the very important appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords is not treated at all. A chapter on the obsolete Courts of the Forest possesses much curious interest, and the subject of judicial costume furnishes a topic for several pages, which, in view of the fact that we have begun to go back to costume, even at the corner of Eighteenth Street and Fifth Avenue, is worth the attention of attorneys and counsellors. How many people are aware, one wonders, that the professional costume of England to-day includes the "bands of the Commonwealth" and the head-dress of the Restoration, which have no more to do with the traditional legal costume than the ruffs of Elizabeth or the lace collars of Charles I. (p. 205)—or that, by a very perversity of conservatism, the head-dress now the characteristic of the advocate and the judge was in the seventeenth century worn alike by kings and courtiers, by clergymen and by soldiers, by Jeffreys on the bench and by Titus Oates in the dock? In conclusion it may afford some consolation to the professional reader to know that, bad as legal business is to-day, it was so far worse in the time of Edward VI. that Westminster Hall was in part converted into a market; while during the reign of Mary the Common Pleas had but one serjeant and the Queen's Bench but one counsellor—a desertion of the courts which is said to have been due to the same causes which led to the remarkable spectacle of learned gentlemen appearing in court to argue, it may be, some such matter as a demurrer or a plea in bar, in plate armor—a costume sternly indicative of the underlying principle that the King's peace must be preserved, even if it had to be fought for.

Greenland Icefields and Life in the North Atlantic; with a new discussion of the causes of the Ice Age. By G. Frederick Wright and Warren Upham. Appletons. 1896. 8vo, pp. xvi, 407. Illustrated.

Handbook of Arctic Discoveries. By A. W. Greely. [Columbian Knowledge Series No. 3.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896. Small 8vo, pp. x, 257, 11 maps, 1 portrait.

THE larger of these two volumes, 'Greenland Icefields,' contains material of three kinds, which may be respectively summarized as a description, physical and geographic, of Greenland and its surroundings; an account of the Esquimaux; and contributions to the foundations and theory of glacial geology. To the first belong chapters i.-v. and vii.-ix.; chapter x. is devoted to the Greenland Esquimaux, who are curiously designated as of the "North Atlantic," an ocean few of them have ever set eyes upon; the remainder of the work is occupied with glacial theories and geology. The account of Greenland is of course far inferior to that which has been given by Rink, whose 'Greenland' is copiously drawn upon for data; yet, as a popular account, it is sufficiently full and accurate to convey a tolerably satisfactory idea of the country and its conditions. This has been frequently done before, and the present account presents nothing novel in the way of treatment, but includes a number of good "process" pictures. The chapter on the natives is superficial regarded as ethnology, and seems to have been inserted from a sense of duty rather than for any other reason. It is proper, we suppose, that a book on Greenland should have a chapter on the natives. It is extremely difficult for a casual traveller to say anything new about them, and hardly possible for him to say old things as well as they have been said already. As every new book appeals to a somewhat different circle of readers, Prof. Wright's account of them may serve a useful purpose in spite of its mediocrity.

When he gets upon the ground of glacial geology, a subject to which his contributions are well known, there is an immediate change for the better both in interest and in grasp. This part of the book comprises an account of the exploration of the inland ice, a comparison of the present and Pleistocene ice sheets, a discussion of Pleistocene changes of level around the North Atlantic basin, and three chapters (in which we trace the coöperation of Mr. Upham) on the causes and stages of the ice age, with a concluding summary. We do not discover anything new in the way of fact or theory—quite the contrary—but the summary is excellent and readable, though the standpoint of its authors differs from that of other geologists, in matters principally of detail. In brief, the present writers regard the ice age as due to elevation of the boreal lands and coincident changes of ocean currents, boreal humidity and temperature. They consider the glacial period as continuous, with local or minor oscillations in the extent of the ice sheet. Other geologists differ chiefly, at present, in the extent and duration they ascribe to these oscillations and in their estimates of the elevation concerned. This is not the occasion for a critical review of the general topic, but we may call attention to one point in which more precision would have been advisable. The reader who is not a geologist would be likely to suppose, from what is said, that the period when the boreal lands were covered with forests of a warm, temperate flora immediately preceded the glacial period. As is well known, the Oligocene flora had been extinct for ages, and the whole period of the Miocene and Pliocene intervened between the time of the forests and that of the ice cap. There is no evidence of any Pliocene forests in the arctic region.

In all these discussions the painful iteration of such phrases as "it seems," "it would appear," "it is probable," sufficiently indicates the disproportion between the observed facts and the hypotheses erected upon them. In any condensation, such as is here presented, the hypothetical element is even more conspicuous than usual, for obvious reasons. Bearing this in mind, the reader may obtain from the present volume a very fair idea of the different solutions proposed and of the problems concerned. Many years must pass before the painstaking collection of facts can reach a point where certainty in more than the principal outlines shall be assured. There is good reason to hope that the difficulties will not prove insurmountable.

The latest addition to the Columbian series of handbooks, by Gen. A. W. Greely, condenses the history of arctic exploration into convenient compass for ready reference. More than 50,000 pages of original literature have been gleaned for facts, and the author believes

that no important addition to arctic geography is unreferred to. While the scope of the volume is not intended to include scientific research, yet the more important investigations are noted, and a bibliography at the end of each chapter indicates the sources whence may be had further information, in the form either of narratives of adventure or of original research. The chapters discuss the subject topically, not chronologically, beginning with early northwest voyages previous to 1570, and continuing with accounts of the exploration of Nova Zembla, the northeast passage, Spitzbergen, Bering Straits, the northwest passage by sea and land, Franklin's last voyage, the Franklin search expeditions by land and sea, North Polar voyages, the islands of the Siberian Sea, Smith Sound and Robeson Channel, Franz-Josef Land, the international circumpolar stations, and Greenland, concluding with a chapter on the literature and an excellent index.

In examining the book we have been surprised to find how completely Gen. Greely has succeeded in covering the field in so small a volume, and also, in spite of the extreme condensation, how well the ease and interest of the narrative have been maintained. Under the conditions laid down for the handbook it would have been not unnatural if the text had become dry in its epitomizing, and bibliographic rather than descriptive. This danger has been skilfully avoided, and the result is, what the title implies, a convenient handbook, suitable for reference by the busy man and not distasteful to the inquirer of greater leisure. In all such compilations the question constantly recurs what to retain or to omit, and probably no two authors would come to precisely the same conclusion. Bearing this in mind, we cordially congratulate the author on the success with which his task has been performed, and the editor on having added so creditable a volume to his series.

From the Black Sea through Persia and India. By Edwin Lord Weeks. Harpers.

We have to thank Mr. Weeks for an interesting and entertaining work which has already seen the light in the form of magazine articles. In company with the late Theodore Child, he started on horseback from Trebizond to cross to India. Although Mr. Child died of cholera in Persia, his companion pushed on to Bushire on the Persian Gulf, from which he took the steamer to Kurrachee.

The first part of his book is made up of a connected account of his travels; but after his arrival in India, where he was on better known ground, the author wisely gives us merely disconnected chapters on a variety of subjects. Even if at times the structure of his sentences is not perfect, he writes decidedly well, for he can be vivid as well as amusing, and what he says not only is worth saying, but is said in such a way as to hold our attention. Here is a description of a landscape in Persia:

"Far beyond the plain, tufted with bunches of dry yellow herbage, gilded by the setting sun, this great plateau rises above us at a distance impossible to estimate in the clear atmosphere; its surface broken up into little hillocks, like the waves of a petrified sea, each crest tipped with scarlet from the glowing west, and each long shadow correspondingly violet; and beyond this again rises another and still higher country of purple mountains, and through the gaps of their serrated sky-lines other and more distant ranges may be discerned faint and far away. Looking into the west as the sun sinks, range after range becomes visible, each less purple and more enveloped in golden haze."

The illustrations, too, are excellent, reminding us that the author is first and foremost an artist—a fact we might otherwise overlook, though his appreciations are certainly artistic enough. This does not interfere with the soundness of his judgment or the keenness of his practical observation in various matters. Thus he shows himself remarkably unprejudiced in his treatment of social or political questions. Here are two instances: "Whatever arguments may be brought forward, justly or unjustly, against the utility of foreign missions in general, there can be no shadow of doubt as to the beneficent results of their work in Persia. During the recent epidemic at Tabreez, the medical department of the American mission (then under the direction of Miss Bradford) did noble work." And again: "Mr. Rabino, the active head of the Imperial Bank of Persia, says, in a letter from Teheran, 'I enclose you various letters and reports from the American Presbyterian missionaries, for whose courageous and devoted labors I, an Englishman and a Catholic, can find no words to express my admiration. Their hospital was positively the only organization for the help of this terribly visited city." To supplement his statement it is hardly necessary to add that "these modern Templars have had no incentive in the shape of pecuniary gain, no stimulus in the guise of social success, and not even the poor reward of publicity. Their names will never be inscribed in the Court Gazette of any local four hundred; and the press of their own country, occupied with the conduct and bearing of its social leaders, the presence of royalty, and other matters of vital importance, has no space to chronicle deeds which, if performed by another race and another age, would have been held worthy of undying fame."

Compare with the foregoing the following:

"Wherever a medical officer reported on the condition of his men just returned from active service in Burmah or elsewhere, it appeared that the best soldiers, morally and physically, those who were always exempt from such maladies as dysentery, fever, cholera, and rheumatism, were the opium-eaters; they were able to go longer without food or stimulants, and to do more work. The testimony of physicians, both European and native, was almost invariably in favor of the drug when used moderately in the simple form known to native consumers. Surgeon-General Sir William Moore said 'he had often smoked opium, and really did not see where the wickedness and immorality came in. As a matter of fact, one might see more wickedness and immorality in a London gin-shop in half an hour even on a Sunday night than in an opium-shop during a whole year.' It has been found that opium is cheaper than wine or spirits, less detrimental to the system, and just the right agent to stimulate the indolent Oriental nature, as well as to counteract the weakening effects of a vegetable diet and scarcity of food. Many a poor 'Ryot' who can hardly pull himself together for the want of proper nourishment, is enabled by its aid to do a good day's work, while at the same time it serves him as a specific against the maladies resulting from unhealthy surroundings. . . . While scientists, philosophers, and empirics in Europe have been experimenting for ages to find the Elixir of Life, these simple Orientals have contented themselves with producing, by homœopathic doses of opium, effects analogous to those hoped for from the discovery of Dr. Brown-Séquard; and, if they have not succeeded in renewing their youth, have certainly managed to make it last longer."

We note finally, as prophetic of coming troubles, in Erzerum in July, 1892: "It seems that all Armenians are regarded with suspicion just now on account of a plot against the Turkish authority, recently discovered, in which many of their leading men were implicated."

The Ancestry of John Whitney, who, with his wife Elinor and sons John, Richard, Nathaniel, Thomas, and Jonathan, emigrated from London, England, in the year 1635, and settled in Watertown, Massachusetts; the first of the name in America, and the one from whom a great majority of the Whitneys now living in the United States are descended. By Henry Melville, A.M., LL.B., of the City of New York. New York: Printed at the De Vinne Press. 1896. Pp. 295.

Thomas Halsey of Hertfordshire, England, and Southampton, Long Island, 1591-1679, with his American Descendants to the Eighth and Ninth Generations. By Jacob Lafayette Halsey and Edmund Drake Halsey. With an Introduction by Francis Whiting Halsey. Morristown, N. J. 1895. Pp. 550.

The Whitney genealogy is one of a class of which we have few specimens in American literature, as it is the history for centuries of a family in England, one of whose branches has taken root in this country. It will be of absorbing interest to the numerous descendants of the Watertown settler, but will find few other readers. We are all interested in the lives of prominent actors in public affairs, either at home or abroad, but the minor agents are too numerous. The first and most important question discussed in this book is the parentage of the emigrant John Whitney. From the lists of passengers for New England, first published by the late James Savage, and often reprinted, it appears that in April, 1635, in the *Elizabeth and Anne* of London, embarked John Whitney, aged thirty-five, Ellen Whitney, aged thirty; John, Richard, Nathaniel, Thomas, and Jonathan Whitney, aged respectively 11, 9, 8, 6, and 1. This list covers twenty-three names, all duly licensed, but without a note of their residences. In a subsequent list of three names by the same vessel the persons brought certificates from the minister at Westminster, England. It seems by this book that John Whitney, son of Thomas W. of Westminster, was apprenticed in 1607 to William Pring, merchant tailor, was made free in 1614; took an apprentice, Robert Whitney (probably his brother), in 1624, and made Robert free in 1632. Again, the record of Isleworth, near London, shows that John and Ellen Whitney had children, Mary, b. 1619; John, b. 1621; Richard, b. 1623. Moreover, in the parish of St. Mary, Aldermary, London, John Whitney had a child Mary, buried in 1626, and a son Thomas, baptized December, 1627. John Whitney also had his son John entered in 1631 in Merchant Taylors' School, the name standing on the catalogue until 1635.

These, we believe, are all the facts obtainable as to the emigrant—the identity of the names of the father, mother, two sons, John and Richard, and possibly a third, Thomas, and their order. The ages in the list of emigrants do not agree with the baptisms, but it is a well-known fact that such discrepancies are almost the rule, whether from carelessness or design. It may also be conceded that John Whitney's record in Watertown is entirely consistent with the theory that he was the John of London, a freeman of the Merchant Taylors' Company, but it is somewhat strange that no evidence is given that he was ever termed "tailor" in his new home. The identification is probable, but by no means conclusive; and the pedigree is, therefore, much less satisfactory than that of some of our emigrants.

The English pedigree is better sustained. It is clear that John Whitney, the apprentice of 1607, was a son of Thomas W. of Westminster

(see p. 217), who married Mary Bray in 1583, and had nine children, including John, baptized in 1592, and Robert, baptized in 1605. In 1637 administration was granted on his estate, but John is not mentioned, though the younger sons—Francis and Robert—were. This is entirely natural if John was then in New England. The pedigree quoted on p. 209 shows that Thomas Whitney of Westminster was son of Robert, the third son of Sir Robert Whitney of Whitney. The main line of Whitney is traced clearly to A.D. 1242, taking its name from the parish of Whitney, Co. Hereford, on the banks of the river Wye. It was an old and noted county family, flourishing in the direct male line until 1670, when Sir Thomas W. died. He was first cousin, once removed, to Thomas W. of Westminster, but his estates, not being entailed, passed to his sisters. It appears (see p. 210) that John W. of Westminster, son of Robert, evidently the merchant tailor, claimed to be heir male to the whole family, a title of honor, but not necessarily an heir to the land. He may well have been ignorant of any cousins in New England.

The English pedigree is well prepared from sources easily accessible, somewhat overloaded with general quotations. It is evidently padded to make a book of a size to correspond with the elegance of the printing and the illustrations; but it is padding of good quality and is creditable to the compiler. Though, as already stated, the proofs of the affiliation are not of the first quality, they are plausible, even probable, and are far better than those given in many pedigrees unquestioned in England.

The second book on our list, the Halsey genealogy, is simply one on the familiar American pattern, giving the descendants of Thomas Halsey of Lynn, Mass., in 1637, and of Southampton, L. I., in 1640, who died about 1677. It is a substantial record, well prepared in respect to dates, but disfigured by a system of numbering, "devised by the Rev. John E. Todd, which he has kindly permitted to be used." We are not familiar with Mr. Todd's antiquarian work, but it is a pity that his ingenuity took this form. Why will genealogists abandon the old, tried, and approved methods for useless experiments? We have also a coat-of-arms and an attempt to identify the emigrant—both failures. It seems that there is a family of the name in Hertfordshire, Eng., the present head being Thomas F. Halsey, M.P. His ancestor, William Halsey, in 1633 received a grant of arms for him and his brother James Halsey and their descendants. They were sons of Robert Halsey of Great Gaddesdon Parsonage, and they had brothers Duncomb (who died before 1633) and Thomas, baptized January, 1591-2. This Thomas was living in Naples in 1621, as appears by a letter preserved in his English home. Without the slightest evidence that we can discover in this book, he is assumed to be the Thomas who was in Lynn, Mass., sixteen years later. In this book is a facsimile of the letter written by Thomas Halsey at Naples, 1621, and of the signatures of the Long Island man in 1647, 1648, and 1677. The last three are alike, and are totally dissimilar from the Naples one, except that both are of the style of the early part of the seventeenth century. It would take strong positive evidence to overcome this unintentional proof that the two men were not the same.

It is a pity to see so much creditable work, such a solid contribution to family history, disfigured by an ill-judged introduction and by such an unwarranted scheme of arrangement. It cannot be too often repeated that industry, zeal, and wealth combined may accumulate the materials of a genealogy, but all may be rendered nearly worthless by a neglect of the established rules for arranging them.

The Structure and Development of Mosses and Ferns. By Douglas H. Campbell, Ph.D., Professor of Botany in the Leland Stanford Junior University. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

UNDER the term "moss," in popular nomenclature, are included a great many sorts of delicate plants which to botanists are not mosses at all. For example, the long gray or black tresses which hang from the trees at our Far South, and which are everywhere called "moss," are pathetically depauperate members of the pineapple family. Anybody who cares to do so, can convince himself of this by comparing, even superficially, the flowers of the Southern "gray moss" with the young blossoms of its nobler relative. Algæ, or seaweeds, are generally called sea-mosses, and the lichens of our woods are seldom known as anything but mosses or tree mosses.

What, then, is a true moss? In the first place, it shares with the plants which, in popular parlance, are improperly denominated mosses, a certain delicacy of structure and diminutive size. But from algæ and lichens true mosses differ in the possession of leaves, although, in at least one well-known instance, these leaves are rudimentary. Mosses grow from a microscopic body, known as a spore, which on germination develops into a network of more or less complexity. By and by, at some point of the network, there is produced a bud which may bear a curious resemblance to the flower of the higher plants. In some instances the likeness is so close that bryologists, the specialists who devote their attention to mosses, are wont to speak of this open bud as a flower. Moreover, this "flower" contains reproductive organs which are analogous to but not strictly homologous with the reproductive organs in flowers; it has certain parts to be fertilized, and others which are to provide, at the proper time, the fertilizing agent. The result of such impregnation is the production of a capsule filled with spores, each and every one of which is capable of starting a new moss plant. In this too hasty outline we have not referred to the singular alternation of generations which constitutes one of the most marked features of the group. Such recondite matters are clearly explained in many works, but in few works any more clearly than in the excellent treatise by Prof. Campbell. The life-history, as it is the fashion to call it, of mosses and their immediate allies, has been given by him in a very intelligible manner, adapted to the wants of the serious student. Moreover, everything has been brought well up to date; and although there are a few instances of what seems improper perspective, nothing in the whole section devoted to mosses is misleading.

There are two facts respecting the distribution of mosses which are of singular interest, namely, the wide dispersion of species and the caprice which determines their homes. The minuteness and lightness of the dry spores fit them to be the carriers of life over vast distances in the upper air; oceans presenting, in fact, but slight obstacles to their dissemination. Hence we find the same species distributed over immense areas and encroaching on widely separated continents. Perhaps one of these days, when more attention is given to very minute differences between different individuals of the same species, it may turn out that, after effecting a safe landing on a new continent, plants yield to slight but nevertheless decided climatal differences. But if these climatal differences have really begun to act on these hardy emigrants, and have really initiated natural selection, the work has been thus far exceedingly slight and practically unappreciable.

Few sorts of plants display as much determination mingled with capricious whimsicality in the choice of a home as these minute mosses. Some dwell only on the mortar between bricks of a wall, while others choose decomposing bones, and others still, clean clay soil. In a few cases the habitat may be safely used by the beginner as an aid in the determination of the species.

It is in the sections given to ferns and their kindred that the author appears to the best advantage. For a good many years he has made the development of ferns a special study, and with substantial results. It is known in a general way even to the general public that the story of a fern's life is peculiarly interesting. It is widely known, too, that the mystery of its reproduction has been fully cleared up. Even elementary students of botany know that the spore of the fern does not produce at first a fern-plant, or anything that might be mistaken for a fern-plant, but, rather, a transitory film-like structure, of minute size, on the earthward side of which are developed the reproductive organs. By the interaction of these there arises on the film a diminutive bud, which speedily unfolds in one way or another into what people call a fern. Meanwhile in most cases the transient film, on which this work of reproduction has taken place, perishes and disappears. Ferns have, therefore, from their earliest state, much to interest botanists and all who care to study living things.

The unfolding of the leaves, or, more properly, the fronds, of ferns, is one of the strangest developments in nature. For the most part they uncoil in graceful curves, keeping for a while the shape of a crozier, and then extending in curves of greater amplitude and more tender beauty. Even in the giant ferns of the tropics this gracefulness of outline is never wholly lost. From the tree ferns of the equatorial belt to the shrinking ferns of our colder climate is a long step, but in the structure of the one we can trace the other, and by parity of reasoning we can take the far longer step back to the first great coal period. The record of development of ferns and their kindred, although broken here and there almost beyond deciphering, shows us that the devious pathway from the lower to the higher forms of life has been presumably without interruption of catastrophe. This is perhaps as well shown in the elder and latter ferns as anywhere else. It is this hint of steady although uneven progress from lower to the higher, given by these plants, that has rendered them so highly interesting to the biologist. From start to finish they are full of interest. Prof. Campbell has gathered together all necessary information respecting this surprising history, and although not casting it in a form specially attractive to the general reader, but fitted rather for the student of ferns, presents the whole in its due proportions. Even the latest results obtained in respect to the higher allies of the ferns, namely, the clubmosses, are given in detail and correctly. The work is a credit to American science.

The Episcopate in America: Sketches, Biographical and Bibliographical, of the Bishops of the American Church, with a Preliminary Essay on the Historic Episcopate, and Docu-

mentary Annals of the Introduction of the Anglican Line of Succession into America. By William Stevens Perry, Bishop of Iowa, and Historiographer of the American Church. New York: The Christian Literature Co. 1895. Pp. lxviii, 378.

THE title of this handsome volume explains its character, but omits to mention that each sketch of a Bishop of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America (for that is what is meant by "the American Church") is preceded by his portrait, which adds greatly to the value of the volume. It is surprising that Bishop Perry was able to collect representations of all the Protestant Episcopal Bishops in this country, from Bishop Seabury to Bishop Millspaugh, and he is to be congratulated on the result of his efforts. He states that no other collection known is complete.

The introductory essay traces (1) the origin of "the historic episcopate" from the Apostles' times, chiefly after Lightfoot; (2) its introduction into this country after the Revolutionary War—with facsimiles of some valuable historical documents; (3) its introduction into British North America—with a list of bishops; (4) the rise of the Methodist superintendency or episcopacy (which, however, has no connection with "the historic episcopate"), together with a list of the "bishops" of the Methodist Episcopal Church North from Coke and Asbury on, but those of the Methodist Episcopal Church South are singularly omitted; (5) the episcopate of the Roman Catholic communion in the United States, from the non-canonical consecration of Archbishop Carroll on, with a list of the archdioceses and dioceses, archbishops and bishops, of that branch of the Catholic Church; and (6) a brief account of the foreign churches receiving the episcopate from the American Church—that is, the churches in Hayti and Mexico—with sketches of Bishops Holly and Riley, the latter of whom resigned his jurisdiction, at the request of the House of Bishops, in 1884.

As there are sketches of 176 American bishops, each one must necessarily be brief, but it gives succinctly the main particulars in the ecclesiastical life of its subject. In reading some of these we have noticed a few omissions, inaccuracies, and misprints, which can easily be corrected. Under Bishop Pinkney, his 'Life' of his uncle, William Pinkney, the celebrated lawyer (New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1853), is omitted; also his essay on 'Webster and Pinkney,' in reply to Harvey (privately printed, 1878); and his poems, such as his 'Songs for the Seasons' (1864), and others mentioned in Dr. Hutton's 'Life of Bishop Pinkney.' The portrait of the Bishop here given is not as good as the one prefixed to Dr. Hutton's 'Life.' Under Bishop Whittle, the division of the diocese of Virginia is given as 1893, and under Bishop Randolph, as 1894, both dates being incorrect; it was made in 1892. Bishop Nelson's name is "Kinloch," not "Kinlock." Under Bishop Newton, "Smith" should be "South." Mention of the service in the Confederate army of Bishops R. W. B. Elliott, Harris, and Galleher is omitted, although it is duly made in the case of Bishops Polk, Dudley, Penick, Peterkin, Johnston, Capers, and Newton. The term "bishop-coadjutor" is an anachronism as used by Bishop Perry. It was, as he well knows, first legally authorized by the last General Convention, which met in Minneapolis in October, 1895. The authorized term up to that date was "assistant bishop," and some would have preferred to see that term retained. To conclude our fault-finding, we object decidedly to the term "priested," which is no word.

Taken as a whole, the work will be welcomed by Episcopalians, to whom it is of special interest, and it adds one more to the long list of historical works for which the church is already indebted to the author.

Westminster. By Sir Walter Besant. With 130 illustrations by William Patten and others. Frederick A. Stokes Co.

THIS book has been made out of a number of papers in the *Pall Mall Magazine;* and it is an example of the sort of thing we are getting deluged with nowadays. The public likes pretty pictures, and modern mechanical processes have cheapened their production; and, as the public also likes to imagine it is being instructed, books about "historic cities" and the like are tolerably sure of a market if only they are handsomely bound, commended by a well-known name on the title-page, and plentifully "illustrated." The volume before us is certainly a charming picture book; but about Sir Walter Besant's share in it it is impossible to feel much satisfaction. He undoubtedly knows a great deal about London and Westminster—few men are so intimately acquainted with the older portions of the metropolis; and the drawing-room reader will carry away some information from the pages of this book, especially if he reads only half-a-dozen at a time. But the style is intolerably diffuse, and the sentiment is that of Wardour Street.

Westminster, to begin with, is not so important as London, and the great theme of the Abbey Sir Walter does not undertake. Yet he wants to make a book as big, externally, as his much more solid work on London; and then there are all these pictures to be kept apart by letterpress! And so he pads with both hands. Sometimes he quotes a few pages—like the nine from Maitland describing the Evil May Day of 1517, which most of his readers will suppose to be a contemporary account. More usually he opens the floodgates of enumerative gush of the cheap picturesque variety. Thus, apropos of the "uproarious life" outside the Abbey: "There were taverns. . . . There was the clashing of weapons: there were the profane oaths of the soldiers"; there was this and there was that, for half a page. Or again: "Everywhere there were stately halls, lofty roofs, tourelles with rich carving," and then follow some forty other articles from the repertoire of the scene-painter and costumier. The trick is played time after time. To one who knows his Scott (not to say G. P. R. James or Harrison Ainsworth), and has a Stow at hand, it is singularly easy. But even this is scarcely more irritating than the long conversations and monologues Sir Walter puts into the mouths of his real or imaginary characters. Perhaps they are thought to enliven the book: to those who know any one period at all well the happy-go-lucky archaisms of the modern man of letters are only distressing. Let us add that, though in a series of "pictures" it may not be unpardonable to jump about from century to century, to and fro, the result upon most readers will undoubtedly be to strengthen the deep-rooted belief that the men of the Middle Ages all lived at the same time. It is fortunate that in his historical novels Sir Walter Besant has to remain in one period.

If would hardly be worth while to criticise this book if it came from a less honored hand. It will do no positive harm—except perhaps that it may do something to lower the average standard of literary performance. But we who in our college days chuckled over 'The Monks of Thelema,' and have been stirred in later years by 'All Sorts and Conditions of Men'; we who admire the authors' champion, and rejoiced when the English Government did honor to letters in his person—feel that a book like 'Westminster' is poor work. We cannot help hoping that Sir Walter himself is not so blinded by success and flattery as to escape the prick of conscience.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Prof. M. B. Some Representative Poets of the Nineteenth Century: A Syllabus of University Extension Lectures. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Balzac, H. de. La Grande Bretêche, and Other Stories. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Baring-Gould, S. The Broom-Squire. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.25.
Bates, Arlo. Poems of John Keats. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Bercy, Paul. Key to Short Selections for Translating English into French. W. R. Jenkins. 75c.
Bill Nye's Sparks. F. T. Neely.
Bodington, O. E. Kelly's French Law of Marriage. London: Stevens & Sons; New York: Baker, Voorhis & Co. $3.50.
Bottone, S. R. The Dynamo: How Made and How Used. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90c.
Brainerd, T. H. Robert Atterbury: A Study of Love and Life. Cassell. 50c.
Briggs, H. M. By Tangled Paths: Stray Leaves from Nature's Byeways. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Broglie, Duke de. An Ambassador of the Vanquished: Viscount Gontaut-Biron's Mission to Berlin, 1871-1877. Macmillan. $3.
Brother and Sister: A Memoir and the Letters of Ernest and Henriette Renan. Macmillan. $2.25.
Brown, Prof. E. W. An Introductory Treatise on the Lunar Theory. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.75.
Buchanan, Robert, and Murray, Henry. The Charlatan. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Burroughs, John. A Bunch of Herbs, and Other Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Cable, G. W. Madame Delphine. Scribners. 75c.
Carleton, William. Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. 1896. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Castlemon, Harry. The House-Boat Boys. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co. $1.25.
Chirol, Valentine. The Far Eastern Question. Macmillan. $3.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 9, 1896.

The Week.

THE quality of the statesmen who are attending to peace and war for us in Congress was well illustrated by Mr. Hitt's part in the debate on the Cuban resolutions on Friday. We believe Mr. Hitt is excused by some for his share in the follies of the House on foreign affairs, by alleging that, in joining the crazy men, his main object is to prevent their doing more serious mischief. We often head lunatics off, as every one knows, by pretending to share their more dangerous delusions. On Friday, however, he seems to have given up the rôle of a restraining influence and thrown in his lot with his patients. When the Senate concurrent resolutions on Cuban belligerency came down to the House on the 2d of March, the second was the following:

"Resolved, further, That the friendly offices of the United States should be offered by the President to the Spanish Government, for the recognition of the independence of Cuba."

Of this resolution Mr. Hitt said, in the debate which followed:

"Every gentleman, on hearing that suggestion made and that proposition presented to him, must think for a moment what would be the response if a proposition were made to our Government, for example, by a British Minister, presenting resolutions adopted by the British Parliament, asking or desiring us at once to recognize the independence of Texas, or Florida, or of Michigan. How long would he remain in Washington after presenting such a proposition as that, after the self-respect of our Government had been thus insulted?"

And more to the same effect. Here the chairman of the House committee on foreign relations is restraining the crazy men of the Senate, and reading them a lesson in international law and comity. He predicts war if any such resolution is passed, and is, to all appearances, absolutely *compos mentis*.

But the lucid interval is short. In one month almost to a day, without any known change in the situation, except news which he received from the correspondent of the *Mail and Express*, giving the exact numbers of the Cuban army, Mr. Hitt moved this very resolution himself, and supported it in a long speech arguing that the

"second resolution as adopted by the House was in more cautious form than that now proposed, and Spain, unless persistently seeking a quarrel, could not have resented such a proposition, while the resolution of the Senate proposing independence was more exposed to captious objection. But when a war between a parent government and a dependency had been going on for a considerable time, and when separation was the best solution of the war, the mediation or friendly counsel of another nation to solve an existing struggle by recognizing independence might be a truly friendly act; and this, in fact, has often been done."

That is, what was an insult on the 2d of March becomes on the 3d of April "a truly friendly act." It is hardly necessary to comment on this beyond saying that it helps us to understand the great hesitation in Europe to invest in American securities. Investors feel as passengers in a train would feel if they heard the engineer had handed over the locomotive to a party of schoolboys going home for the holidays. As for Mr. Hitt, we advise him to get out a text-book of ethics at once. We would guarantee it a large sale among highwaymen, who would be delighted to find that a demand for a traveller's purse is a truly friendly act if no offence is intended, and that to be knocked down and put in jail for it would only argue a captious disposition to seek a quarrel. We hope that Mr. Hitt's A. P. A. friends will not fail to see how he adopts the Jesuit doctrine of "intention," as explained by Pascal.

Senator Chandler's astonishing letter has called out a reply from the chairman of the committee on resolutions of the New Hampshire convention, Mr. Putney, which rescues Bill from his own charge that he was a coward, and leaves him a simple falsifier. It was not true, says Mr. Putney, that Chandler had been informed of the McKinley endorsement only an hour before the convention; he was told of it the previous evening. At first he said he would fight it, but afterwards sent word that he "would not contend." "You were not a coward," writes Mr. Putney soothingly; "you simply accepted the inevitable." This is prudence, not cowardice. It is imprudent, however, to tell lies when you are sure to be found out. On one point, though, Mr. Putney confesses his indebtedness to Senator Chandler. "I am glad," he says, "to learn that Mr. Reed is a bimetallist, for Mr. Lodge, to whom you make report of your stewardship, and whom you seem to recognize as his manager, has put him on a gold-bug platform in Massachusetts."

Here at last is Speaker Reed's long-sought opportunity to declare his views on the money question. People generally have not understood what a hard struggle he has had with his own nice sense of propriety in this matter of making his opinions known. He has been fairly aching, even burning, to come out in his own bold, bluff way and let the country know what he thinks. But would it be delicate? Would it not shock refined sensibilities? Would it conform to the amenities of the campaign? Those are the anxious questions he puts his friends who urge him to speak out. No man is more eager to do so than he; but just consider his position, the delicacy of the situation, the fitness of things. People might think he was a candidate for the Presidency. Would that be dignified? But the pinch of his difficulty has been the lack of fitting opportunity. He could not go out of his way to make an occasion. But he now has one made to his hand by Chandler. A grave question of veracity has arisen between Chandler and Lodge; one says Reed is a bimetallist, the other that he is a gold-bug. Now we affirm that it would be entirely proper for a public man, even a shrinking, sensitive public man like Mr. Reed, to come forward under such circumstances and say which was right. No one would accuse him of outraging the proprieties. We say nothing of the desirability of his coming out as Speaker, as a candidate, as a man who is asking the American people to give him the deciding power over the currency while refusing to let them know what kind of currency he favors; we put it wholly on the ground of his duty to settle the question of veracity between two eminent statesmen. That could be done, we maintain, without at all imperilling Mr. Reed's reputation as a retiring nature, which instinctively dreads publicity, and has chosen a political career only for its hermit-like attractions.

Each day's developments show more clearly the lack of sincerity in the support of Reed for the Presidential nomination by New England. District conventions in Massachusetts were held in two districts on Thursday. In each case the McKinley men insisted upon making themselves heard, and although in neither were they anywhere near a majority, they refused in one district to support a motion that the Reed resolution be made the unanimous expression of opinion, and in the other forced a change from "instructing" the delegates to support the Speaker to "recommending" such action. Joe Manley has had the New Hampshire delegates chosen on Tuesday week sign a statement that they were selected with the definite knowledge that they would unitedly and earnestly favor Reed's nomination, and that they will give him their cordial support, but they add that, "if forced to make a second choice, we shall try to represent faithfully the wishes of our constituents"; and one of them, in a dispatch to the Boston *Journal*, says that he thinks "Mr. Reed has a fighting chance for the nomination." This is not the way that victories are won. The most striking feature about the Reed canvass is the lack of heart in it. The Speaker has effaced himself during the past four months so thoroughly that he seems to stand for nothing, and his supporters find it hard to hold their ground against a rival who does represent something.

An interesting question of fact is raised by some comments of the St. Louis *Globe-*

Democrat on the recent financial deliverances of the New York and Massachusetts Republicans. The *Globe-Democrat*, which has always been an earnest supporter of sound money, pronounces these declarations in favor of the gold standard "as impregnable as the Ten Commandments," characterizes them as "the Apostles' Creed of the Republican party," and maintains that one or the other, preferably the Massachusetts resolution, should be adopted literally by the St. Louis convention. It says further:

"The Republican masses are as sincerely and courageously devoted to honest money in 1896 as they were in 1875, when their representatives in Congress passed the law which brought every dollar of the country's currency up to the gold level in 1879. They are as unalterably opposed to bogus dollars of silver as they were to depreciated dollars of paper."

If this be true, how does it happen that so few Republican conventions come out for the gold standard; that the New Hampshire convention, a week after the one in Massachusetts, rejected all but unanimously a proposition to make a similar deliverance, on the ground that the latter was, as the chairman of the committee on resolutions puts it, "a gold-bug platform"; that the chief candidate for the Presidential nomination refuses to commit himself on the question of the gold standard; and that even "glorious Tom Reed" is declared by his friends, without any protest from him, to be that mysterious thing, a "bimetallist"?

We contrast in another column the attitude of Messrs. Hayes and McKinley on the currency question in 1876 and in 1896 respectively. It is worth while to set the financial plank adopted by the convention which presented the former as "Ohio's favorite son" twenty years ago, over against the one adopted by the recent McKinley convention in that State:

1876.	1896.
We recognize gold as the true standard of value, and the only steady and safe basis for a circulating medium; and declare that that policy of finance should be steadily pursued which, without unnecessary injury to business or trade, will ultimately equalize the value of the coin and paper dollar.	We contend for honest money, for a currency of gold, silver, and paper with which to measure our exchanges, that shall be as sound as the Government and as untarnished as its honor; and to that end we favor bimetallism and demand the use of both gold and silver as standard money, either in accordance with a ratio to be fixed by an international agreement (if that can be obtained) or under such restrictions and such provisions, to be determined by legislation, as will secure the maintenance of the parities of values of the two metals, so that the purchasing and debt-paying power of the dollar, whether of silver, gold, or paper, shall be at all times equal.

The Republican Senators have found, much to their disgust, that their Populist allies are going to vote against admitting Mr. Du Pont of Delaware. It is suspected that the constitutional arguments against admission have not so powerfully impressed the Populist mind as the gold-bug argument. With Senator Blackburn lost to the silver forces, it would never do to let in a gold Senator. Delaware can get along with one Senator as well as Kentucky. Besides, if the next Senate is to throttle protection unless something is done for silver, the throttlers cannot be too careful how they keep their opponents in a minority. As we have before said, the argument against admitting Mr. Du Pont seems to us a very strong one, and we presume that some of the strict-constructionists on the Republican side of the Senate will not be sorry not to be obliged to strain a point and make a dangerous precedent under party pressure.

The *Herald* published on Thursday extracts from the message of President Diaz to the Mexican Congress, sent to that body the day before, which show that Secretary Olney cannot too soon begin enlightening the Chief Executive of Mexico on the Monroe Doctrine. Gen. Diaz said he had steadfastly refused to express an opinion on the Venezuelan dispute, though having received "invitations of an international character" to do so, because he was "not in a position to presume that the claims of England constituted an attempt at usurpation." This looks bad. A man who wants to know what the facts are does not show proper reverence for the immortal Monroe. Besides, this pretence of ignorance on Diaz's part is evidently hollow, as a casual reading of the American press, or even a slight attention to the opinions of our school-children, would have convinced him that England was wickedly putting her hands on just where the immortal Monroe had cried, "Hands off!" Worse and worse, President Diaz affirms that England's refusal to submit a boundary line to arbitration did not necessarily make her out a bloody villain, inasmuch as "the Mexican Government itself had declared more than once that it would not admit arbitration for certain territorial questions which, in our opinion, involved the honor of the country." After this, a weak assertion that he is in favor of the Monroe Doctrine, "properly understood," will deceive nobody. The whole thing looks to us like a deliberate insult, but we refer it to the larger wisdom of Congress, in which the Constitution has rightly lodged the duty of resenting insults to this our nation.

Gov. Morton has thrown the whole Platt machine into spasms by requesting Mr. Lyman, the State Excise Commissioner, not to appoint inspectors or special agents under the new law until his legal adviser has investigated the question whether or not they are subject to civil-service regulations. The news of this request created consternation among the army of applicants who had assembled at Albany to get the new "confidential" places. Instead of fighting for these places, they found themselves compelled to fight against the idea that the places could be obtained only after competitive examinations. Anything more absolutely disgusting than a competitive examination for a "place" is not conceivable to the mind of a practical politician. The mere sight of a room fitted up with desks, like a school-room, with pens and pencils and blank forms with printed questions to be answered in writing, gives him a sinking of the heart which in most cases produces nausea. He turns away with positive loathing, and declares that, rather than submit to such humiliation, he will leave politics for ever. This feeling was very strong at Albany on Thursday, according to the *Herald* correspondent, for that night "Senator Raines, John F. Parkhurst, and a host of other machine men were sitting up with Mr. Lyman, arguing that civil-service [*sic*] would be folly, and would be sure to fill his office with a lot of college graduates who don't know anything about life in great cities or practical politics."

The Boys feared that something of this kind might happen, but they thought the Legislature had "fixed it" by declaring the offices "confidential." Lieut.-Gov. Saxton says that the new amendment to the Constitution expresses the desire of the people to have the merit and fitness of all applicants for office ascertained by competitive examinations, and adds:

"The question is, Does the Legislature make an exception by merely declaring a position to be confidential which is not in reality confidential? If so, the Legislature can entirely nullify the civil-service provision of the Constitution by declaring that all places under the civil service shall be confidential. We cannot change the nature of the thing by giving it a certain name. The question is not what the place is called, but what it really is. I must say that I can see no real difference between the confidential agents provided for under the Raines law and hundreds of other places now on the competitive list."

That is the view which is certain to prevail in the end, for it is precisely the one which has been decreed by the Court of Appeals, and if the Governor's adviser were to take a different one, the matter would not rest there, but would be carried into the courts for final decision. There is no escape for the Boys. They must make up their minds to the examinations, with the awful prospect that college graduates will run away with the "places" in the end, and will execute the law in the cities in complete ignorance of the intricacies and obligations of practical politics.

There seems to be little doubt that the sons of Tom Platt and Senator Raines had a "straight tip," a considerable time in advance, to the effect that some snug business for a surety company could be found when the Raines liquor-tax law

should go into operation. Whether they did or not, they were lucky enough to have their company all ready for business when the law was passed, and were lucky enough to get the State Excise Commissioner to give notice that his appointees must get a surety company to furnish their bonds. The liquor-dealers must also have bonds, and, curiously enough, they are getting the idea that a surety company with Boss Platt's son as manager is undoubtedly the best source to go to for them. The rascals really think that in this way they may establish a "pull" not only on the Boss but on the Excise Department, which will be useful in enabling them to "beat the law" in various ways and escape the consequences. It is a wicked world, and our liquor-dealers have been educated to believe that a "pull" is the basis of our system of government. Their delusion is likely to prove of great business advantage to young Platt and young Raines, who, of course, suspected no such fortuitous aid when they set up their surety company. They would not mix politics and business for anything in the world; neither would their fathers permit them to do such a thing. But how surprised they must be at their wonderful luck!

We have examined with care the various arguments made in favor of consolidation, at the final hearing before Mayor Strong on Monday, to see if something really worth considering was advanced, but we have been able to discover nothing of the sort. Like all the arguments of the kind that have preceded them, the substance was mainly wind. Take, for instance, the speech of Mr. Parker, the Police Commissioner. According to the report in the *Times*, which is friendly to consolidation, this was in outline as follows:

"He said it was sublimated nonsense to say there was any danger of a satrapy—a government of legislative commission for New York. He said that it was folly to believe the people of New York would be so supine, so slavish, so dead, as to permit any odious legislation to be fastened on them at any stage of the proceedings pending the completion of the proposed charter and the formal establishment of the government of Greater New York. All measures, he said, would come before the Mayor, and any citizen, as well as the proposed Consolidation Commission, could send bills to the Legislature affecting the form of government of Greater New York. There would be, there could be, no chance of odious or oppressive or misrepresentative government at any stage—certainly no greater than now existed or had always existed, under the present order. He reminded the Mayor that it took only fourteen months to provide the new Constitution for the whole State of New York. 'The bill does not increase New York taxes,' said Mr. Parker, 'and any attempt to loot New York can be stopped in a moment unless New York has gone daft.'"

In addition to this convincing disposal of all objections to the proposition, Mr. Parker turned upon one of the opposition speakers and withered him with this question: "Are you afraid to let the people elect officials?" This dear old question, "What! are you afraid to trust the people?" has been roared steadily during the last half-century or more by every practical politician who found himself at a loss for real arguments in defence of a shady political job. Mr. Parker got it from his old friend Jimmy O'Brien, who has thundered it hundreds of times, and has never failed to "shut up" his enemies with it. If that does not give us consolidation, nothing will.

The Mississippi Legislature has adjourned without advancing the scheme for an inequitable change in the distribution of the school funds. Early in the session it was proposed that only the school taxes paid by the negroes be devoted to the education of negro children. But the press of the State generally opposed the change, taking the position that it was the duty of the property-owning whites, and a measure of safety as well, to maintain the efficiency of the colored schools. Presumably because of this opposition, the measure lay upon the House table for weeks, and, when its friends had the temerity to call it up near the end of the session, it was rejected by a large majority. A companion measure, apparently conceived to accomplish much the same result in a less direct and less honest manner, also failed to pass. This provided that the poll taxes, now turned into the State Treasury, and thence distributed pro rata among the counties for school purposes, should be retained in the counties where collected. Payment of the poll tax is a franchise qualification, but very many of the negroes have not the concern about the franchise attributed to them by contested-election committees in Washington, and neglect to pay this tax. The result of the proposed change in distribution, therefore, would be to reduce the funds available for school purposes in the counties where the negroes predominate. The sentiment of the State, as represented by the vote in the Legislature, favors the change, on the ground that the present method is unjust to some of the counties. In the Senate the measure received the necessary two-thirds vote, but it failed of two-thirds in the House, although a majority voted for it. The newspapers of the State are in advance of the people on the subject of negro education, and it is likely that their growing influence will prevent any further attempts to weaken the support of the colored schools.

The National Liberal Federation of England voted at Huddersfield its "continued confidence in Lord Rosebery," but thereby hangs a tale which is unfolded by Mr. A. O. Hume, a Radical delegate from Dulwich. He declares that, before the convention, he wrote to the Secretary, asking whether he should be allowed to move a vote of no confidence in Lord Rosebery. In reply he was told that such an amendment would not be in order, though of course he would be at liberty to vote against the resolutions as a whole. In other words, unless a delegate wished to vote against a reaffirmation of Liberal principles, he could not vote against continued confidence in Lord Rosebery. Against such gagging tactics Mr. Hume protests, in a letter to the London *Times*, and proceeds to give the reasons why, as he says, hundreds and thousands of Liberal electors have no confidence in Lord Rosebery as a leader. The first is that a Liberal leader should be a Commoner, in favor of which much may be said, though it is by no means a conclusive reason. The second is that Rosebery is unsound on the limitation of the veto of the House of Lords, to which the reply might be made, What possible leader is sound, in the Radical sense? Much more weighty is the third reason, which is that Rosebery is "wanting in that earnestness of purpose and enthusiasm essential in any leader of the popular party." Not without a certain justice does Mr. Hume say of Lord Rosebery that, "sandwiched in between literature and horse-racing, he holds to politics as a gentlemanly and creditable recreation," but that he is utterly devoid of a "burning love of justice" and a "holy enthusiasm in the cause of man," which alone can invest a man with the power of a true democratic leader. One has but to think of Mr. Gladstone's flaming indignation on Bulgaria in 1880, to see the point.

Some people have wondered how Mr. Balfour could have so confidently affirmed, in his speech on bimetallism the other day, that the American people are "absolutely unanimous" in favor of the bimetallic standard. A philosopher who knows all about the foundations of belief, should not be above knowing something about the facts. But we think we have the explanation. Mr. Balfour gets his views of American opinion from Moreton Frewen. On the other hand, our bimetallists get their views of English opinion from Moreton Frewen. How do you know the American people are absolutely unanimous for bimetallism? Moreton Frewen says so, and he has just been in Washington, and has letters every week from Senator Lodge. What makes you think that England will be on her knees to the bimetallists in six months? Moreton Frewen told me so, and here's the last letter I had from him about it. Nothing like this expert international knowledge has ever been seen before. The funniest part of it is that, though an authority on two countries, Moreton Frewen is respected in neither. In England he is regarded as an amiable enthusiast. In the United States he is seen to know rather less about our politics than the Marquis of Castellane or Capt. Concas. But in either country there are some solemn persons who think him a perfect oracle about the other.

HAYES AND McKINLEY.

TWENTY years ago, as now, Ohio entered a "favorite son" in the contest for the Republican nomination. The candidate was successful in the convention, and the Electoral Commission awarded him the Presidency. The national convention of 1896 is still about two months away, but the present Ohio candidate is far ahead of all his rivals, and his success is confidently predicted. In one respect, however, and that the most important of all, McKinley in 1896 is as far removed from Hayes in 1876 as one pole from the other. The Ohio candidate twenty years ago was so sound on the financial issue that nobody in the country could question his position. The Ohio candidate now is so vague and enigmatical in his outgivings that nobody can tell what he means.

Mr. Hayes came into national prominence through his election as Governor of Ohio in 1875, after the most interesting, exciting, and important State canvass known in the country for many years. The nation was then suffering at once from the business depression that followed the panic of 1873, and from the demoralizing effects of a depreciated currency. The Democratic managers in Ohio, and indeed throughout the country generally, except in the extreme East, thought that inflation of the currency would prove the most popular policy on which to make a campaign. They therefore renominated the veteran William Allen for Governor, on a platform which declared that the contraction of the currency already made by the Republican party, and the further contraction proposed by it with a view to the resumption of specie payments, had brought disaster to the business of the country and threatened general bankruptcy; and demanded "that this policy be abandoned, and that the volume of currency be made and kept equal to the wants of trade, leaving the restoration of legal tenders to par, gold, to be brought about by promoting the industries of the people, and not by destroying them."

The Republican convention adopted a guarded declaration that "a policy of finance should be steadily pursued which, without unnecessary shock to business or trade, will ultimately equalize the purchasing capacity of the coin and paper dollar." This represented the cowardice of many Republican politicians, and, after the nomination of Mr. Hayes, he was appealed to by many of his party friends not to oppose an increase of the paper currency. But he refused to make any compromise, and sounded the real keynote of the canvass in his first deliverance, when he came out openly and boldly for honest money and against inflation. The campaign attracted the attention of the whole country for months, and the success of Mr. Hayes in what was then a doubtful State brought him immediately within the range of possible choice for the national convention the next summer.

Mr. Hayes continued as outspoken and emphatic on the financial issue after his election to the governorship as before. In March, 1876, he wrote Gen. Garfield that "the previous question will again be irredeemable paper as a permanent policy, or a policy which seeks a return to coin," and added that "my opinion is decidedly against yielding a hair's-breadth." The Republican national convention met the issue squarely. Its platform recalled the fact that, in the first act of Congress signed by President Grant, the national Government sought to remove any doubts of its purpose to discharge all just obligations to the public creditors by solemnly pledging its faith to make provision at the earliest practicable period for the redemption of the United States notes in coin, and declared that "commercial prosperity, public morals, and national credit demand that this promise be fulfilled by a continuous and steady progress to specie payments." Gov. Hayes warmly endorsed this plank in his letter of acceptance, speaking as follows:

> "It is my conviction that the feeling of uncertainty inseparable from an irredeemable paper currency, with its fluctuations of value, is one of the great obstacles to a revival of confidence and business, and to a return of prosperity. That uncertainty can be ended in but one way—the resumption of specie payments. But the longer the instability of our money system is permitted to continue, the greater will be the injury inflicted upon our economical interests and all classes of society. If elected, I shall approve every appropriate measure to accomplish the desired end; and shall oppose any step backward."

President Hayes's financial views were put to the test within a few months after his inauguration. He convened Congress in extra session on the 15th of October, 1877. On the 5th of November, Mr. Bland of Missouri carried through the House, by a vote of 164 to 34, a motion to suspend the rules and pass "an act to authorize the free coinage of the standard silver dollar, and to restore its legal-tender character." During the following winter the Senate amended the bill so as to provide for the coinage of silver dollars to the amount of not less than $2,000,000 nor more than $4,000,000 a month. On the 28th of February, 1878, Mr. Hayes vetoed this bill in a most effective message, on the ground that, "if the country is to be benefited by a silver coinage, it can be done only by the issue of silver dollars of full value, which will defraud no man"; and he declared that "a currency worth less than it purports to be worth will in the end defraud not only creditors, but all who are engaged in legitimate business, and none more surely than those who are dependent on their daily labor for their daily bread."

Such was the financial record of the Ohio candidate of 1876—a record of which any man might be proud. By a curious coincidence the Ohio candidate of 1896 entered Congress at the same time that Mr. Hayes became President. The first test of Mr. McKinley's financial soundness came on the 5th of November, 1877, and he responded by voting with Mr. Bland for the free coinage of silver. The second test came on the 28th of February, 1878, when the question was whether the Bland-Allison bill should be passed over the veto of the Republican President, and again Mr. McKinley followed the lead of Bland, helping to make up the more than two-thirds majority that overrode the representative of his own State in the White House. The McKinley of 1896 is consistent with the McKinley of 1877 and 1878, standing as he now does on a platform that favors an undefined "bimetallism," and the coinage of silver under restrictions and provisions "to be determined by legislation," which holds out the hope that the Ohio candidate of 1896 would not veto any currency act that should get through Congress.

Can the Republican party afford to go into the campaign of this year under a candidate who began public life as the advocate of free coinage, and whose position on the silver question, after twenty years of service, is calculated to win the support of the silver monometallists?

THE GREATER NEW YORK SCHEME.

PRESIDENT LOW, in arguing last week for consolidation, made much use of the union of the States, by the framing of the Constitution, as an illustration of the advantages which result from bringing adjacent communities possessing common interests under one government. He said:

> "What did they do? They proposed a stronger union as to the matters in which the interests of the States were one, and they called a convention to prepare a constitution for the new Union. I ask you to notice that they did not in 1787 resolve that in 1789 the United States of America should be established, trusting to luck to be able, in the meanwhile, to frame a suitable constitution. They called together their wisest men, prepared the Constitution with the most careful deliberation, submitted it to the vote of the people in every State, and thus established the new Union upon a basis that was clearly understood, by the people to be affected, before the Union provided for became a living fact. I do not believe that it is possible to find a safer model to follow in bringing about the union that is aimed at in this measure for the creation of the Greater New York."

It is a pity that time and the occasion did not permit him to go more fully into the aptness of this analogy, because there are several points in it which need more clearing up. There has never been a more striking evidence of political capacity than the founding of this Government in the way described by President Low. On the other hand, neither New York nor Brooklyn has given any sign of political capacity, but they have been, Brooklyn through its whole history, and New York for at least forty years, gross and notorious examples of municipal disorder and corruption. Brooklyn is, and long has been, under the dominion of a corrupt and ignorant boss, three years out of five. New York has been for forty years under a corrupt boss with hardly any intermission. Total incapacity to found and carry on, not efficient, but even decent municipal gov-

ernment, has long been the distinguishing trait of both of them. So that the notion that by uniting them, giving them larger revenues to be administered, a larger constituency to persuade or hoodwink, more holes and corners for politicians to hide jobs in, more laws to construe and interpret, more places to distribute among workers and Boys, we shall produce an orderly, well-administered municipality, is, we will not say, an absurd proposition, but one that needs far more elucidation than President Low has been able to bestow on it. There is nothing in our experience of men or of cities to warrant us in expecting anything of the kind, and yet we will not assert positively that it might not happen.

Now let us come down to the *modus in quo*. The States in 1787 sent their wisest men to frame the new Constitution and gave them plenty of time. It was the practice of every State at that period to employ its wisest men in the transaction of all, or nearly all, public business. Its legislators, governors, mayors may not all have been very wise men, but they were the wisest men there were. In making up the national convention, the States simply followed the local tradition. The members of it became members because they were the leading men in their own States. They were men of character and education and long and successful experience in public business. Now is there a vestige, or more than a vestige, of this great tradition left among us to-day? It was by almost superhuman exertion that we put a respectable business man in the mayoral chair last year, as the successor of a Tammany bummer. Our legislators are, year after year, the creatures of a boss, who sells their legislation, like prison-made goods, to serve his own purposes. There are only three or four men, and there have not for years been more than three or four men, in the New York Legislature, who speak their own thoughts or obey their own convictions. They do not need time even for such a measure as consolidation, because they neither discuss nor deliberate on any measure small or great. They "jam it through." They do not know any other way of making laws or framing governments. We dare not have a city council with real power, like other great cities of the world, because it would, we fear, be filled with ragamuffins who would plunder us wholesale. We have, therefore, to content ourselves with a Board of Aldermen which does little but license peddlers and draw its salary. Is it possible that by bringing two such communities together the resultant will be something wise and good and pure? Is it in the least likely that we shall send our wisest men to frame the common government? Is it likely that if we did they would be allowed to put into execution a really wise measure, if one of its results were to be, as it would have to be in order to improve our condition, the destruction of the power of the Boss? Is it not plain that before any union between the two cities can be properly effected, we need a far more thorough trial of the possibility of improving each city, through the instrumentalities furnished us by the constitutional amendments—that is, by more direct appeals to the intelligence and consciences of the citizens on city issues?

The truth is, and it is a truth which is visible all over the country, in Washington as well as in the States, that while our problems are increasing in gravity, we are making less and less use of our wisest men in their solution. No Congress we have ever had has had, or ever made for itself, more serious tasks than the present one, but no Congress has ever made such ludicrously ineffective attempts to perform them. Its efforts to provide causes of war, and to prepare for war, have been equally feeble and incompetent, and, as to domestic troubles, it has dismissed them with a smile. From our Albany Legislature we have got nothing good for years, except by a lucky accident or some extraordinary pressure, not revealable in debate. All over the country our official class is overwhelmed by the increasing complication of the work of government caused by our rapid growth, and although there are agencies at work—stern necessity is one of them—which must sooner or later furnish us with a better class of servants, we have not yet got them. The idea that Platt will furnish us with a commission capable of dealing with the consolidation question—one of the weightiest ever set before any community—with the care, the forethought, the constructive ingenuity, the sense of justice, the indifference to personal motives which its gravity calls for, is so novel, so startling, and receives so little support from experience, that the community may well hesitate for the moment to do anything about it.

The reorganization of the government of the City of London, a few years ago, was a much less difficult task than the consolidation of New York and Brooklyn, and it is a kind of task in which the British invariably employ men of the highest training and ripest experience—their wisest men, in short—and yet it took many years of consideration and discussion to bring it to a conclusion. The attempt to reorganize the London government began in 1860, and a succession of bills for the purpose were introduced in Parliament in subsequent years by such men as Sir George Cornewall Lewis, John Stuart Mill, Charles Buxton, Lord Elcho, J. B. Firth, and Sir William Harcourt in 1884 (we are quoting Mr. Albert Shaw). It was not till 1888 that the final bill was passed. In other words, the scheme was debated for twenty-eight years by the ablest men in England, before it took final shape and came into operation. We have set to do more difficult work—T. C. Platt of Owego and Clarence Lexow of Nyack, and given them one year!

A LITERARY CRISIS.

FINANCIAL and political crises have been pretty thoroughly studied; the crisis of a fever is a well-recognized phenomenon; but a literary crisis has not been carefully defined. Hence we should not wonder at the loose and often conflicting terms in which it is described. The important thing to know is that such a crisis exists. All the authorities now agree that it does. A publisher's letter last week in the *Evening Post* showed that there is an unmistakable literary crisis in the United States; Sir Walter Besant has been ready to prove any time these five years that one is blighting British letters; and here comes M. René Doumic in France giving lectures on "The Existing Literary Crisis." M. Doumic is no mathematician to be lecturing on imaginary quantities.

Agreed as to the fact, our authorities are wide apart as to causes, manifestations, remedies. Mr. Tait says the trouble with American literature is that it looks too much abroad; M. Doumic asserts that French literature must look more abroad, or expire of inanition; Sir Walter Besant says—well, he says a great many things, but they always lead up to the duty of joining his Authors' Society. Mr. Tait thinks we "strangle" domestic authors; M. Doumic affirms that domestic authors strangle us. He seems to agree with an English critic who asserts that if the French naturalistic novel cannot move our hearts, it can at least turn our stomachs. Mr. Tait says we read too much and too indiscriminately; M. Doumic complains that we do not read enough: France will soon number but "a handful of mandarins among an illiterate people." But it is unnecessary to pursue these differences. A literary crisis exists—that is plain, we hope, to the meanest intelligence. It is marked by deep dissatisfaction on the part of authors or publishers or the reading public, one or all. Now for the remedies.

The first one is, to suppress competition. It is not stated in this bald way, but that is what is meant. The phrases are: Emancipating ourselves from "the colonial attitude"; stopping "the adoration of the foreign writer"; getting the press to devote more space to "domestic literature." All this means that there is a literary crisis because literature cannot stand competition, and that protection of the native product will cure the crisis. But this remedy is really a confession of inferiority. It is like dread of the evils of competition in society. "What shall we do with our boys," ask alarmed parents, "in the face of the fierce competition in all businesses and professions?" This question really means, as Leslie Stephen has remarked, "What shall we do with our fools?" A bright, energetic boy has everything to gain from competition. And so, it may be said, only dullard books have anything to fear from literary competition. Anyhow, they cannot escape it. This remedy

is very like a prescription of a bottle of port and terrapin every day for a person on an income of $3 a week. The thing cannot be done.

If it were possible to dispose of living competitors, what are you going to do with dead competitors? Short of another Omar to burn the British Museum and all its works, the "dead hand" of literature will continue to labor, even if all modern authors go on strike. This was rather brutally put by a London publisher in controversy with the Authors' Society. Pay our authors more, he was told, or you will get no books to publish and will starve. Not at all, replied the publisher; it is you who will do the starving, for the reprints I can make from the stores of the British Museum will last me long after every one of you has been driven to manual labor. Needless to say, the authors shrank from the unequal combat, and continued to take their beggarly 10 per cent. and be thankful.

The other remedy is more to the point. Make literature prosperous by getting great writers to produce it. From this no one can dissent; but the trouble is that when they say great writer they mean great reputation. "Scarcely a year passes," says Mr. Tait, "without London making three or four great literary reputations. How long is it since New York made one?" Alas, my masters, how obviously "made" such reputations are! Here we come upon a very curious phenomenon. The public were never so eager as now to have a literary genius to pet and flutter about. They run off impetuously on false scents and at every hasty cry of lo! here, and lo! there. And if they ever do find the first sign or glimmer of genius, they straightway do their best to extinguish it. They do this by the method of what is called "making a great literary reputation."

The process has often been witnessed. An author produces something unusual, something showing an original turn, giving promise of genius. Immediately the signal is given, and the whole pack of destroyers of genius is let loose upon him. The reporter runs him to earth. The photographer levels the deadly camera at him. A dinner is given in his honor at the Aldine Club. He is invited to write for the *Ladies' Home Journal*. Then the end is not far off. Only one step remains. It is to be "syndicated." Genius in the clutches of a syndicate is a melancholy spectacle. It soon becomes subdued to the medium in which it works, and appears as dull and ditch-watery as if the divine spark had never glowed at all. As long as we go so painstakingly about the work of putting every singer of native woodnotes wild in a gilded cage of publicity, of denying expanding talent the time to read or think or commune with its own heart, of making a great reputation by means of puffery and wind, it is certain that we shall not get ourselves out of perpetual literary crisis.

ITALY'S HUMILIATION AND PROWESS IN AFRICA.

ITALY, March 19, 1896.

ITALY for the Italians, Italy a pledge of peace in Europe, was the programme of Mazzini and Garibaldi; and after the consolidation of the country, with Rome for its capital, after stock had been taken of the moral, material, and social condition of the new kingdom, its wants, needs, and necessities were set forth—schools, the redemption of waste but fertile lands, attention to hygiene. Saffi, Bertani, Cairoli, and others of their stamp were from the first opposed to grandiose public buildings or useless railroads; above all, to the expenditure of increasing sums for the army and the navy. It was after the Congress of Berlin that the Jingoes began to murmur that "every nation of Europe had obtained something, Italy nothing." Then, when France took Tunis, a regular campaign set in for increased army and navy alliances in Europe, and a colony "somewhere." So Italy drifted into Africa, from Massowah to Saati; hence the massacre of the five hundred at Dogali, the shrieks for "revenge," the expedition sent out under San Marzano, the treaty of Utchialli, and the famous article which, in the Italian translation, gave Italy the protectorate over Abyssinia and bound the Emperor Menelik to treat with no European Power save through Italy's mediation. In return for this, Italy armed and equipped Abyssinia, so that it is absurd now to ask who gave Menelik his weapons. Italy at the Belgian conference secured him the right of obtaining them from Europe—*voilà tout!*

After the fall of Crispi's first ministry, the Rudini-Nicotera ministry, whose members had been opposed to any military occupation, still less extension, in Africa, affirmed that while they should not propose any withdrawal from what was now called the Eritrean colony, they should keep it well within the triangle Massowah, Keren, Asmara. They reduced the African budget from fifteen to eight millions, sent out Colonel Oreste Baratieri to make the colony self-supporting, and to organize it modestly and thoroughly, so that in the future it might serve as an outlet for the surplus peasant population, which is now compelled to seek a home in North or South America because the mother country cannot or will not find lands for them to cultivate. How absolutely he obeyed instructions, how completely he reorganized the colony, I showed in my last letter on Italy in Africa, a year ago, in your columns, and today, as I recall his last visit to me in Naples, his calm enthusiasm, his firm belief in the future of the colony, his full comprehension of the dangers and the difficulties of the undertaking—with hostile Dervishes, Abyssinians, warlike and jealous of any foreign usurpation, with France and Russia seeking to take advantage of any Italian blunder on the Dark Continent—which transformed the boy hero of the Volturno into a true heir of Garibaldi's military principles, I can no more understand the transformation of the last six months' action or inaction than I can subdue the bitter grief that, after the Adua disaster, fate should have chosen him for "the last of all his men that *could* not die."

All is clear as daylight until July, 1895. Kassala was occupied to prevent the Dervishes from invading the colony; and although all the anti-Africanists protested against this extension of its western frontier 500 kilometres from Massowah, yet inasmuch as England had given permission for this occupation, "with due respect for the territorial rights of Egypt," should such a step be deemed necessary for the security of the Italian possessions, on military grounds the occupation was intelligible. Further, when Baratieri found that the chiefs who had accepted service under him were betraying their trust, when he found that Ras Mangashà, in return for protection and assistance, was preparing to invade the colony, it was not only his right but his duty to repel the invasion and chastise the invader, which he did by his wonderful strategical marches and splendid victories of Coatit and Senafè. Yet that he was not intoxicated by these is proved by a letter after the victory to one of his most intimate friends in Italy, published in the *Illustrazione Italiana* by Ferdinand Martini, late Minister of Public Instruction, and a stanch believer in a commercial and agricultural colony in Africa. He knew that the chiefs, and especially Ras Mangashà, had not deserted the Italians without having previously made peace with Menelik; hence he wrote, and clearly with a keen remembrance of the detestation of the majority of his countrymen for African extension: "I have done my duty, but if I succumb, no one will compassionate my death or defend me if I survive." Then, if you take the documents, meagre as they are, from the Green Book published in July, 1895, every one of them depicts the strength of the Abyssinians and their resolution to attack the colony when the rainy season is over, and he repeats, "To insure peace we must be ready for war." The Government summoned him to Italy (July 7, '95), and he remained there till September, when he was recalled by despatches from Arimondi, warning him of the hostile attitude of the Abyssinians. One of two paths was open to him: either to insist on the total abandonment of the Tigre and of Agame, immense provinces of Abyssinia absolutely belonging to Menelik, or on sufficient money, arms, and men to attempt to hold them. If his alternative was rejected by the Ministry, then, for his own reputation and for the sake of his noble little army, for Italy's prestige, he should have resigned, and from his seat in the House given his reasons.

You must bear in mind the state of Italy during those months—the galleys, the prisons, full of political offenders; every day fresh suspects sent by the exceptional tribunal to *domicilio coatto* amid protests and menaces from their friends and champions; the banking scandals smothered, but resuscitating the most violent indignation and clamor throughout the country, and in the House a nominal majority for the Government of four-fifths of the Deputies. The financial difficulties, too, must not be forgotten, nor now nor hereafter would it be just to forget that, but for this African episode, Sonnino would have succeeded in laying the foundations for a budgetary equilibrium in a not far distant future. To have asked the House for supplies for extension in Africa would have been suicide for the Ministry when you consider the frightful state of taxation, the misery of the populations, the increasing emigration, the fact that there is a tax on wheat of 7 lire per quintal, that salt is 40 centimes per kilo, that commerce is stagnant and industry gagged at every point. During the last discussion of the African question, when grave were the cautions of the anti-Africanists, especially on account of the Russian "Mission," the Minister for Foreign Affairs answered: "As to reinforcements that might be needed in case of necessity for *local defence*, our warnings to the barbarians in Africa are, 'Before you from Shoa come to raid slaves and cattle in the

Tigre, and you repeat your aggressions on the colony, our swift war-ships and our ready battalions will have more than time to help General Baratieri inflict fresh chastisements on you.'" During the examination of the budget, though screamed down by the majority, several Deputies pleaded for prudence, and Campi, a supporter of agricultural colonies, said:

"As an Italian I am proud of our victories, but do not let them inebriate us or induce us to adopt a programme of expansion. One of the great benefits of victory is that it gives us complete liberty of action. Now if we stop, if we even retrace a few steps, no one can say that we are timid or pusillanimous: our flag cannot be humiliated by this course. Signori, oh profit by this moment in which it is vouchsafed to us to be wholly wise."

In the same spirit, Branca, now Minister of Finance in the new Rudini Ministry, hostile from the first to expansion, said: "Even if we are victorious, Abyssinia will return to the charge whenever we seem unprepared or complications recur in Europe." To several motions Rudini was opposed, saying, "We simply take cognizance that the Ministry is pledged to permit no expansion and hold it responsible for the future." "I accept," said Crispi, and the House dissolved.

Baratieri returned to Africa, with what instructions we know not yet. After once more defeating the rear of Ras Mangashà's column at Debra-Ailat, he declared the campaign at an end, and annexed the entire territory (*i. e.*, all of Tigre and Agame occupied by his troops). Ergo, either these were his instructions or the home Government was bound to recall him, replace him with a more obedient general, and court-martial him at once. The House resumed its sittings on November 21, and many were the interpellations. Crispi's answers were curt and scornful. "We are on the defensive, and if, in defending ourselves, we conquer, is this a crime? Are we to leave the field open to the enemy to defeat us?" The Minister for Foreign Affairs made the only statement which throws any light on the subject:

"When General Baratieri was with us we were enabled to determine exactly the reasonable territorial limits which should circumscribe our occupation. . . . The Government, accepting these limits, ascertained that they could be reached without sacrifices exceeding the exigencies of the budget. . . . Thanks to the last victory [Debra-Ailat], *Tigre is now incorporated in the colony.* The legislation of Eritrea is applied to Tigre, to the entire satisfaction of the native clergy, who you know, gentlemen, have for their chief the only legitimate religious head in all Ethiopia."

(This was a blunder, but no matter.) There followed a long, glowing discourse on the glory, advantages, and benefits of this enormous annexation. San Giuliani and Franchetti, two of the greatest authorities on African policy, were "quite other" than satisfied. Brin made a most startling statement. Minister for Foreign Affairs and for the Navy several times, as he is again to-day, he spoke with authority. After delineating the African policy of the ministries in which he had taken part, he said: "This policy has been totally changed. I can affirm with assurance that the policy agreed upon with the Governor has been utterly altered, *against the opinion of the Governor himself.*" To which Crispi replied: "If those petty princes of Shoa and of other localities keep quiet and do not attack us, we shall leave them in peace"; and the Ministry got 267 votes against 131 of the Opposition.

Six days later came the news of Amba-Alagi, where a detached battalion was cut to pieces, and Major Toselli, after sending a remnant under his aide de-camp to safety, faced the 20,000 foes till he fell dead at his post. Twenty millions of lire were reluctantly voted, even the ministerial majority putting a veto on "expansion"; and then throughout the country arose the cry, "Withdraw into our old colony; the Shoans are advancing with all their forces." No. Tigre was pompously announced in the Almanach de Gotha as forming part of the colony. Agame was occupied, and the fine fort of Adigrat constructed in its capital. Macalle, thirty kilometres south of this, was garrisoned with some 2,000 men, and the Shoans advanced. Of the disaster which followed, I need not speak. It is summed up in the report that the losses amount to between 7,000 and 10,000 soldiers, Italians and askars, and that more than 200 officers were killed. The news plunged Italy into convulsion. "No more soldiers for Africa," was the cry. Pavia tore up the rails, Milan was prepared for revolution, when word came that the King had accepted the resignation of the Crispi Ministry and that Rudini was to succeed him. This produced comparative calm, which was increased by the amnesty granted on the 14th for all those condemned by the military tribunals of January, 1894. The new Ministry is composed of the stanchest opponents of African extension. In his first speech Rudini quietly affirmed that an honorable peace was being negotiated, and that the seventeenth article of the Utchialli treaty would be abandoned in any case, as detrimental to Italian interests. The Crispinian newspapers howled. The *Riforma* cried, "Peace with dishonor"; the *Tribuna*, "Dishonor without peace." But Rudini quietly told the House that the Crispi Ministry, before going out, had themselves authorized Baratieri to treat for peace even to the abandonment of Adigrat and Kassala! This the Crispians deny, and we must wait for the publication of the Green Book to get at the truth.

But for a cloud on the horizon, I should say for the time affairs may be tided over. The House will grant the 140 millions demanded by the present government, as even Colaiani the Socialist, says that "we can't leave our troops defenceless in face of the Abyssinians"; and if Menelik allows, the colony will be reduced to its former limits, Asmara, Keren, Massowah. But now comes the British Jingoism to stir again the troubled waters. It was presumable that Italy would withdraw from Kassala, where it is with the greatest difficulty that Baldissera can send provisions; but if Anglo-Egyptian troops march on Dongola, she will scarcely be able to do so. Possibly before the English have time to start, the Dervishes may have compelled the garrison of Kassala to retire from the fort named by King Humbert "Baratieri!" This would be a blessing not in disguise.

J. W. M.

ROME, March 25, 1896.

SOME recent remarks in the *Nation* respecting the Abyssinian disasters as bearing on the qualities of the Italian army seem to me clearly erroneous. As to the battles fought, that at Saati, in the early days of the colony, was a decisive victory, though in that of Dogali a single battalion, taken by surprise on the march to reinforce Saati, was surrounded and exterminated; but it was said by the reliefs who went out to bury the dead, that they lay in their ranks as they stood fighting, with not a fugitive, while the Abyssinian losses were such that Ras Alula, who commanded, withdrew to the hills and left Saati unmolested. In the next battle, which took place at Agordat, the Italian force attacked and routed a Dervish army three times its strength in one of the most brilliant battles in the history of African enterprise; the Dervish loss exceeding the number of the Italian army. This was followed shortly after by the capture of Kassala, a fortified position taken from the Egyptians by the Dervishes several years before, and stormed by the army of Gen. Baratieri, who has now been defeated at Adua.

The present war opened with a revolt of a minor chief of the ceded province, and a battle at Halai in which the rebels were defeated and dispersed, with the loss of their chief. Closely following this came the attack of Mangashà, one of the pretenders to the throne, and son, by a concubine, of Johannes, the defeated and dead rival of Menelik, at the head of 14,000 Abyssinians armed with rifles and 4,000 spearmen. The battle, in which less than 4,000 Italian troops, mostly African battalions under Italian officers and organization, were attacked at Coatit, with all the well-known courage of the Abyssinians, ended in the total defeat of Mangashà, pursued till the night made it impossible to carry pursuit further, and the remnant of the fugitives escaped to Shoa. But Menelik, who had furnished and organized the invasion of Mangashà, now set to work on the preparation of an expedition in which all the strength of the empire should be called out, and gathered an army of 80,000 riflemen, furnished with arms of the latest patterns, and abundant ammunition, by the French agents through Obock and Gibuti. Baratieri had grown careless, and, though warned by the Government, from information received by its agents at Zeila, of the extent of the preparations, left his outpost at Amba-Alagi unsupported, and delayed the recall until too late. This force was attacked by the leading division of the Abyssinian army, numbering 40,000, in a strong but unfortified position; and, after a hard-fought battle lasting all the morning, and in which the Abyssinian losses were greater than the Italian force, a retreat was ordered. In the course of it about 700 men escaped from the field, over 1,000 of them having died in their places, the "fighting edge" there shown calling out the admiration of military critics of most European nations, and even including French.

It was now evident that Baratieri had become either physically, mentally, or militarily so demoralized that he was unfit for command, and the Ministry desired to recall him, substituting Baldissera; but political influences prevailed, Baratieri being an influential Deputy on whom future hopes were based by the group of Piedmontese politicians who opposed the Ministry, and who had influence enough in the higher regions to prevent the change. Baratieri was advised to remain on the defensive and be prudent, while the Abyssinians took position at Adua, in a very strong position, recognized, indeed, by the General as impregnable, in a dispatch of the morning of the very day before the battle. The Italian positions were equally formidable, a wide valley separating the two armies. Here the time passed in the slow demoralization of the Italian army; the General seeming, according to the evidence of correspondents present and of several officers, to be attacked by softening of the brain. He himself in his report says that he was hardly conscious of what he was doing or why he gave the order to attack. The result we all know—the most disastrous defeat ever

known in African wars. But the "fighting edge" is to be seen in the losses, nearly half the army, and in fighting, for the pursuit of the retreating remnant was very brief. I take from the report just printed, drawn up from the evidence of the survivors, a portion, that relating to the Da Bormida division:

"Cut off, the enemy having broken through the centre, the Da Bormida brigade remained alone on the battlefield, fighting till night, bravely, heroically. Towards seven A. M., Da Bormida had sent up on a height on the left, perhaps to sustain Gen. Albertone, the battalion of irregulars [mobilized militia, Africans under their own chiefs], which fought for a half-hour against overwhelming forces, and then was obliged to retire with heavy loss; two battalions sent in support could not fire efficiently without hitting our own men. Then Da Bormida, seeing that great masses of the enemy were moving on him from the right, attacked them, deployed, repulsed them, and advanced nearly to the camps of Maconnen and Mangashà Atikin. For the moment, our men believed that they had won the victory; but, the enemy always increasing, Da Bormida ordered a retreat in a direction diverging from the centre, and effected it in échelon with counter attacks at the point of the bayonet. The artillery had fired all its ammunition and the infantry exhausted nearly all its cartridges. In this retreat Da Bormida fell riddled with balls."

But this was at seven P. M.; the men had been marching all night, and went into the battle fasting. The officers who last saw the General say that, when the retreat was begun, he said to them, "Go on, my lads; I will stay here," and, lighting a cigar, faced the enemy and was shot down. The force of the Abyssinian army was six times that of the Italian, which had marched by moonlight twenty miles over a country cut up by ravines, mostly unreconnoitred, and so difficult that in places it was necessary to take the guns from the mules' backs and carry them by hand; and as the General had, three days before, decided to fall back from the positions, the provision reserves had been sent on, and the whole army was on short allowance for the three days before the fight, into which it entered without resting. The enormous superiority in number of the Abyssinians enabled them to flank the Italians and attack the reserve before it had formed or extricated itself from the ravines, and threw it into confusion all the greater that, from the nature of the attack, they supposed that the main body in front had been annihilated; in confusion it retreated, being the only division that moved from its positions without the order o retreat, in spite of losses in the others, in actual fighting, quite unprecedented in modern warfare, except at Amba-Alagi. Several battalions were practically annihilated without moving from their positions; three-fourths of the officers falling out of the total number in the battle. The Abyssinian dead were so numerous that the *parlementaire* sent to Menelik to arrange for the burial of the Italian dead, reported that the Abyssinians had not been able to bury their own from the number.

Troops without any fighting edge don't fight in that way, and there were offers, during the few days succeeding the battle, of thousands of volunteers from all parts of the kingdom to go to Africa. The battle of Adua was, in fact, the repetition on an immense scale of the famous charge of the six hundred at Balaklava, the blunder as much more horrible as the disaster was greater. It has merely shown that Italian troops will go where they are sent, asking no questions, and the opinion of competent critics is that their fighting edge is of the finest temper. I have omitted the affair of Macalle, where a thousand Italian troops, white and African, resisted, in a hastily improvised fortification, the attacks of the Abyssinian army for a month, and finally surrendered with the honors of war on the proposition of Menelik, the commander having decided to blow up the fort, with all in it, rather than surrender.

The Italian soldier is as fine as he can be, and the officers, as a class, the truest gentlemen and the most modest I have ever met; discipline is of the severest, and yet the soldiers as a rule adore their officers, and will go where they will lead them. The proof of their high morale is that the army in Africa is as ready to fight now as it was before the battle of Adua, and better prepared. The Massowah expedition was a blunder from the beginning, as Crispi declared it, in his opinion, when the first disaster in it called him to power; but, after the defeat of Dogali, military honor forbade retreat, and the same motive will probably not permit withdrawal at present. There are positions in which the honor of a country is worth more than its cost, and in the Italian mind this is one of them. X.

THE CARLYLE HOUSE IN CHELSEA.

LONDON, March, 1896.

THE house in Cheyne Row, Chelsea, where Carlyle lived has long been a place of pilgrimage. While it was still the dirtiest and shabbiest in all the neighborhood, hero-worshippers came to look upon it and shed a sentimental tear. It needed no medallion on the wall, no statue on the Embankment Garden beyond, to remind them of the tragedy of which the little old eighteenth-century street was the scene not so many years since. Into the domestic drama of the Carlyle household it is now impossible to intrude, that drama having been made public property, once and for all, when the 'Reminiscences' and 'Letters' were published. It is this which really has reconciled one to the recent transformation of the house into a public museum. Otherwise, one might shrink from what would seem the violation of a great man's privacy. It is different with Milton's cottage at Chalfont, for instance, with Dürer's house in Nuremberg; Milton and Dürer being among the remote heroes of dead centuries. But only yesterday the Carlyles were still at No. 5, now No. 24, there struggling in that "tearing whirlpool of miseries, anxieties, and sorrows" which life, alas! always was for them both.

However, since museum the house has now become, the more interesting and complete it is made, the better, so that most people will hear with pleasure that the loan exhibition, opened in December for a month, the time being then extended to three, is to be continued indefinitely. It is true that many of the things on view at the present moment—the greater number the property of Mr. Alexander Carlyle—may eventually be claimed by their owners. But it is hoped that others will be sent to take their place, and, at any rate, the collection will remain as it is until the summer—a fortunate arrangement for touring Americans apt to seek headquarters in London during May, June, and July.

The house, as by this time is well known, has been put in repair and given the thorough cleaning it so sorely needed after its temporary rôle as cheap hotel for cats. Every effort has been made to restore it to the condition in which it was left by the Carlyles, their wall-papers even having been reproduced—for in their day, in many of the rooms, wall-paper there was, well hung over the beautiful panelling which, with the daintily decorated stairway, was one of the chief charms of their home, had they but realized it. When possible, the old furniture has been arranged in its old place, where they were accustomed to see it; and in every room and on the stairway pencil sketches by Mrs. Allingham show the exact position of engravings and pictures, these in some cases actually hanging where originally they belonged. What little there is down stairs is found in the back dining-room; Carlyle's bookcase, designed by himself, standing in the recess by the chimney-place which he meant it to fill. There you may see the complete library edition of his works, in the familiar red bindings, published by Chapman & Hall. And there, too, to your greater pleasure, you may see many of Carlyle's own books; really a motley collection, for you chance upon now a 'Danish Grammar' or a 'Handbook for Ireland,' now the works of John Knox or the plays of Schiller, or, again, a copy of the 'Earthly Paradise,' opened to show the inscription, "Thomas Carlyle, with his Scholar John Ruskin's love. 1st January, 1870." Ah, me! ah, me! as Carlyle might have sighed. One shelf is reserved for a pretty, old-fashioned cup and saucer and a couple of plates in white and gilt—"part of breakfast set," the catalogue explains; and memory forthwith singles from out the long procession of maid-servants, Mr. Carlyle's special abhorrence, "that horse," "that cow," "that mooncalf," and looks upon the grim comedy played one dull November morning—"a whole washing-tub full of broken things" in the kitchen, all the china breakfast service gone irretrievably, save a mere remnant left for the idle gaze of the sightseer. Do we not know those maid-servants of No. 5 even better than Cromwell's Ironsides, than Frederick's Grenadiers? Will they not, too, be remembered as long as Carlyle's name is honored, as long as the most human letters ever written are read by a sympathetic or prying public?

On the wall opposite are engravings of Frederick, of Maria Theresa, and of others who had a part to play in that weariest of all books in the making; and, in a case, are fragments of MSS., some full of the blue pencil corrections that were the printer's despair; medals commemorating Carlyle's birthday, a horseshoe with screw-cogs for frost, invented by him—a horseshoe all too sorely needed, too seldom used, in London's slippery streets—and other such odds and ends.

But the more intimate relics are above in the drawing-room. It is impossible here to give a full list of them: of the portraits, the pieces of furniture—most notable the desk upon which all Carlyle's books, except only the Schiller, were written—the miscellaneous contents of the glass case, with its testimonials from home and abroad, its photographs, card-cases, pencils, flasks, seals, and the several trifles once the most immediate personal property of either Carlyle or Mrs. Carlyle. But perhaps among them all is nothing so pathetic, so genuinely touching, as the three little birthday and Christmas notes. "The prophecy of a wash-stand," one says, "to the neatest of all women. Blessings on her bonny face, and be it ever blithe to me as it is dear, blithe or not. 25th Dec., 1850." And this from the man who hated all such nonsense as presents, and shrank from the bother of going into a shop to buy anything. Of his tenderness, in so trivial a matter, to his wife after her mother's death, one likes to have the reminder in the room where, for all its distinguished associations, one re-

members best the long, bitter days of her loneliness and jealousy, the long, sad evenings when he sat solitary over his dreary Prussian books.

On the same floor is Mrs. Carlyle's bedroom, all but empty. But its emptiness cannot help one to forget her terrible sleepless nights; her headaches; her waiting in the darkness, with revolver and rattle by her bedside, during the household cleaning, to her ever a horror; her agony in the early morning, when, awakened by the crowing of "infernal cocks" or barking of dogs, she listened for the mad stamping and titanic cursing in the room above. "If we could only sleep, dear," she wrote to him once, "and what you call *digest*, wouldn't it be nice?"—and, so writing, gave perhaps, the true clue to the tragedy of their life together. The bed has been brought back to Carlyle's room—a great gloomy bedstead, with heavy red hangings, well calculated to murder sleep. How often it figured in Mrs. Carlyle's letters, where no domestic detail, however squalid or lurid, was ever glossed over—tales, these, which the squeamish do not venture to repeat. But perhaps interest culminates when still another flight of stairs is climbed, and one finds one's self in the garret study, with its double walls and its top-light, the most disastrous of their many failures, where for the most part of those endless thirteen years Carlyle was "smothered" under his 'Frederick.' Was there ever, since the world began, an author whose work was done in such anguish and bitterness of spirit? The chair presented to him by John Forster has a prominent place. On the walls, the faces of Voltaire and Frederick look out from quaint little old cheap prints. There are portraits innumerable of the master himself: most conspicuous a photograph of Mr. Whistler's picture, a painting by Linnell (very early this, of course), a sketch by Count D'Orsay. And there are, above all, in convenient cases, manuscripts and letters, far more than can be now enumerated; none, however, of greater value, I think, none that does him more honor, than the brave, manly, fine letter written by him to his publishers after the MS. of the first volume of his 'French Revolution,' lent to Mill, had been burnt. Real trouble Carlyle met with a dignity and courage and strength that almost make one wish his way through life had been less smooth and easy. For, rugged as it seemed to him, assuredly most of his trials and tribulations were of his own imagining.

So entirely is the domestic economy of the little house laid bare to the curious that the basement kitchen may be visited, where odd pieces of the Carlyle dinner service are set out upon the dresser, and a cat sits purring in front of the fire, for all the world as if Pen were still alive. Glimpses there are, also, into the tiny garden, where, during the hot summers when he stayed in town, Carlyle had his tent study. At the back rises a bit of the old brick wall, all that is left of Henry VIII.'s Chelsea manor-house. To one side is a small green-china garden seat, one of the "noblemen," it may be, on which Carlyle sat for his midnight smoke, "looking up into the empyrean and the stars." And, later, grass-plots, and paths, and bushes are, as well as the thing can be done, to be put in precisely that order in which Mrs. Carlyle kept them. Altogether, the place has a homely yet solemn pathos, not spoiled by indiscreet or blatant touting for the tourist. The directors have shown admirable judgment and sympathy in the arrangement of the rooms and cases. There is nothing to offend the most sensitive; much more than I have had space to mention, to delight the student. Indeed, No. 24 Cheyne Row, like the Soane Museum in Lincoln's Inn Fields, will, to many, seem far worthier a special visit than the large, better advertised galleries and museums. Because I believe that no one who has read Carlyle with pleasure or profit can fail to be interested, I am eager to call attention to the fact that it is proposed to make this exhibition of Carlyle's relics permanent.

N. N.

Correspondence.

THE SILVER PROPAGANDA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a business letter to-day received from a merchant in Denver, Col., I find the enclosed printed slip, which sets forth a lot of the usual quality of so called silver arguments. This is an evidence of the activity of silverites. On the other hand, I have personal knowledge of the refusal of a large wholesale house in Georgia, whose partners believe in sound money, to circulate in their mails anything referring to the currency question in any way whatever.

I do not mean to say that it is the *duty* of any business concern to take up politics. Business men must decide this question for themselves. But if the sound-money men really believe that the 16-to-1 practice would bring about a worse condition of panic than we have ever experienced, it would seem that self-interest would dictate their injecting politics into their businesses to the same extent at least as the silverites are doing.—Very respectfully,

A. T. H. Brower.

Chicago, April 3, 1896.

A COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Readers of President Schurman's article in the April *Forum* on "Teaching—A Trade or a Profession?" will rejoice that an old cause has received a new advocate. To those, however, who, during the past decade, have been speaking and writing and bringing things to pass in this field, it will be a matter of surprise that the familiar proposition to establish a university professional school for teachers should have been advanced as something quite novel and, in a way, original. Novel it doubtless is to the writer in question, for his article shows that he is ignorant of—I will not say chooses to ignore—some of the ideals and tendencies that have entered into American educational history during recent years. In the interest of simple justice, as well as of truth, it seems proper to call attention to the facts which have been slurred over.

In doing this it is chiefly important to note that while President Schurman has been working out a scheme, others have acted, and have brought about the very thing that he presents as an ideal yet unrealized. It is, in fact, several years now since it became possible in President Schurman's own state for students of college and university grade to pursue, in a university, courses in education leading to the degrees of A.B., A.M., and Ph.D. These courses include theoretical studies of the kind he has described, and they also include practical work in a school organized for the express purpose of giving students of education an opportunity to observe, practise, experiment, and apply. They provide not only for the training of superintendents and of teachers for secondary schools, but also—a point which is a distinct advantage—for the training of kindergartners and teachers in elementary schools, both public and private. Further, these courses have already been sought by students as candidates for the above-mentioned degrees, and each of the three degrees referred to has been given to such students.

Aside from the particular instance just cited, it is pretty generally known that there have existed for some time, and that there are now springing up each year, other agencies for the higher training of teachers that include, or aim to include, some or all of the characteristics just enumerated. I submit that there is no essential difference between these schemes already in operation and that set forth in the *Forum* article. That President Schurman may be able to develop something superior to anything that now exists, can easily be believed and should be devoutly hoped; but the points wherein his scheme claims to be peculiar are minor matters, relating chiefly to name. To claim or to imply that such things are essential is to quibble.

It may even be said that, in the points wherein the scheme in question differs from other plans, it is inferior as a practical measure. Its peculiarity lies wholly in its limitations. In the first place, it is proposed to limit the membership to college graduates or persons of equal scholastic standing. It is significant that at Cornell the standard set for this ideal professional school is higher than the standard of that professional school which is already in existence there, although the movement for raising the standards of professional schools is elsewhere well under way. The second limitation would confine the work of the proposed school to the preparation of superintendents and of teachers for secondary schools. The rapidly enlarging fields now opening to college graduates as specialists in the kindergarten and in the elementary school—in manual training, art education, domestic science, natural science, English, and other branches—are ignored or dismissed with a wave of the hand. It is said in effect, "Normal schools are good enough to prepare teachers for the masses. The college has no interest except in the secondary school or in the superintendent's office." To such a way of thinking it is sufficient to reply that there are many people in this country to-day who know that such a position is narrow and unworthy.

In writing this letter I have had in mind to give credit to whom credit belongs for what has already been done, and to make clear the fact that college men and women bent on learning how to teach need not wait until a new pedagogic school shall be established before seeking professional training, and need not confine themselves within the narrow limits set for them in the article in question. But I have especially aimed to correct the false impression that would naturally be created by this article: for while it purports to be written in the interest of the higher training of teachers, in reality it tends to hinder the movement at large, because it ignores and discredits the results of progress already achieved.

Walter L. Hervey.

Teachers College, New York, April 1, 1896.

MR. TUCKER AND DR. HALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue No. 1603, Dr. Fitzedward Hall accuses me of garbling one of his sen-

tences containing a statement which I disputed, both in a *North American Review* article some years ago and in my little book 'Our Common Speech,' recently published. I admit, of course, that the omission of certain words should have been indicated; and, more, I think I should have been wiser to give the whole sentence exactly as he wrote it, for one cannot be too careful, in repeating any statement for the purpose of criticising it, to avoid even the slightest appearance of misrepresenting what was actually said.

This admitted, let me state exactly what the omission was, since Dr. Hall did not think it worth while to do so. The Doctor wrote, in his *Nineteenth Century* article, in severe criticism of the English of the late William Cullen Bryant: "Living as he did, among a people among whom, in the case of all but a very few writers and speakers, our language is daily becoming more and more depraved," etc. I left out the words, "in the case of all but a very few writers and speakers," which words were absolutely immaterial for my argument that followed, to the effect that our language is much more depraved in Great Britain than in this country, inasmuch as that argument is based entirely on common, every-day usage, and contains no claim for the beauty of distinctly American English as exemplified by our exceptionally careful writers and speakers. In other words, whatever force the argument may have would not be in the smallest degree affected by the insertion of the omitted words. Under these circumstances, I leave it to the candid reader to judge whether my critic is justified in charging me with "practices akin to the use of loaded dice," or with quoting his sentence "so transformed, by the elision, unindicated, of part of it, as to vitiate its purport materially." I might as well accuse Dr. Hall of misquoting Mr. Bryant by representing him to have written "honour," which Dr. Hall did, in a "letter" to you, Mr. Editor, published by him as a pamphlet in London in 1881, page 22. Whatever other linguistic crimes Mr. Bryant may have been guilty of, he certainly did not disfigure "honor" by the excrescent *u*.

Permit me to notice one other criticism which Dr. Hall makes of my little book. He says my phrase "of the Carroll Gansevoort stripe" is "slang of the slums and the gutter." I wish he would inform your readers in what respect it is worse than his expression, on page 15 of the pamphlet just referred to: "The items . . . are, mostly, quite of a piece with the particulars which the *Evening Post* retains." In each case the figure is evidently that of samples of the same cloth. I speak of them as having the same stripe; my critic says they are "quite of a piece." To approve the latter phrase and call the former the "slang of the slums and the gutter" seems to me just about as consistent as to spell "favor" with a *u*, and "editor" without it, as Dr. Hall does in consecutive paragraphs of his pamphlet. I find him also, on pages 20–21, characterizing certain opinions with which he does not agree as "old mumpsimuses." There is a pretty word for a writer who is so shocked by hearing two men spoken of as being of the same stripe.—Respectfully yours, GILBERT M. TUCKER.

ALBANY, N. Y., April 6, 1896.

"NAKED BED."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your correspondent from Pau will "go back to former generations," he will find the origin of the figure "naked bed." It is in common use in Elizabethan literature, and refers simply to the custom in earlier times of going naked to bed.

At this moment, I recall the expression in a quaint poem, written in old-fashioned fourteen-syllable verse, that is to be found in 'The Paradise of Dainty Devices,' edited by Richard Edwardes, in 1576. The subject, a weary mother singing her baby to sleep in the night-watches, is an exquisitely simple and graceful rendering of Terence's epigram, *Amantium iræ amoris redintegratio est.* I quote the first stanza, with the note for the lovers of good poetry that there is more of it where this came from:

"In going to my naked bed, as one that would have slept,
I heard a wife sing to her child, that long before had wept;
She sighed sore and sang full sore, to bring the babe to rest,
That would not cease, but cried still in sucking at her breast;
She was full weary of her watch, and grieved with her child,
She rocked it and rated it, until on her it smiled:
Then did she say now have I found the proverb true to prove,
The falling out of faithful friends renewing is of love."

M. A. S.

BALTIMORE, April 3, 1896.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The "naked bed" is the bed to which we go naked—literally naked in the olden time, when nightgowns were unknown. Compare "idle bed" in "Julius Cæsar" (ii. 1, 117), "lazy bed" in "Troilus and Cressida" (i. 3, 147), and the familiar "sick bed." W. J. R.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 8.

Notes.

MR. LECKY'S 'Democracy and Liberty' is just being published by the Longmans.

'A History of Christian Doctrine,' by Dr. George P. Fisher of Yale, and 'Shakspere and his Predecessors in the English Drama,' by Prof. F. L. Boas of Oxford, are among the latest announcements of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A volume of original poems by Caroline and Alice Duer, and 'Songs from the Greek,' translated by Jane Minot Sedgwick, will bear the imprint of Geo. H. Richmond & Co.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'What is Electricity?' by Prof. John Trowbridge of Harvard.

Macmillan will handle for the Clarendon Press the 'Revenue Laws of Ptolemy Philadelphus,' edited by B. P. Grenfell from a papyrus in the Bodleian, the largest and oldest known in Greek, with a portfolio of thirteen facsimiles; and for the Cambridge University Press a fresh translation of part of the Sinai Gospels brought from Mt. Sinai last year by Mrs. S. S. Lewis, with a new and complete edition of her translation. This firm will begin immediately the publication of a new edition of Byron's Works, in verse and in prose, edited by W. E. Henley; the prose consisting of all the letters and the diaries, and the poems being arranged chronologically. Soon to appear also, is volume vi. of 'Periods of European History,' 1789–1815.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press 'The Making of Pennsylvania,' by Sidney George Fisher.

Roberts Bros. promise 'The Puritan in England and New England,' by Dr. Ezra Hoyt Byington, and 'Old Colony Days,' by May Alden Ward.

'Stereo-Chemistry' is the subject of a volume by Prof. Charlotte E. Roberts of Wellesley College which D. C. Heath & Co. will issue.

Way & Williams, Chicago, have nearly ready 'The Lamp of Gold,' a sequence of forty-nine sonnets, by Miss Florence L. Snow, with decorations by Edmund H. Garrett.

G. P. Putnam's Sons make the gratifying announcement that they will follow up their editions of Hamilton, Franklin, Washington, Jay, Mason, Paine, Jefferson, and King with 'The Works of James Monroe,' edited by S. M. Hamilton, whose experience in the archives of the State Department peculiarly qualifies him for his task. This reprint will occupy four volumes, and will be begun in 1897. The same firm will undertake 'The Constitutional Decisions of John Marshall,' edited with an historical introduction and analytical notes by Simon Sterne of the New York bar.

Letters of Monroe, Jefferson, Madison, and Richard Rush will compose Part i. of the Hamilton Facsimiles of MSS. from the national archives projected by the *Public Opinion* Co., and will make a volume of which the edition will be limited to 500 copies. The series has no determinate bounds. Communications respecting it should be addressed to D. T. Pierce, No. 13 Astor Place, New York.

The Prussian Academy of Sciences intends to publish a complete and critical edition of the works of Immanuel Kant, and solicits communications from persons who may have in their possession any writings of the Königsberg philosopher which have not yet been printed. Letters, notes taken of his lectures or found on the margins and fly-leaves of books that once belonged to his library, as well as biographical items and similar records, will be gladly received and duly acknowledged.

A new wrinkle in the 'Annual Literary Index' for 1895 (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*), following the Necrology of deceased writers, is an Index to Dates of Principal Events, in which many more obituaries occur. Abyssinia, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Chicago, Cuba, Gold, Great Britain, Lynching, Madagascar, Manitoba, Silver, Strikes, Whiskey Trust, Yacht Race, are typical rubrics. We have marked some errors and discrepancies in names, both in the index to periodicals and in the accompanying author-index; but such defects are almost unavoidable. The five departments of this yearly key to the best literary production are now: Index to periodicals; Index to general literature (or, guide to the contents of books of essays, studies, and the like); author-index; bibliographies; necrology; and dates of principal events.

Externally and intrinsically, few reprints nowadays compete for prior mention with North's Plutarch in the "Tudor Translations" of David Nutt, London. This series has just been brought to a close with volumes v. and vi., and fortunate must the possessor of them count himself. The letter employed in this edition seems to us one of the most successful of the compromises between the heavy face of the early printers and the styles now in vogue, and shows that the hair-line can be abrogated without resorting to a repulsive compactness. The red binding is in accord with the generous scheme of the typography.

The Dent-Macmillan issues are a good second to the foregoing, and in the Balzac translations we have 'The Atheist's Mass,' 'Old Goriot,' and 'La Grande Bretêche,' in their green livery, and the first volume of Carleton's classic 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry,' with an introduction by D. J. O'Donoghue preliminary to the author's

own, with a portrait of Carleton, and reproductions of four designs by Phiz. This, too, is in green covers, of a lighter shade, as befits the Emerald Isle. Macmillans' name is linked with George Bell & Sons' in the seventh volume of Mr. Wheatley's edition of Pepys's Diary—definitive, one would say, but that some Capt. Burton may itch and contrive to fill up the disreputable lacunæ; the rather dull period here embraced being from July 1, 1667, to April 30, 1668. From Macmillans' own press we have two more volumes in their Standard Tales of the present century, Peacock's 'Gryll Grange' and Borrow's spirited 'Lavengro'; and Charles Kingsley's 'Heroes,' in the uniform pocket edition, in blue.

The Harpers are advancing rapidly with their handsome uniform edition of Thomas Hardy's novels. 'A Laodicean,' just brought out, succeeds 'The Trumpet Major,' 'The Hand of Ethelberta,' and 'The Woodlanders,' to name only the more recent.

Scribners' handy "Ivory Series" is newly augmented by Cable's 'Madame Delphine' and Mrs. Spofford's 'A Master Spirit.'

W. R. Jenkins has added to his well-known French reprints Victor Hugo's 'Quatrevingt-treize,' with an introduction and notes by Benjamin D. Woodward. The print is commendably large and open.

Fifty numbers of the Old South Leaflets (Boston) result in two volumes which claim a place in libraries and in intelligent households. The documents thus conveniently bound together range from the U. S. Constitution to Columbus's letter to Gabriel Sanchez describing his first voyage and discovery; from Magna Charta to George Rogers Clarke's account of the capture of Vincennes; from Franklin's Plan of Union to Cromwell's first speech to his Parliament; from Washington's Farewell Address to Jefferson's Life of Capt. Meriwether Lewis; from the Swiss Constitution to Strabo's Introduction to Geography; from Lincoln's inaugurals and Emancipation Proclamation to Marco Polo's account of Japan and Java—and we have not half done. These volumes should go on the same shelf with Preston's useful 'Documents Illustrative of American History, 1606-1863.'

Those patriots who are anxious that we should, in Cuba and in Hawaii, extend our points of contact (and so of belligerency) with the outer world, would do well to ponder the significance of the four maps which stand like sentries at the front of 'The Statesman's Year-Book for 1896' (Macmillan). They are entitled "The Frontier Question on the Pamirs" (Russian sore spot); "The Indo-Chinese Frontier Question" (French sore spot); "Venezuela-Guiana Boundary Question" (South and North American sore spot); and "Map to Illustrate Recent Arrangements with respect to Bechuanaland" (Dutch and German sore spot). Never was the innovation of inserting maps in this standard year-book better justified than in the current issue, in which also, with the customary changes in every part, there has been a special furbishing of the naval statistics. It may be doubted if Abyssinia will continue next year to be reckoned under Italy's foreign dependencies.

The Cassell Publishing Co. renew as in former years their convenient little 'Cassell's Complete Pocket Guide to Europe,' familiar to tourists for more than a decade; but editorial prevision has not catered to visitors to the Olympian Games at Athens and increasingly to Greece by adding a section on that country, which is accordingly not in "Europe." That Turkey is equally counted out is perhaps indicative of the pious wish that fathers the thought.

Students of mediæval history who have been bewildered by the all too-rapidly accumulating "literature" of the last five or six years dealing with the origin of the German town constitution will be relieved to find in Dr. F. Keutgen's 'Untersuchungen über den Ursprung der deutschen Stadtverfassung' (Leipzig: Duncker & Humblot) a brief, sober, and scholarly review of the whole discussion. Dr. Keutgen neither follows the keen-witted though virulent Von Below in his Village Commune theory, nor does he accept the Market theory of Sohm, in spite of that scholar's well-nigh overwhelming authority in the early constitutional field. He perceives that there are several elements to be taken into account, not one of which can offer a complete solution of the problem; and, in particular, that the question of the sources of the town population is distinct from, though closely connected with, that of the town government. If any fault is to be found with his treatment, it lies in his unquestioning acceptance of the general principles of early constitutional development which have been current in Germany for a couple of generations past. The inquiry will probably have to go a good deal deeper than the municipal historians commonly suppose.

The three stories by the late John Heard which have been collected in 'Esquisses Mexicaines' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff), are rather gruesome, as stories, though they undeniably convey a distinct and truthful impression of typical nature and man in Mexico.

An important work on physical geography has lately been completed by A. de Lapparent, an author eminent among French geographers and geologists ('Leçons de Géographie Physique,' Paris: Masson). It is notable in two respects: it presents much more fully than any other European work the principles of geomorphology, as developed by various investigators in this country; and it applies these principles to the description and explanation of the geography of Europe, and more briefly to the rest of the world. Although even the well-known countries of Europe must again be explored with these modern principles in mind before they can be fully described, the summary statements here given of the facts and explanations already acquired is a very welcome contribution to modern geographical literature. For American geographers studying Europe at home, or contemplating a trip abroad, De Lapparent's work will prove a very serviceable companion.

Zola's new story, 'Rome,' is printed as a *feuilleton* in two Roman papers, the *Tribuna* and another, and has been received by their readers with loud cries of dissatisfaction. They complain that the book is partly worthless gossip and partly a heavy compilation of religion and politics. With even less patience do they bear Zola's cruel insistence upon the poverty and squalor of Rome, and his descriptions of the new quarter of the Prati del Castello, with its immense unfinished palaces with windows boarded up, the haunt of beggars and thieves. The *Tribuna* has been obliged to print a note denying all "solidarity" with the French author; and the *Riforma*, which speaks of the new novel in the most contemptuous terms, declares that "the insults and calumnies of M. Zola do not merit even a refutation."

The late Georges Delesalle was for years engaged on the compilation of a dictionary of French slang, and the result of his labors appears under the title 'Dictionnaire Argot-Français et Français-Argot' (Paris: Ollendorff), in which, by means of the second part, the student is enabled to find readily the slang equivalents of the polite or recognized word. Prefixed to the dictionary proper is not only a preface by Jean Richepin—himself a master of slang—who lauds, as it deserves, Delesalle's work, but an interesting though too short study of slang from its origin to the present day. All the words in Villon's "jargon" which have any affinity with modern French slang have been carefully listed; they are followed by a glossary of similar terms in the 'Vie Généreuse' of 1596, and by examples of slang verse of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Delesalle's object was not merely to collect a greater or less number of slang words; he wished to work in the same field as Timmermans, and to accumulate additional material for the philological study of *argot*, and in this he has certainly succeeded. The epigraph, it may be noted, is from Zola's preface to 'L'Assommoir.'

The first volume of Livet's 'Lexique de la Langue de Molière' (Paris: H. Welter) is out, and a welcome book it is. The work was crowned by the French Academy and the author awarded one of its important prizes; the book itself is published by the Government and printed at the Imprimerie Nationale. Livet's great erudition and his intimate acquaintance with the works, not of Molière alone, but of seventeenth-century writers, have enabled him to carry out in rich abundance his comparison of Molière's tongue with that of his contemporaries, and to add invaluable notes and commentaries to almost every word and expression. This first volume, of 532 pages, takes us but to the word *curiosités*.

The fifth volume of the "Théâtre Complet" of Edmond Gondinet has just been published by Calmann Lévy. It contains two of his vivacious comedies, "Un Voyage d'Agrément" and "Tapageurs," and a drama "Libres!" which is not as good reading as the amusing though often absurd lighter pieces.

Prof. Furtwängler, the successor of Brunn in the University of Munich, is delivering a course of public lectures on archæology, the proceeds of which are to be devoted to the "Mädchen-Gymnasium" about to be established in that city. The lectures are rendered additionally attractive and instructive by the use of the stereopticon, and are largely attended, so that the endowment fund will be considerably increased from this source. They also show the deep interest felt in the movement for the higher education of women by many of the most distinguished scholars of Germany.

On March 4 the faculty of the University of Heidelberg conferred the degree of Doctor of Philosophy *magna cum laude* on Fräulein Anna Gebser, who presented an historical thesis on "The Importance of Queen Cunigunde to the Reign of Henry II." On March 6 the same university conferred the same academic distinction on Miss Alice Luce, who, after graduating at an American university, devoted herself to philology at Leipzig and Heidelberg. Several other women, mostly foreigners, have also announced themselves as candidates for examination and promotion. Quite recently the diploma of Countess Marie von Linden, the first woman who ever took a degree at Tübingen, was affixed to the official "blackboard" of that university. This young lady, the daughter of the Würtemberg Chamberlain, Count Eduard von Linden, made a specialty of natural science and was "promoted" *cum laude*. Her thesis was on the structural evolution and characteristics of marine snails.

An interesting contribution, 'Zur Beurteilung der Frauenbewegung in England und Deutschland,' by Lily von Gizycki, has just been published by Heymann in Berlin. The authoress is the widow of the well-known writer on ethics, Prof. Georg von Gizycki, who died about a year ago, and of whom an appreciative sketch was given in a late number of *Biographische Blätter*. She is also one of the editors of the semi-monthly sheet *Die Frauenbewegung*, issued by Dümmler in Berlin.

The first female professor in Russia is Mme. Kerschbaumer, who has been appointed to the chair of ophthalmology in a medical college for women at St. Petersburg. She is a Russian by birth, but married to an Austrian physician, with whom she founded an eye-infirmary at Salzburg in 1875 and since then has been engaged in conducting this institute. She pursued her studies chiefly in Switzerland.

A correspondent writes to us: "An ingenuous student of political history who should seek in the Century or Standard Dictionary for a definition of Boy, would fail to find it. Presumably the editors of these works supposed the word in its political sense to be only ephemeral slang; but a word which has held its own for half-a-century may fairly claim to have established its title. In the New York *Mirror* of Oct. 25, 1845, we read as follows: 'It [*The Globe*] is a very handsome and gentlemanly-looking paper, considering that it represents the "unwashed Democracy," and is the acknowledged organ of the class of politicians known as "the boys."'" Even the Oxford Dictionary has missed this definition.

—The April *Atlantic* contains numerous papers of permanently attractive quality, adapted to the class of readers who bestow more than waste moments upon their magazines. The opening story, by Henry James, has more to gain than to lose by deferred reading, since its continuation is to follow next month. The Scotch element in American life, of which Prof. Shaler writes, may fortunately be regarded, not in the light of a threatening problem, but of a field where fruitful observation may be pursued with a cheerfulness of spirit not often possible when immigration is a theme. By an effective device of grouping, three articles, not especially noticeable if considered singly, are made to produce compositely a vivid impression of the range and diversity of American country life and scenery—from the woods of New England, whose old-time maple-sugar industry is sympathetically described by Rowland E. Robinson, to the Western farm, some financial as well as natural aspects of which are treated of in a short story by Octave Thanet, and to the Okefinokee swamp, a Southern paradise for the thoroughgoing camper-out. In the last paper, however, the naturalist's remorselessness in shooting rare specimens strikes a note discordant to the bird-lover and to the humane reader alike. A paper in which a large issue is comprehensively discussed is "China and the Western World," by Lafcadio Hearn. The ultimate event to which this paper points is the loss of supremacy by the Aryan to a non-Christian Oriental race; but the practical consideration is that Chinese industrial and commercial competition will have to be faced very much sooner than has been expected. Evidence is drawn from all quarters of the globe to prove the formidable capacities of this race as competitors in industry and commerce. The conservatism blindly relied on as a check to Chinese advancement does not extend to business, while tenacity in clinging to the ancestral simplicity, in matters domestic and personal, is a source of strength in the other direction. In arguing and illustrating his points, Mr. Hearn shows his usual subtlety of sympathy with an Eastern people "disciplined for thousands of years to the most untiring industry," and "content to strive to the uttermost in exchange for the simple privilege of life."

—*Scribner's* for April is smartly up to date, with the titles of most of its articles pointing directly to current events or to topics of current interest. A fashionable fad supplies the network of Richard Harding Davis's brightly touched-off story, "Cinderella," in which Van Bibber, somewhat obscured of late, reappears as a social power. Prof. Trowbridge describes briefly "The New Photography by Cathode Rays," and Henry Norman takes the side of solidarity and right reason in the "Quarrel of the English-Speaking Peoples." Aline Gorren, using as a starting-point M. Brunetière's remarks to the effect that literature and journalism are fundamentally incompatible conceptions, makes an interesting attempt towards a philosophy of the vulgarity of the American newspaper, and of its approved violation of the sanctities of private life. In writing of Lord Leighton, Cosmo Monkhouse owns to a schoolboy panegyric on a work of the artist exhibited in 1855, and his praise at the present date still leaves something to be desired in the nice balancing of artistic less and more; but his paper is genial and entertaining, and the illustrations are the best of their kind. Another article, profusely accompanied by pictures, describes a day at the classic games at Olympia. In spite of its elaborate attempt at an imaginative reproduction of time and personalities contemporary with Pindar, this article may safely be passed over in favor of Rufus B. Richardson's plain account of the restoration, in preparation for the games now in progress, of the stadion at Athens, where Mr. Richardson is director of the American School of Classical Studies.

—Prof. Marquand's account, in the *Century*, of the Olympic games and their history is of an unrelieved seriousness and solidity worthy of the 'Britannica,' and has at least this advantage over the encyclopædia article, that it seeks the reader and relieves him of the trouble of seeking it. Besides painful reminiscences, there may be found, under the head of "Four Lincoln Conspiracies," something new to most readers concerning the details of the three abortive plots which preceded the tragedy, and the flight and capture after it. In a literal rehearsal of events such as this, the meanness of the incidents of the assassin's hiding, his disappointed expectations of recognition as a hero, the petty character of his uncertainties and deceptions, strip him of even the dramatic interest that might have attached to him if he had not outlived his deed by a fortnight. In a third paper W. D. Howells dwells both humorously and eloquently on the inconsistencies and inconveniences of the fraternal relationship, as at present perforce recognized, and explains the essential difference between the involuntary or natural brotherhood and the brotherhood that is voluntary and human, or, as he finally prefers to call it, the supernatural brotherhood, with its superior opportunities of liberty, congeniality, and universality. That society, which has hitherto shirked its duty in this respect, shall take upon itself the obligations now unjustly attached to the ties of consanguinity, and shall thus relieve the individual from burdens often onerous and even odious, and which cause him to shrink in dismay at the thought of any more brothers, is the view this paper insists on and the end it would hasten. Second only to the pleasure of following Mr. Howells's ingenious essay is that of picking holes in his logic—a feat which will put no especial strain upon the reader's powers of mind.

—If this month's *Harper's* obtains more than the briefest lease of attention, it will be altogether owing to G. W. Smalley's interesting observations on James Russell Lowell, and the new phases of his character revealed to himself and others during his residence, as minister, in England. It is flattering to one's sense of the capacities of life for development to learn that after he had passed the limit of three score, Mr. Lowell underwent transformation from the reserved student to the man of the world in the best sense of the term, becoming after sixty the brilliant social personage and after-dinner speaker known to his later, and especially his English, admirers. The typical quality of Mr. Lowell's Americanism is a second theme of these recollections, through which there runs an element of defence of him in this particular. It was the pronounced national character of his individuality that won him a large part of his popularity in England, and it is not likely that the genuineness of his Americanism has ever been seriously doubted in any competent quarter, unless by patriots of the school of Theodore Roosevelt, who takes occasion in this same magazine, in an article on Gen. Anthony Wayne, to insist on such of his familiar doctrines as that "Americans need to keep in mind the fact that, as a nation, they have erred far more often in not being willing enough to fight than in being too willing." That, united, the future of the world belongs to the United States and Great Britain, divided, to neither, is the principle for which Mr. Lowell is remembered to have stood unwaveringly, at home and abroad. Measured by the statesmanship of the author of the essay on Democracy, the propaganda of the article on General Wayne amounts to no more than a harmless expression of personal idiosyncrasy, or an example of the difference between culture and anarchy in ideas.

—The seventh volume of Paul Leicester Ford's edition of the writings of Jefferson (Putnams) ends with his farewell to the Senate, as its presiding officer, on the eve of becoming the head of the Executive. In the six preceding years we see him retiring into his cheese, banishing the thought of politics, viewing his approaching end; rejoicing at escaping the Presidency when Adams was successful, knowing well "that no man will ever bring out of that office the reputation which carries him to it," but cheerfully accepting the Vice-Presidency, and entering at last with alacrity upon the higher office. The "feds" and Alexandrians, with "Ham," their chief, cause him endless concern; the Mazzei letter completes his breach with Washington; the "infidelities of the post-office" make him generally refrain from signing his private letters. His secret authorship of the Kentucky Resolves is displayed in his correspondence, and these landmarks of secession are admirably given by Mr. Ford in facsimile print, in rough draft, and in fair copy. Notable, again, are Jefferson's political creed on pp. 327, 328, with its many bearings on our present situation, and the memorandum of his services in answer to the self-inquiry

"whether my country is the better for my having lived at all." The fear of a bloody termination of slavery crops up everywhere; but on occasion of a negro rising in Virginia in 1800, he deprecates excessive hangings, writing to Monroe: "The other states & the world at large will forever condemn us if we indulge a principle of revenge, or go one step beyond absolute necessity. They cannot lose sight of the rights of the two parties, & the object of the unsuccessful one." Other aspects of Jefferson in this typical volume are the philosopher interested in fossils and in Indian languages; the manufacturer of nails; the inventor of a mouldboard. Mr. Ford's scrupulousness, in the matter of an insert respecting a disputed phrase in the letter of June 1, 1798, to John Taylor, was, to our mind, wholly uncalled for by the context.

—The incidents connected with the Presidential election of 1800 are admirably told in the letters contained in the third volume of 'The Life and Correspondence of Rufus King' (Putnams). The mistakes of John Adams in carrying through his "unadvised" measures, and the political blunder of the Federalists under the lead of Alexander Hamilton, brought that party to a crushing defeat. Hamilton's letter on Adams destroyed his followers' belief in his discretion, and did much to lead to the triumph of the other party. It is curious to see how erroneous were some of the judgments expressed of leading men. Marshall was thought to be too much guided by the refinements of theory; to be temporizing, and even feeble. His indolence and attachment to convivial habits were dwelt upon, and some years elapsed before his reasoning powers and weight of character were recognized. So Troup wrote of Gallatin's appointment to the Treasury: "An appointment by all virtuous and enlightened men amongst us considered as a violent outrage on the virtue and respectability of our country." The death of Washington naturally received attention, and the whole nation was described as exhibiting "all the symbols and badges of grief. Our churches are all hung with black cloth and our bells have long been muffled. The tongue of envy and malice is dumb—and not a word and not a whisper is heard from any mouth but in the General's praise. . . . Jefferson has just arrived in Philadelphia. He has taken care to avoid all ceremonies of respect to the memory of Gen. Washington." Turning to affairs abroad, King describes the want of attention paid to Washington's death by the English court. The death was announced in the newspapers, but not in the *Gazette*.

"I attended the next Levee in full mourning; my colleagues made me the customary compliments of condolence, but the King, tho' he spoke to me as usual on other topics, took no notice of the occasion of my being in mourning, & was silent respecting America. The next day, being the Queen's drawing room, I was at court & in mourning, as on the preceding day; both the King & Queen observed the same reserve, as the King had before done. I went again to the Levee, still in mourning, & the King still maintained his former silence. The Ministers are not regular in their attendance & commonly come late; some of them were, however, present on each day, but none of them said a word to me concerning the Death of this great man; so I conclude, & the President, who well knows the character of this court, will think I had sufficient reason to do so, that this disrespectful omission &, as I consider it, want of magnanimity was a concerted neglect."

—The failure of the commission on damages under the sixth article of Jay's treaty, and the standing grievances on impressment, convoys, and rights of neutrals, formed the subjects which monopolized King's activity; and so judiciously did he do what was expected of him that Jefferson saw no reason to remove him when the Federalists had ceased to be in power. The editor has performed his task with discretion, and adds value to the record by making good some omissions in former volumes. The extracts from King's memoranda are interesting, although it is sometimes difficult to accept as historical the anecdotes he records. The proof-reading shows carelessness: Hopson's choice (p. 293); the names of Stoddert (p. 380) and Truxtun (382) are misspelled; while the letter in cipher on p. 398 could have been deciphered from the copy in the Department of State. The letter of Adams to Tench Coxe is accessible in the 'Life of Pinckney.' The word *brimberion* is described by Troup as having been coined by John Adams, although the word *brimborion* was a word in good usage in the last century and had been borrowed from the French.

—The inhabitants of Neuchâtel have been extremely proud of certain fragments of local chronicles, which were held to be of the fifteenth century, and to have been written by the canons Purry de Rive and Hugues de Pierre. They related the story of the battles of Morat and of Granson and other high ancestral deeds. A great scandal, therefore, came to pass when M. Pioget, a young archivist who had studied the chronicles more closely than others, put forth the opinion that they could not possibly be authentic. Much noise was raised around him, by which, happily, he was not at all intimidated, but only went on to a still closer examination of the old texts. He finds in them a great number of words and of turns of expression which were not in use till a century after the death of the pretended chroniclers. Some statements of fact also are singularly inexact, such as an allusion to the University of Bâle some twenty-five years before its foundation. Besides demonstrating the apocryphal character of the chronicle, M. Pioget has been able to indicate the manuscript sources from which it was drawn, and almost, if not quite, to unveil the fraudulent author of it. He must have belonged to the entourage of the Chancellor de Montmollin, if it were not Montmollin himself, who lived at the beginning of the eighteenth century. The most earnest partisans of the authenticity of the chronicles have been obliged to yield to the abundance of M. Pioget's proofs, but they do it with rather a bad grace. Indeed, many of the Neuchâtelois appear to find the new discovery disconcerting.

PATER'S LAST ESSAYS.

Miscellaneous Studies: A Series of Essays by Walter Pater, late Fellow of Brazenose College. Prepared for the press by Charles L. Shadwell, Fellow of Oriel College. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THESE final gleanings of Mr. Pater's work lack, in some instances, the latest touch of his hand; but in none except the essay on Pascal can they be called incomplete. All that they want is unity; they are so many codicils to his studies in art or in literature. The most precious and significant are in the nature of autobiography. Mr. Pater's reader's will find them all characteristic and worthy of preservation; his admirers will consider one, at least, unique and indispensable.

The chapters on Raphael, on Romanino and Moretto of Brescia, on the Cathedral of Vézelay and Notre Dame d'Amiens, are the continuation, by a skilled and matured hand, of those eloquent essays on Botticelli and Luca della Robbia and Leonardo da Vinci which appeared more than twenty years ago. It is not for a mere layman to criticise these, but simply to express the opinion that fortunate indeed is the student who shall make his first acquaintance with these less-known painters, and with these cathedrals, under the guidance of such a cicerone. Mr. Pater here writes in the plain and direct manner of one who has much to tell and has complete mastery of his subject, one who has eyes to see what many cannot see by themselves, and who has all the historical equipment, the acquaintance with the life and thought of a period, without which even the artist's eye cannot see straight and intelligently. A far safer and less whimsical guide than Mr. Ruskin, a guide more poetically sensitive than Mr. Hamerton, we always feel that he is most inspiring, most felicitously occupied, when his theme is art. We are not now speaking as a connoisseur, but as a learner who has found in him his Virgilio, in some sort—his gracious and illuminating conductor in strange regions to whose atmosphere he was not born. To the literary critic, at any rate, it is quite clear that Mr. Pater moves most easily and most winningly, with fewer temptations and snares for his footsteps, when, as we have said, his theme is Art. When he is not treating of Art directly, he strays into it inevitably. His 'Marius' is a series of brilliant and imaginative pictures; his philosophy is the philosophy of an artistic spirit, of the Platonic lover of beauty.

The fundamental endowment of his nature is most strikingly revealed in the sketch entitled "The Child in the House," here first published in the collected works. It was called originally, when it appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine*, "an imaginary portrait"; but it is undoubtedly a portrait of Mr. Pater's own childhood. It has a singular interest and value because it sums up all the peculiarities of his style and manner, as well as of his temperament. It is a picture of an extremely sensitive artistic temperament, taken with all the shades, the nuances, of some peculiarly delicate process. This hyperæsthesia, which verges upon disease, which one sees distinctly reaching disease in many pages of Maupassant's 'La Vie Errante,' remained with Mr. Pater simply an exquisite organ, a superfine sense with which he took in the world so vividly that his impressions became far more real to him than any thoughts or processes of reason. He began "to assign," as he himself says, "very little to the abstract thought, and much to its visible vehicle or occasion. He came more and more to be unable to care for or think of soul but as in an actual body, or of any world but that wherein are water and trees, and men and women look so or so, and press actual hands." One can understand from this how Marius proceeded in his conversion. He accepted, in the house of Cecilia, an ocular demonstration of the Christian religion. He saw there a family living lives of sweetness and charity, peace and contentment; he saw this life moving in an atmosphere of decorum and ritual that appealed to his taste and his sense of fitness: he looked upon the beauty of holiness, and he surrendered at discretion. It is not an intellectual process at all. There is no inquiry for credentials, no inquiry as to whether this belief be true or false. The intellect has no part in his choice any more than it has in the decision whether a

woman is beautiful. We look and we make up our mind without hesitation. From the same natural bent proceeds his fondness for the ritual and symbolism of religion; his "love for the comely order of the sanctuary, the secrets of its white linen and holy vessels and fonts of pure water, its hieratic purity and simplicity, became the type of something he desired always to have about him in actual life." It is this same feeling that gives us the wonderfully sympathetic and vivid picture of the rites of Aesculapius, and of the Christian worship and ceremonial at the house of Cecilia —a scene which shows us what sort of familiar appeal may have won the minds of the early Christians at a time when their religion, "hardly less than the religion of ancient Greeks, translated so much of its spiritual verity into things that may be seen." As a final touch we have the confession that this passion for the visible emblems and consolations of religion was fed in the child's soul by his early fear of death, "a fear of death intensified by the desire of beauty."

The essay on Pascal is a further revelation of our author's temperament and of his necessary point of view. It would have received some additions if he had lived, but its general outline and drift would not have been altered. He describes the 'Pensées' as evincing a malady of genius, a typical malady of soul, which, he observes, anticipates certain modern conditions of thought—the ailing helplessness of Obermann, for example. Pascal's malady, he goes on to say, "reassures sympathetically, by a sense of good company, that large class of persons who are *malades* in the same way." "La maladie est l'état naturel des Chrétiens," he quotes with a sort of acceptance, and adds, "We are all ailing more or less with this disease," not perceiving the irony of his own admission nor the profound irony of Pascal's attitude in such an utterance. For the 'Pensées' present chiefly the spectacle of a powerful and penetrating intellect which has stultified itself by the acceptance of certain irrational dogmas, and which bears the consequence in an agonized endeavor to make this attitude square with the rational scheme of things. To achieve this impossibility, he wrests and twists his own powerful logic, he vilifies man, he vilifies the Deity whom he professes not to know. To his credit be it said that his yoke is too heavy for him to bear, and it causes him unutterable misery. With lesser spirits the penalty of such a surrender is a growing indifference to truth, a decay of conscience that ends in dishonesty; no sight is more pitiable to the student of human nature than the certainty with which this degeneracy affects certain classes of men, even the best of men. But, for Pascal, sincerity and power of intellect were a supreme endowment. He could not quench it without groaning and travail of spirit; he had made *il gran rifiuto*, the abdication of his own reason, and so he necessarily belonged to the class he so pathetically describes as the band of those "qui cherchent en gémissant." It is the tragedy of a Samson who has put out his own eyes. Yet it is a Samson who has not wholly succeeded in blinding himself; the light still glimmers, and the light gives pain, the mortal pain of a great intelligence at war with itself, an intelligence made to apprehend life and the world, not (like Mr. Pater's Marius) chiefly by the senses, but with the inward eye. To his serious apprehension, the æsthetic charms, the ritual of the Catholic Church were, indeed, as Mr. Pater himself admits, often weary and unprofitable, "an extra trial of faith." The vision of things must come to him not by their beauty, but by their reality, by their truth. And hence, with this fundamental sincerity, there is a horror of compromise, a tendency to paradoxes and contradictions, a readiness "to push all things to extremes." He is ready to push even his scepticism to an extreme.

Mr. Pater notes the influence of Montaigne on some of the "Thoughts," the *sceptical influence of Montaigne*, as he calls it. It is quite true that in those later years of illness described by his sister with a naïve fidelity of diagnosis, Pascal has lost the self-poise, the wit of the 'Lettres Provinciales'; he has parted company with the large and sane spirit, the transcendent good sense, of Montaigne, which looked so far and so serenely beyond the mists and prejudices and conventions of his time. But Mr. Pater fails to see that Pascal is never so thoroughgoing, so absolute a sceptic as when, in the 'Thoughts,' he denies altogether the validity of his own reason in favor of a mystical scheme inspired by an ecclesiastical authority. "Nous ne connaissons ni l'existence ni la nature de Dieu." "Il n'y a rien de si conforme à la raison que ce désaveu de la raison." Such phrases go far beyond the Pyrrhonism of Montaigne. We can hardly conceive them as uttered before that last period of shock and hallucinations and ascetic pietism which his sister so vividly portrays. They anticipate, it is true, the language of some theologians of the present century; yet they are the *ne plus ultra* of agnosticism, for they affirm not merely that we do not know, but that we cannot know, the realities of the Universe.

"Apollo in Picardy" is the realization of a conception which had haunted Mr. Pater's mind for many years, the earliest hints of it appearing in the series of papers on the Renaissance. It is a delicate fantasy played about a theme which Heine suggests. The exdeity Apollo, a wanderer to northern climes, brings to the chill seasons of Picardy an alien supernatural brightness, and plays strange pranks with the monastic brethren among whom he is a sojourner. Masquerading as Brother Apollyon, he still retains his lyre, and helps by its magic notes to raise the rhythmical and classic lines of some monastic edifice; he still keeps his bow, and his ancient dominion over the creatures of the forest; and, by the spell of his weird and baneful beauty, he ensnares, as of old, young Brother Hyacinth to wrestle and play quoits with him. It is a fatal game played on some late autumn evening, when the scene dissolves before the earliest blast of winter, and the vagabond god at last flees with the whirling leaves, tricksy and conscienceless, leaving the stain and suspicion of murder on the innocent mad Prior St. Jean. The antics of the exiled deity, wavering between monk and wizard and daemon, and retaining in his fallen estate the relics and reminiscences of his ancient dignities, are traced with the fine and dexterous strokes of learning and imagination which painted the Amazon in the "Hippolytus Veiled." It is a pretty bit of moonshine, lighting up the fretwork of some old ruin—a fancy which few writers would have dared to intrust to the matter-of-fact vehicle of prose.

But Mr. Pater likes to demonstrate that prose is not necessarily prosaic, that it is an instrument of many stops, from which a varied music may be drawn. The proof of this is easy enough, if you know how—*solvitur ambulando;* and Mr. Pater does offer us a rather convincing solution Yet we like his work best when he is not pursuing these wire-drawn fancies and clothing them in a web of elaborate and ingenious spinning. We like him best when he is so charged with his subject that he has no time left to think of embroidery. Nothing that he has since done moves with a flow so free and impassioned as those early essays on the Renaissance. Nothing, for example, quite equals his description of Leonardo's "La Gioconda," as a spontaneous flight of sustained imagination and eloquence. There is many a paragraph in his later works that moves with curious artifice, on the wings of Icarus. But the flight makes us uneasy. There is something in the movement, tortuous, baffling, ineffectual; it affects us like some of the nocturnes of Chopin. These periods are intended to imitate with cunning carelessness the freedoms of conversation, its digressions and parentheses; but the art is too evident, it reminds us of Mr. Pater's favorite *askesis.* There is indeed too much *askesis* for the reader; and readers, with proper justice, object to any athletics of the understanding which are not demanded by the intrinsic weight and difficulty of the theme. Mr. Pater speaks somewhere of the "long victorious period"; some of his periods are long and not victorious—not victorious as Plato's longest periods, or like Mr. Ruskin's, both of which bear the reader without fatigue triumphantly on the wings of a passionate and powerful eloquence. Therefore it is that we most admire Mr. Pater when he lets himself go, when he forgets his artifice and yields to the current of thought and emotion of the moment. He did this oftenest, as was natural, in the ardor and abandon of youth.

But the word *abandon* can never be rightly used of any period of Mr. Pater's work. It was always under the control of an artistic conscience that tended to austerity. For, mingled with this pathetic precocity of the "Child in the House," that susceptible spirit nurtured on delicate and dainty sights and sounds, it is a singular trait to discover an admiration for the Spartan training of youth, whether in English schools or in Lacedæmon. The foundation for this admiration is, we suppose, the feeling for restraint and measure in art, for an *askesis* which may emerge in asceticism; and the theory that masculine beauty is developed by such training. This feeling is embodied in the imaginary portrait of Emerald Uthwart, which is the counterpart of the sketch of the Laconian "noble slavery," one of the most brilliant chapters on the Platonic system and ideas. Uthwart is a young Englishman with the ideal temperament of a soldier, the tastes of a scholar, and the susceptibilities of Mr. Pater's own childhood. He leaves Oxford after the training of an English school, and serves in a brief campaign in Flanders, where he receives an honorable wound. He is finally dismissed in disgrace because of some irregular exploit, which, though punished by a court-martial of martinets, won, after later investigation, the applause of his countrymen and the reversal of the military decision. The reversal comes too late, and he dies of the double wound at his heart. Uthwart is the embodiment of that *askesis* which Mr. Pater so much admires, of the monastic discipline and obedience, the vigorous rule in play and study, of a Rugby or a Winchester, "a sort of hardness natural to English youths," crowned by the subtler influences of Oxford, "the memory of which made almost everything he saw after it seem vulgar." This last sentence evidently comes from Mr. Pater's heart. No one can blame him for loving that one ideal shrine in the world of σχολή, of scholarly leisure and quiet,

where wisdom may be worshipped and pursued in ideal temples, amid habitations which Plato himself might have found no less fitting than his own Academy.

SHAW'S MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

Municipal Government in Continental Europe. By Albert Shaw. The Century Co. 1895.

THE interest now so generally felt in the improvement of municipal government in the United States is a natural development of civilization. Americans have been for many years occupied in subduing a new continent, and during this century the work has been pushed at a tremendous pace. Much remains to be done, but the task is no longer on the great scale of the past, and our present command of the resources of nature is so complete as to give us leisure to pay attention to our conquests Like men who, having accumulated a comfortable property, begin to think of improving their houses and adorning their grounds, our cities are awakening to the possibilities of better sanitation, smoother pavements, handsomer buildings, and more beautiful parks. As is usually the case, governing bodies lag behind public opinion, and we are therefore at present engaged in stimulating our rulers to more enlightened and honorable activity.

The popularity of Mr. Shaw's books is evidence of the growth of the municipal spirit in this country. The details of the administration of government, especially of the government of subordinate communities, are not intrinsically of an interesting character. But when the Anglo-Saxon conscience is aroused, as it is now aroused concerning municipal improvement, the natural aversion to details is overcome, and even statistical tables lose their terrors. Moreover, it is only fair to say, Mr. Shaw has the knack of coating his pills of information with a pleasant style, and he quickly leads his readers away from the analysis of tedious particulars to the contemplation of splendid results. Whatever criticism may be passed on his methods, it is undeniable that he succeeds in attaining what is probably his main purpose—the presentation to Americans of such magnificent ideals of civic progress as shall stimulate them to vigorous effort towards their realization.

Perhaps the most striking fact, to the ordinary American reader, of all that Mr. Shaw presents, is that European cities have recently been increasing their population at a more rapid rate than those of this country. We are so much in the habit of expatiating upon our wonderful progress as to make it startling to be told that since 1870 Berlin has overtaken and passed New York; that in thirty years Philadelphia has gained a half-million souls, while Berlin has gained a million; that in 1875 Hamburg and Boston had nearly the same number of inhabitants, while in 1890 Hamburg had almost 570,000 to 448,000 in Boston; and that during this period Hamburg's population has increased at twice the rate of that of Baltimore. Leipzig has distanced St. Louis and San Francisco; Cologne has in the last decade surpassed Cleveland, Buffalo, and Pittsburgh. So if we compare Munich and Breslau and Dresden and Magdeburg with American towns of corresponding size—Detroit, Milwaukee, Louisville, Albany, Rochester, and even Minneapolis—we find that the foreign cities have grown almost without exception faster than our own. Even Nuremberg, which we associate with the Middle Ages, increased its population between 1880-'90 from less than 100,000 to 142,000, while Providence grew only from 105,000 to 132,000. In some cases, Mr. Shaw observes, the annexation of territory affects these comparisons, but these cases probably offset each other. Moreover, if we take in the smaller towns, the general result is the same, and if we were to bring the comparison down to 1895, it would be even more favorable to the German towns.

It is quite evident that the plea of infancy, which we have perhaps been taught to make too much of by the protectionists, is no longer available to our cities. As a matter of fact, with the exception of an ancient core, the ordinary German city is newer than the American. If the foreign towns have surpassed our own in the quality of their development, we cannot longer excuse ourselves on the ground of youth, nor can we escape the conclusion that our own backwardness is due, not to any parsimony in public expenditure, but to lack of intelligence and honesty in our governments. Doubtless Mr. Shaw is somewhat carried away by his subject, and almost all foreign administration seems to him admirable. We shall presently take exception to some of his statements; but, making due allowance for the *couleur de rose*, we must admit that in the art of municipal government we have been fairly distanced by countries which our popular orators generally speak of as "effete."

As we have pointed out in commenting on Mr. Shaw's book about the English cities, there appears to be only one explanation of this. In all matters directed by private enterprise we need confess no shameful deficiency; it is in the administration of public affairs that we fail. At the same time, we are the only people whose municipal affairs are regulated by universal suffrage. The argument is conclusive that our form of government is one of the causes, if not the sole cause, of our backwardness. As we cannot expect to do away with universal suffrage, we must somehow manage to improve its results. Nothing can be cruder than to suggest that we have only to introduce foreign methods of administration in order to solve our problems. The matter is far more difficult than this. It is hard to account for the slackened rate at which our population increases unless it is explained by the burden of misgovernment. If we are to improve our cities, it must be done not by increasing the rate of taxation, but by economical and business-like expenditure. We have sufficient intelligence to keep up with the march of progress; but we cannot do so without adopting the methods employed in successful private enterprises.

For these reasons Mr. Shaw's book is disappointing. He lavishes praise on foreign methods and is ecstatic over foreign results, but he gives us comparatively little in the way of precise and definite statement that is useful for purposes of comparison. We find it quite impossible from his data to determine whether the administration of the government of Paris is economical or ruinously extravagant. He expatiates on the lighting system of that city—which is behind the times in its use of electricity—but he does not tell us how much it costs to produce gas, or how much the consumer has to pay for it. But unless we have these data we cannot tell whether the revenue derived from taxing the gas company is desirable revenue or not. This revenue is now 20,000,000 francs; but it is questionable if a tax upon light is, on the whole, advantageous, no matter how productive it may be. Mr. Shaw thinks it indisputable that if the city were to provide gas, the poor people of Paris would get it cheaper than now. Perhaps they would apparently have it furnished for nothing, like some other things; but what would become of the 20,000,000 of revenue, and who would finally pay the piper?

Again, if we wish to compare the results attained at Paris with those at Berlin, we must go elsewhere than to Mr. Shaw's book. The nearest approach to definite information may be found in the appendixes, where some scanty tables are presented as the budgets of these cities. On the face of these figures it would seem that the Police Department of Berlin cost 3,331,000 marks, while that of Paris cost 29,520,000 francs; that the care and management of the streets and parks of Berlin cost less than 4,000,000 marks, while in Paris the corresponding expense was not far from ten times as many francs; and that the salary account in Berlin was a little over 7,000,000 marks, against nothing under that head in Paris. In fact, wherever we have attempted to obtain exact results from Mr. Shaw's statements, we have failed so completely as to lead us to the opinion that he has depended mainly on what he has been told, and has seldom made any thorough investigation for himself.

Perhaps the most remarkable exhibition of Mr. Shaw's methods is to be found in his study of Paris, which occupies one-third of his book. We are there told that "all countries are under permanent obligations to the clear political philosophy that furnished the French Revolution with its principles," and it is intimated that this philosophy would require that the administration of Parisian affairs should be turned over to the Municipal Council. Concerning this body Mr. Shaw writes with less comprehension than can be obtained by any one from a file of Paris newspapers. He says that public exactions in Paris have not tended to exhaust the sources of private wealth, and then shows how rapidly the number of school children who cannot afford to pay for their own dinners has increased, how from 15,000 to 20,000 families annually have their rent paid by the City Council, how "thousands of honest men in temporary need" are boarded by the city in the free lodging-houses, and brings much other evidence tending to prove that the number of people unable to earn a living in Paris must be very great. Considering that the ordinary expenditures of the government of the city are 290,000,000 francs, of which about 111,000,000 francs is on account of its indebtedness; that the extraordinary expenses are nearly 50,000,000 francs more; that the debt is now 2,000,000,000 francs, practically all of which has been incurred within forty years; and that in addition to this the national charges are of a staggering magnitude, it seems a hasty conclusion that the sources of private wealth have not been affected. Undoubtedly there is much to show in Paris for all this expenditure, and Mr. Shaw is quite confident that very little money has been wasted, although he mildly cautions the authorities to resist the temptation to increase the bonded debt. But in what way the French people are to meet the charges of the war for which they have been so long waiting, when it at last comes, it is not easy to say; or rather it is clear that solvency can be maintained only by the preservation of peace.

Mr. Shaw is so resolutely optimistic that we are not surprised to find no allusion to the disposition of the Paris Council to subsidize strikers; a disposition formerly curbed by the general Government, but which in a recent case has been permitted to display itself outside of Paris. Of the Bourse du Travail he has only

commendation to offer, being appparently ignorant of the capture of that institution by the communists, whose conduct became so scandalous as to compel the authorities to close its doors. We could multiply instances of this kind, which prove that for really scientific uses Mr. Shaw's book has slight value; but, as we have indicated, it has merits of another kind. It will at least arouse interest in matters of the highest importance, and will direct attention to the quarters from which the information that we need may be derived. It is a stimulating and suggestive essay, or collection of essays, and the way is now broken for some cool and clear-headed observer to lay before the American public the results of really scientific comparison of the methods of municipal government.

The Relief of Chitral. By Capt. G. J. Younghusband and Capt. F. E. Younghusband. Macmillan & Co. 1895. Pp. 183.

With Kelly to Chitral. By Lieut. W. G. L. Beynon. Edward Arnold. 1896. Pp. 160.

HARDLY a year passes without some little war being undertaken upon some part of the extensive frontier of the British Empire in India. None of these little wars has attracted such general interest in recent times as the operations conducted last spring for the relief of Chitral. The ordinary Indian frontier expedition is undertaken for the punishment of some rebellious tribe, or the subjection of some petty independent chieftain who has neglected to obey the orders of the Government of India. The Chitral expeditions had a more dramatic interest. A British agent was besieged by an overwhelming force of native tribesmen in a small hill-fort among the mountains of the Hindu-Kush, several hundred miles from the nearest military post; it was known that he had with him only a small force of Sikh and Kashmir troops. The season was the most unpropitious for mountain warfare; the enemy was brave and experienced, and the country through which alone relief operations could be conducted well-nigh impassable by reason of natural difficulties; and, to compare small things with great, the situation was similar to that in the Sudan in 1885, when the civilized world was marvelling at Gordon's heroic defence of Khartum, and wondering whether the relieving force hurrying up the Nile could arrive in time to save him.

It would take too long to narrate the events which brought about the dangerous situation of Dr. Robertson, the British agent. It is enough to say that Chitral is a small, mountainous state, 300 miles beyond the borders of British India, not far from the Pamir region, and nominally dependent on Kashmir. It is exceedingly doubtful whether the British Government in India was justified in interfering with such a distant and inaccessible country as Chitral, but, for good or for evil, it had interfered, and as a consequence its agent found himself in the month of March, 1895, besieged in a ruinous hill-fort, eighty yards square, with a garrison of 99 Sikh and 301 Kashmir infantry, by several thousand Pathans and Chitralis led by Umra Khan, a neighboring Pathan chief, and Sher Afzul, a pretender to the Chitral throne. It was necessary for the maintenance of British prestige that Dr. Robertson should be rescued at once, and, as soon as his desperate situation was known, two expeditions were sent to his relief, and the siege of Chitral was raised after a gallant resistance in which the garrison lost more than one-third of its numbers.

The volume written by the two brothers, Capt. G. J. Younghusband and Capt. F. E. Younghusband, gives an excellent account of the defence and the relief of Chitral. The siege lasted from the 4th of March to the 19th of April, and during the latter part of this period the garrison had to subsist on a scanty allowance of horse flesh. Umra Khan was an expert in mountain siege operations, and tried every method of attack; several attempts were made to set fire to the fortifications; a nearly successful effort was made to run a mine under the fort, which was frustrated only by a gallant sortie; and the walls were so weak that they had to be strengthened with empty boxes, and so full of gaps that carpets had to be hung across to prevent the enemy from picking off the defenders. Unceasing vigilance was necessary to prevent a surprise, and there were only three British officers available for duty. To add to the dismay of the garrison, information was received during the early part of the siege that two reinforcements, the one escorting a much-needed supply of ammunition, had been cut off, and that the British officer commanding one party had been killed with two-thirds of his men, while the British officers commanding the other party had been captured by Umra Khan.

The news of the siege, followed by the news of these disasters, caused the Government of India to direct a powerful force to be mobilized on the Punjab frontier, which was ordered to march due north through the valleys that formed the territory ruled by Umra Khan to the relief of Chitral. At the same time instructions were sent to Col. Kelly, who commanded a Sikh regiment which was making roads upon the northern frontier of Kashmir, to make an effort, if an effort were possible, to reach Chitral by advancing through the mountains first west and then south for some 300 miles. The larger expedition, which marched northwards from the northwestern corner of India, consisted of about 15,000 men, including six British regiments, and was commanded by Gen. Sir Robert Low. It crossed two lofty passes in spite of determined opposition, and fought several successful actions. Its operations caused Umra Khan to give up the command of the army besieging Chitral, and to return to the defence of his own villages, but it had not the honor of relieving the besieged garrison. This feat was accomplished by Col. Kelly, despite the smallness of his force (which consisted of only 400 Sikhs and some untrained native levies) and the exceptional difficulties of the country through which he had to pass. The operations of both Low and Kelly are described at length by the Younghusbands, who acknowledge in no grudging terms that the military honors of the campaign were earned by the gallant garrison of Chitral and the indefatigable officers and men of Col. Kelly's column.

Col. Kelly's operations form the subject of Lieut. Beynon's narrative, which is a naïve and simple record of the daily occurrences of an arduous march. Readers of Mr. Kipling's Indian stories will remember the tale told by "The Infant" in "The Conference of the Powers." Lieut. Beynon is simply "The Infant" in real life. The style, the language, the allusions, the narrative as a whole bear the unmistakable imprint of a Kipling story. Now it can be taken for granted that Lieut. Beynon is not imitating Kipling—his narrative is far too artless and natural for such a suspicion—and it is a further proof of Kipling's singular genius in assimilating the manner of thought and speech of the British subaltern on service in India that the words of Lieut. Beynon, relating real events, should read like the words of Mr. Kipling in one of his most characteristic stories. No higher praise can be given to Lieut. Beynon's personal reminiscences than this, and all who have enjoyed Kipling's tales of military life should make a point of reading them. They will find not only a narrative of sustained interest, giving an insight into the character of the young British officers of the present day, but also an account of natural difficulties heroically surmounted, of the crossing of a pass 12,400 feet high, covered by fresh fallen snow several feet deep, of two fights in which positions of the greatest strength were successfully stormed by a handful of native troops led by a few young Englishmen, and of perils and trials cheerfully faced by both officers and men. Both as a record of a gallant feat of arms and as a human document, few more fascinating volumes dealing with military action have been published in recent years than Lieut. Beynon's 'With Kelly to Chitral.'

The Gurneys of Earlham. By Augustus J. C. Hare, author of 'Memorials of a Quiet Life,' etc., etc. In two volumes. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

IN these beautiful volumes, enriched with a remarkable series of "Goupil-tint" reproductions of portrait paintings and engravings, and also with many woodcuts and silhouettes, the editor comes to his task with an experienced hand, and if his success is less conspicuous than heretofore, the fault is less his own than that of the materials with which he had to work. To be virtuous and noble it is not necessary to write a good epistolary style, but to write such a style is necessary to the prosperity of a book made up largely of personal letters. And then, too, much that, in its day, may be quite admirable, passing from friend to friend, and very comforting and consoling under life's various sorrows, may suffer from the fierce light of general publicity, and from the changes that the expression of religious thought and feeling undergoes with the lapse of years. Sometimes, indeed, the flavor of antiquity is good. There is something quaint and racy in the religious phraseology of the earlier time that commends it to our appreciation. But as orthodox Quakers, profoundly affected by the Evangelical Revival, interlarding their letters with its phrases to the exclusion of the most characteristic forms of genuine Quaker speech, while retaining many of the most conventional and mechanical, the Gurneys often degenerate into a jargon that is wearisome to heart and mind.

In one way and another much that is printed here has been put within the reach of the reading public. Samuel Gurney and Joseph John, their sister Elizabeth Fry, and their brother-in-law, Thomas Fowell Buxton, have all had their biographies written, and incidentally something has been made known of their family connections. But Mr. Hare's predilection is preëminently for family biography, and what he has attempted here is to give a picture of the Gurney family, a record of their united experiences of domestic joy and sorrow, public service and reform, and religious development and change. It is certainly not strange that such a family attracted him to the attempt. If anything deterred him, it must have been the size of the family, for it numbered, the children of John Gurney and Cathe-

rine Bell (a great-granddaughter of Barclay of Ury), twelve, born from 1776 to 1791. We cannot be too grateful for the tabulation of their names and those of their wives and husbands, with the dates of their births, marriages, and deaths. Without this help the labyrinth would be utterly bewildering, especially as there are uncles, cousins, and aunts, some of whom play a prominent part upon the crowded stage. Only one of the children died in infancy. Three of the sisters did not marry, but Joseph John married three times, his third wife acquiring no less than 119 nephews and nieces by her marriage, eleven of whom were the children of Elizabeth Fry, whose public cares imposed no check on the prolific habit of her house.

Earlham, the big, comfortable, beautifully situated house a few miles from Norwich, in which the children all passed their youth, and several of them their childhood, was rented from a family which had owned it for centuries, in 1786, and the Gurneys occupy it still. With its spacious rooms and grounds and its innumerable cupboards, it was a perfectly ideal house for eleven children to grow up in, and draw their lovers to, and get married from, and come back to, always thankfully, from time to time. Much the pleasantest part of Mr. Hare's book is that which reflects the happiness of the household during the years while the children were still young. The Quakerism of the father was much less strict than that of his children who continued in the faith, and we read of dances and gayeties and pomps and vanities that in after years Elizabeth Fry could not remember without pain. She was herself one of the gayest of them all until, in 1798, going to meeting profoundly conscious of a pair of purple boots with scarlet lacings, Friend William Savery from America excited in her a violent revulsion from her innocent happiness, and made her a Quaker of the plainest kind. None of the girls had taken kindly to the Quaker Meeting before this. It was in Goat's Lane, and to write in their journals that the meeting was disgusting was so inevitable that they were obliged to invent a formula, "Goat's was *dis*," to avoid laborious repetition.

They were a family of diarists, and the diaries of the children throw much light on their development. If not all "over-early solemnized," soon or late they all made large atonement for the brightness of their early years. Even their marriages were undertaken in a portentous and oppressive manner. Elizabeth's brought with it many anxieties. Her husband had not the Midas touch of the Gurneys, which turned everything to gold. But Samuel, the richest and most genial of them all, could always be trusted in an extremity. The defection of her children from her Quaker strictness was a sore grief to her, and, when they went over to the Established Church, she knew the bitterness of death. Two or three of her sisters went the same way, but with little or no abatement of their Quaker simplicity and severity. The evangelicalism of the Macaulays, Fenns, and Wilberforces engrafted on a Quaker stock brought forth much fruit of morbid self-depreciation and distrust of natural humanity. This effect was more positive and less agreeable in the case of Joseph John Gurney than with the others. All that was least simple and natural in Quakerism and the Clapham Sect seemed to coalesce in his theology and piety. He took himself with awful seriousness, sometimes mistaking his fondness for public speech for a leading of the spirit, and writing letters to his brothers and sisters in their affliction so devoid of natural sympathy that their elaborate consolation must have been hard to bear. There is only the briefest mention of his long visit to America, in the course of which he devoted himself more earnestly to smashing the Hicksites and the unorthodox abolitionists than to the anti-slavery testimony to which he had felt himself called. There was really very little of the Quaker left in him, although he accounted himself one of the strictest of the strict, and was so in the ordering of his speech and action. But his thinking was that of the Clapham Sect, his bibliolatry narrow and intense, with an insistence upon dogmas of which Fox knew but little and for which he cared even less. Now and then Mr. Hare is bold enough to "hint a fault or hesitate dislike" of his rigid dogmatism and formalism, but his best criticisms upon them are the contrasting qualities of Samuel Gurney.

All that relates to Mrs. Fry's endeavors to alleviate the miseries of prison discipline is interesting, but gives no new impression. In her "journeyings often" in furtherance of these endeavors, the simplicity of her nature must have been in frequent danger from the adulation of nobility and royalty—a tribute in part, we are compelled to think, to the commercial standing of her brothers. She was not unconscious of this danger, though when she wrote of herself as "undermined with excessive love," it was her love for others that she was thinking of. But the danger which she most feared, and with best reason, was from the adulation of her sectarian friends. "I have," she wrote, "passed through many and great dangers, many ways; I have been tried with the applause of the world, and none know how great a trial that has been and the deep humiliation of it; and yet *I fully believe it is not nearly so dangerous as being made much of in religious society*. There is a snare even in religious unity if we are not on the watch." The italics are presumably Mr. Hare's. They do not exaggerate the importance of the warning words.

Everywhere in these volumes we breathe an atmosphere of social sympathy and reform. Sir Thomas Fowell Buxton, who married Hannah Gurney, was Wilberforce's first lieutenant, and carried through the West India Emancipation to its conclusion after Wilberforce's death (like that of Moses) in full vision of the promised land. But this great business is not dwelt upon, much self-denial being necessary to an editor who has taken so large a contract as the Gurney family on his hands. To so large a family, death must be a frequent visitor, and the details of sickness and death obscure many pages with their clouds and mournful light. There are other pages that can be less safely skipped than these. The combination of plain thinking with high living which was characteristic of a family at once so pious and so rich, affords perhaps the most characteristic feature of the book. There is much to admire, and, even where our admiration halts, our interest is sustained by the exhibition of instructive traits of character, which, failing to attract us, warn us of something to avoid.

From Blomidon to Smoky, and Other Papers. By Frank Bolles. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 278.

AMONG these essays are several which are merely accounts of excursions; these are delightful and well worth preservation in book form. It is not from them, however, that the volume derives its greatest value; the title furnishes no hint of what is most important in the contents. Ten of the thirteen chapters are filled with notes on birds in freedom and on birds in captivity. In these there is much that was new, much that was necessary before the life histories could be written, and this gives the work a place and permanence that could not have been secured without it. Mr. Bolles was an excellent field naturalist, and he resorted to the haunts of nature's children, alert in every sense, to learn of them, not to close his eyes and dream. He gathered a great deal, all of which was open to everybody, yet much of which was new to literature, and some of which was at first received with question. When he first announced that the sapsucker in chosen groups of trees, "orchards," drilled the trunks for sap, "bird men" somewhat generally smiled in a knowing way, for they knew the bird to be an insectivore, and certain of their number had shown beyond doubt that the little woodpecker was seeking the insect in the tree, and certain others had proved conclusively that the holes were bored to start the sap to attract the insects, that the bird might catch them. "Oh, yes; very likely the bird was laughing at him!" But the observer knew the scientist was doing all the laughing, and, to satisfy him, the drills were watched for weeks, observations were taken betimes from morning till night, and besides all this some of the birds were taken and kept for months, feeding almost entirely upon diluted syrup. Then it was admitted as not at all improbable that the birds in pursuit of the insects might acquire a taste for sap, and it was also conceded that our author himself might be an ornithologist.

An enthusiastic sympathy with nature pervades the text, and Mr. Bolles's style is so earnest and convincing that, after perusal of his pages, one feels as if he could never meet those birds without memories of "Puffy," "Fluffy," and the others, or of how they told the author of their habits and peculiarities as he called them about him in the woods. We like the book; we can only regret that death has denied us more from the same pen.

Beautiful Houses: A Study in House-Building. By Louis H. Gibson, Architect. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1895. Pp. xi, 346.

THAT house-building is an art, and that its best developments have arisen from the needs of the future occupants and their instinctive sense of what would suit them best, are the safe propositions to the proving of which one-half of this book is devoted. The domestic architecture of the past is discussed in 130 pages with an abundant supply of illustrations, and many of the pictures in the second and larger division of the book also are available as illustration of earlier chapters. The discussion of English domestic architecture, pages 91 to 107, is appreciative and judicious, the illustrations are well chosen, and the reader wishes for more of it, and for the omission of the not very appropriate or very well managed discussion of the transition from Gothic to Classic which is interpolated. The discussion of American "Old Colonial" buildings, which follows on page 127, seems very oddly separated from the English chapter above. It is true that the English domestic architecture of the Georgian epoch is not mentioned in the discussion of English examples, but the American Colonial architecture is a variant of the architecture of George II. and George III., and the mention of that fact at page 127 would have steadied the mind of the inquirer. The very curious conception of Continental domestic architec-

ture—namely, that it is fine in its larger and statelier manifestations, but inferior in its simpler forms—which is to be found put into words on page 91, page 103, and elsewhere, naturally sends the author to England and America for examples which may be useful to modern builders. It is in no way surprising that the actual and the possible connection between ancient and modern design is imperfectly made out, for to have done this thoroughly would have involved much serious work; but perhaps the reader has a right to expect some suggestions of the reason why the modern houses, however well adapted to their owners' wants, are without artistic merit, while the ancient buildings have always character and frequently beauty. In this respect there is no connection between the first and the second halves of this book. In the one we are told of the spirited and interesting buildings of the past, and in the other we are shown how modern houses are made comfortable, convenient, pleasant to live in, hygienic, and ugly. Each of these is a good essay in its way, and perhaps it is hypercriticism to complain that they are not connected by any comparison of the social influences which made for good art in the one case, and which make for unbeautiful confusion in the other; but we had been encouraged to hope for it by the generally wise suggestions of the first part.

The numerous illustrations, taken from many different books as well as directly from the buildings, contain a great deal of valuable material, but the appearance of the book is marred by their extremely diverse character.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Hans. Fritz auf Ferien. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 20c.
Baker, Prof. G. P. Shakspere's Midsummer Night's Dream. Longmans, Green & Co.
Baptie, David. Sketches of English Glee Composers. London: William Reeves; New York: Scribners. $1.75.
Becke, Louis. The Ebbing of the Tide: South Sea Stories. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott. $1.25.
Beresford Webb, H. S. Storm's Immensee. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Boas, F. S. Shakspere and his Predecessors. Scribners. $1.50.
Borrow, George. The Bible in Spain. 2 vols. Putnams. $4.
Brandes, Georg. Das junge Deutschland. Zweite Auflage. Leipzig: H. Barsdorf; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Brown, Alice. The Road to Castaly. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Burke, Edmund. Conciliation with the American Colonies. American Book Co. 20c.
Cabrera, Raimundo. Cuba and the Cubans. Philadelphia: The Levytype Co.
Carpenter, Edith. Your Money or Your Life. Scribners. $1.25.
Cavalry Studies from Two Great Wars. [International Series.] Kansas City: Hudson Kimberly Publishing Co.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. A Flash of Summer: The Story of a Simple Woman's Life. Appletons. $1.
Coleridge, S. T. The Rime of the Ancient Mariner. American Book Co 20c.
Collins, May. A Plea for the New Woman. Truth Seeker Co. 10c.
Corelli, Marie. The Mighty Atom. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Cosmian Hymn Book. Truth Seeker Co. 50c.
Crawford F. M. A Roman Singer. Macmillan. 50c.
Crowest, F. J. The Story of British Music. Scribners. $3 50.
Curtis, W. E. Venezuela: A Land where it's always Summer. Harpers. $1.25.
De Quincey, Thomas. Revolt of the Tartars. American Book Co. 20c.
Dickinson, Mary L. From Hollow to Hilltop. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 50c.
Drayson, Gen. A. W. Whist Laws and Whist Decisions. Harpers. $1.
Fairbrother, W. H. The Philosophy of Thomas Hill Green. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Groome, F. H. Kriegspiel: The War-Game. Ward, Lock & Bowden, $1.50.
Hawthorne, Julian. A Fool of Nature. Scribners. $1.25.
Hawthorne, Julian. Mr. Dunton's Invention. Merriam Co. 50c.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel. The House of the Seven Gables. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Heard, John. Esquisses Mexicaines. Paris: Ollendorff.
Hepworth, G. H. The Farmer and the Lord. E. P. Dutton & Co. 75c.
Hervey, W. L. Picture Work. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 30c.
Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. Studies in Education. Chicago: Werner School Book Co.
Justice, Maibelle. Love Affairs of a Worldly Man. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1896. Macmillan. $3.
Lamothe, A. de. The Outlaw of Camargue. Benziger Bros. $1.25.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLVI. Pocock-Puckering. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lindley, E. Marguerite. Health in the Home. New York: The Author.
Loti, Pierre. Pêcheur d'Islande. W. R. Jenkins. 60c.
Loudon, W. J. An Elementary Treatise on Rigid Dynamics. Macmillan. $2.25.
Lummis, C. F. The Gold Fish of Gran Chimú. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50
Macaulay, Lord. The Life of Samuel Johnson. American Book Co. 20c.
Macdonald, E. M. Col. Robert G. Ingersoll as He Is. Truth Seeker Co. 25c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 16, 1896.

The Week.

THE platform of the Rhode Island Republicans is the most outspoken yet of all party utterances on the money question, going farther even than the excellent deliverances of the Republicans of New York and Massachusetts. It declares inflexible opposition to the free and unlimited coinage of silver, pronounces the continued agitation of the silver question "unpatriotic and destructive of all the interests of industry and commerce," and adds:

"The existing gold standard is the measure of value adopted by the nations with whom the United States have the most important commercial relations, and the very suggestion of a departure from it inflicts injury to the credit of a nation whose honor should never be questioned at home or abroad. To those who toil for their daily bread, a currency redeemable in and of equal value with gold is essential. While the capitalist may protect himself against the fluctuations even of silver, the laborer and the artisan, the salaried official and the widow, are powerless to guard against the changing values of a currency which a great and beneficent government should make absolutely secure and unchanging in its purchasing power."

It is refreshing and encouraging to find such straightforward talk as that in a party platform on the eve of a Presidential campaign. If we had a few Presidential candidates who were capable of like frankness and courage, the outlook would be much better than it is. The Rhode Island convention did not declare for any candidate, but its delegates are said to be in favor of Speaker Reed. McKinley's name was not mentioned in the convention, but the *Tribune's* correspondent says this was carefully avoided because to have mentioned it "would have been just the same as hollering 'Fire.'" This may be true, since the naming of McKinley on that platform would have been a performance so incongruous that the convention would have been justified, had such a thing occurred, in running as from a burning building.

The Maryland Bankers' Association has followed the example of the New York State Bankers and of the executive council of the American Bankers' Association, by adopting a resolution in favor of "a rigid adherence to the gold standard of value." There is nothing more encouraging than this attitude of the bankers on the great question of the day, for although they have been right all the time in their own minds, they have not heretofore deemed it prudent to take a bold stand and make an aggressive fight for the views they hold. The fact that they do so now indicates that they find public opinion backing them pretty strongly. Comptroller Eckels made a capital speech to the Maryland bankers, in which he said that the American people would never elect a President who would give his official sanction to a bill for the free coinage of silver. Mr. Eckels is right, and what he says had best be heeded by both political parties when they nominate their candidates and make their platforms this year. The tide is now running strong against all free-silver candidates and all straddlers, both Republicans and Democrats.

The news from Washington about the Cuban question confirms the report that the Administration does not purpose doing anything at present in the way of recognition, for reasons which must commend themselves to every rational person. The Senate ought to be the helper of the State Department in maintaining the rules of international morality, but aid from that quarter is not to be expected at present. There does not seem to be any reason, however, why a courteous attempt at mediation should not be made. This is, of course, never out of order. A civil proposal to both parties to mediate, with the consent of both parties, would be a perfectly reasonable proceeding, now that the armed conflict has lasted over a year and is threatening civilization itself on the island. The ravages of the insurgents seem likely to leave the island a howling waste, and we are as much interested as any one in preventing this result. In fact, nobody will suffer as much as we shall through the loss of the island by Spain, for a proposal to annex it, and make of it about three States, will certainly follow. Cuban independence we can stand, but the conversion of the Cuban population into American citizens would be a great calamity.

It is comforting to know that there are limits to the readiness of the United States Senate to interfere with the affairs of the universe while it neglects the demands of the nation for which it is supposed to legislate. Mr. Call of Florida introduced a most absurd resolution last week concerning the imprisonment of Mrs. Maybrick. This extraordinary resolution recited that the people of the United States "sympathize with Florence E. Maybrick, formerly of Mobile, Ala., in her sufferings under a sentence of life imprisonment at hard labor in England"; that they "almost universally believe her to be innocent"; that "it would be an act of gracious respect to the public opinion of this people, speaking the English language, in large part of English descent, governed by the same laws, inheriting the same love of law and order, the same abhorrence of crime, the same love of liberty and the protection of the weak and helpless against arbitrary power, for the Government of Great Britain to pardon Mrs. Maybrick and restore her to her country and her family"; and requesting the President to communicate this resolution to the Government of Great Britain. Senator Sherman had sufficient sense of the proprieties to move to lay the resolution on the table, explaining that whatever difference of opinion might exist as to Mrs. Maybrick's guilt or innocence, "certainly it is a subject over which the Senate of the United States has no jurisdiction." Mr. Sherman finally consented to have the resolution referred to the judiciary committee, and that committee reported it back adversely on Monday on the ground that the Senate has no jurisdiction over the subject. It is not to be wondered at, in view of previous performances by his colleagues, that Mr. Call should have supposed that the Senate would humor him in this matter, but it was perhaps necessary that absurdity should be carried to this extreme before the upper branch of Congress should recover its senses.

"Presidential politics" reaches a very low level when the admission as States of two Territories notoriously unfit for statehood is threatened in order to secure delegates for or against one or another candidate in the Republican national convention next June. That is what is explicitly charged by the Washington correspondents of Republican newspapers like the Philadelphia *Press* in explaining the action of the House committee on Territories last Thursday, when it voted to report favorably the bill for the admission of New Mexico. There is absolutely not a single sound argument in favor of the proposition. The population of the Territory is below the number required for a member of Congress under the present apportionment, and the number of inhabitants is growing very slowly, although the region was long ago provided with good railroad facilities. Moreover, the ratio of illiteracy among the people is far greater than in any other Territory ever brought into the Union. At the beginning of the session the Republican members of the House committee were generally opposed to admission, but all save one voted for it last week, the controlling reason with the Pennsylvania, New York, and Iowa members being the desire to secure the New Mexico delegates to the St. Louis convention for Quay, Morton, or Allison. Similar motives have since operated the same way in the case of Arizona. Of course, if the Republicans allow these bills to pass the House, the free-coinage majority in the Senate will jump at the chance to strengthen their forces by four votes.

The Democratic national convention will not be held until nearly a month

after the Republican, and public attention hitherto has been almost monopolized by the canvass for delegates to the first of these great gatherings. The holding of conventions for the choice of delegates to the second assembly has now begun, however, and, from this time on, both parties will be declaring their position in various States every week. The first Democratic convention has just met in Oregon, and the result was favorable to that element which insists upon a free-coinage deliverance at Chicago next July. The friends of sound money asked nothing more than a reaffirmation of the currency plank on which Cleveland ran in 1892, but the silverites insisted upon an out-and-out declaration for "16 to 1," and carried the day by a vote of 152 to 91. The next Democratic State convention will be held in Missouri next week, and the free-coinage men have been carrying everything before them, almost every county convention having adopted strong resolutions favoring free coinage, while the sound-money men secured only 10 out of the 68 delegates from the city of St. Louis.

Gen. Harrison's friend Mr. Michener explains the circumstances under which it may be necessary to make the ex-President a candidate again. It is like calling in the best doctor in an emergency. Ordinary practitioners may do as long as the disease runs on smoothly, but when heroic measures are necessary, the best man must be had at all hazards. Now the Republican party, Mr. Michener finds, is suffering from a serious complication of disorders. Its brain is threatened with gold congestion; its stomach appears to be invaded by silver cancer; one foot has low-tariff gout, the other is afflicted with McKinleyismus in its worst form; and various peccant humors, in the form of a combination of silver and tariff, cause darting pains throughout the body. It is a clear case for calling in Dr. Harrison, thinks friend Michener. But we must observe that the greater the emergency the greater the need of knowing the standing, the "school," of the last-resort physician. The trouble with Dr. Harrison is that his record shows him to have practised all kinds of medicine. A mixture of diseases does not require a mixture of cures. The Harrison remedies have been those of the "regular" schools, metaphysical "healers," Christian scientists, and faith-curists successively. The patient will not know which one to expect from him, and, unless he makes up his mind to say what treatment he is in favor of, we fear that Quack McKinley will continue in charge of the case, with the undertaker in easy reach by telephone.

There is general agreement as to the facts of the business situation. The fair promise of prosperity seen in nearly all branches of trade last fall has been blighted. "Business started out splendidly last fall," says President Roberts of the Pennsylvania Railroad. "Everywhere I learned that there had been a general revival of business in the fall," says President Depew of the New York Central Railroad, referring to his trip through the West. Against the background of those flattering hopes of six months ago, the record of failures for the first quarter of 1896 looks black enough. Both in number of failures and in total amount of liabilities, Bradstreet's tables show that the past three months surpassed any corresponding period of our commercial history. Those are the facts, and there is no getting away from them. What is the theory to account for them? How does it happen that we are not sharing in the prosperity which English trade is now enjoying?

We know what the partisan, the McKinley, theory is. Last fall's prosperity was due solely to anticipation of the blessings of a Republican Congress. People were only impatiently taking their profits in advance. The Wilson tariff was ruinous, a Democratic President in charge of the finances was a calamity, but still money could be made on the strength of the tariff that was to come in three years' time. That was the orthodox Republican theory six months ago. Now it has been amended. No man is willing to invest a dollar or hire a laborer until McKinley is nominated. All the dollars, in fact, are being expended to buy his nomination, and none are left for trade. If prosperity comes quickly, it will be due to hope which radiates from his noble face; if not, it will show in what desperate need of him the country stands. This theory we all know. We might argue against it, but we will not. Neither will we argue with children under four, or with people who live in padded rooms. But it is well, in the intervals of the insane chorus, to allow the voices of unprejudiced business men to be heard. Says President Roberts: "Congress convened, and that was the first blow to the business world. Next came the silver craze with its calamitous career in the Senate. And lastly, as if to cap the climax, came the everlasting agitation of our foreign relations. The Venezuelan message started the ball rolling, and since then we've had the Monroe Doctrine, Armenia, England, Spain, and Cuba." President Depew testifies that "all business was paralyzed by the war scares." These are but typical instances of the way the clatter of the politicians falls on cynical ears among business men. They are cynical not only about partisan theories, but about partisan remedies. What they do count upon and pin their faith to is, as President Roberts says, a declaration by both parties in favor of the gold standard.

The *Engineering and Mining Journal* has made a special examination of two recent transactions in the iron market which have attracted attention. One of these is a shipment of Alabama pig iron to England, the other a contract for 10,000 tons of steel rails for Japan, taken by the Carnegie Steel Company. The first of these it finds was a trial order for 1,000 tons, to be followed by larger ones if the quality were found satisfactory. The price is supposed to be about $8 for No. 1 foundry and $6.50 for gray forge, or perhaps a trifle less than those figures, which are the advertised prices for domestic deliveries. The contract price for the steel rails has not been made public, but the *Journal* conjectures that it is about $20 per ton at the mill. The price charged by the steel-rail combination to domestic consumers is $28. Another fact of some importance is that the Grand Trunk Railway of Canada has placed an order for 15,000 tons of steel rails with the Illinois Steel Company of Chicago, at prices lower than those at which English steel can be afforded at Montreal or Quebec. "The important point proved in the cases under consideration," says the *Journal*, "is that our works are able at the present time to turn out iron and steel at costs which enable them to compete with the English and other European mills on ground which they have always considered their own." Not only is this the fact, but it is equally true, and even more important, that the power of production has so far exceeded the consumption of the country that a foreign market for the surplus is indispensable. These facts furnish a rather discordant note to the McKinley braying chorus which now fills all ears, but they will not stop the braying. More protection will be demanded just the same, and it will not be surprising to be told that it is an advantage to us to pay $8 per ton more for Mr. Carnegie's rails than the Japanese get them for.

An attempt was made a few days ago in Congress to introduce the metric system of weights and measures in the United States, and it very nearly succeeded in the House, but, after a small majority had been recorded in favor of it, the vote was reconsidered, and the bill was sent back to the committee which had reported it. The metric system was adopted permissively by an act of Congress passed in 1866. The bill proposed by the committee on coinage, weights and measures provided that all the transactions of the Government and of all departments thereof involving weights and measures, except the surveys of the public lands, should thereafter be effected by the metric system, an exception being made of the surveys of public lands so that they might continue to be uniform. A question was raised in the debate on the bill whether the metric system would be compulsory on individuals in their private business, the chairman of the committee, Mr. Stone, contending that the old weights and measures would still be lawful, while Mr.

Parker of New Jersey maintained that they would not be so after January 1, 1901. The language of the second section of the bill seemed to sustain Mr. Parker's view, and the clause was fatal to the measure, and seems likely to be so in any future attempt to introduce the metric system.

The spoilsmen in Congress have won a victory by placing obstacles in the way of the rapid extension of the movement for improving the postal service by the consolidation of offices tributary to large cities. For some time the Postmaster-General has been making the offices in suburban towns stations of the adjacent city, and their heads subordinates of the city postmaster, instead of independent officials. The advantages of this system in raising the standard of service have been made manifest wherever it has been tried, and the patrons of offices in the smaller places near Boston, Brooklyn, and Baltimore are more than satisfied with the results of the change. But Senator Gorman has found that this system in Maryland threatened his control of the village postmasters, and he rallied the spoilsmen of both parties in successful support of a provision prohibiting the further consolidation of post-offices beyond the corporate limits of the city in which the central station is located. The Republicans who believe in boss methods were easily persuaded to coöperate with the Maryland Senator by the argument that extensions of the reform might prevent their control of the small offices after the expected victory of their party in the Presidential election next fall; while men who have always professed to favor reform, yielded to Gen. Hawley's plea that the old-fashioned village postmaster stood as the preserver of our liberties.

The decision of the State Civil-Service Commission to put Commissioner Lyman's special agents in the non-competitive schedule was what was expected, but our belief is that everybody engaged in the enterprise will live to regret it. The Raines act is a serious matter for the Republican party in this State. No matter how it is administered, it will put the domination of the party, in both city and State, in great peril. All, or nearly all, that class of voters who turn the scale at elections in the State are now persuaded that the bill was concocted and passed for the deliberate purpose, not so much of regulating the liquor traffic, as of establishing a Platt machine. Both in the interest of Gov. Morton and of the party, everything possible should have been done to allay this suspicion. The most effective if not the only way of allaying it was to make plainly non-partisan appointments of the officers who were to execute the law. This would have done much, or, at all events, something, to make people believe that the law is really a liquor law. On the contrary, everything that has taken place in connection with the bill, ever since it was introduced, tends to confirm the popular suspicion about it. It now appears pretty clear that the removal of McKinstry and the appointment of Lord on the State Civil-Service Commission, in January, was a preparation for what was done last week, as it put Col. Burt, the only civil-service reformer on the commission, in a minority, and enabled Lord and Cobb to vote him down. Gov. Morton would have done well, both for his own fame and for his political prosperity, to keep his skirts clean of all complicity with this plot. If the band who concocted it think they can transfer their juggling apparatus to Washington, they are mistaken. Neither they nor their kind have won an election in this State for many a day. The fortunes of politics in this State are in the hands of a different class, who have at least the remnants of a moral sense and some sparks of patriotism.

The statement of Ballington Booth published on Monday shows that the split in the Salvation Army is the consequence of Gen. Booth's bad conduct when in this country. "He objected to the display of the national flag upon our badges and in our halls and homes. He said the time had arrived to cease carrying the stars and stripes at the head of our parades." He is evidently a bad old man. Moreover, the books, etc., were all revised in London, and all rules and regulations were made in England, and were enforced by orders received from London. The organization was directed from abroad. Ballington makes a long statement in support of the above, but judiciously remarks, "There will be denials and counter-statements." Doubtless there will, but he, in our opinion, does not go far enough. We do not think the new American organization ought to save a single man or woman who has not been naturalized. Carrying the flag is all very well, but the "Volunteers" and those saved by them ought to be bona-fide American citizens in order to make this body a really American organization. Unfortunately for Ballington, Booth-Tucker and his wife have arrived from England, and are going to be naturalized immediately, and, so far as spoken words go, are as devoted to the flag as he is, while adhering to the old organization. Indeed, their love of the country seems to surpass Ballington's. The conflict of the two movements will at least bring us a great increase of patriotism.

All the English magazines for April have articles, from the hands of experts, on the Egyptian complications. They all agree that the decision to send an expedition towards Dongola was as surprising to the public, both in England and in Egypt, as it was and remains inexplicable in its real motives. Lord Farrer left Cairo on March 8, Major Griffiths on March 9, and neither of them had heard in official circles a whisper of the need or of the purpose of making such a movement. The contention that the expedition is really intended as a demonstration in favor of the Italians at Kassala, is thoroughly riddled by Major Griffiths's article in the *Fortnightly*. He shows that, from a military point of view, it is impossible to get to Dongola in force before next August. So the first glib talk of a "dash on Dongola" means nothing. This is apparently the conclusion of the Government itself. Mr. Curzon first announced an expedition to Dongola, later corrected himself to an advance "in the direction of Dongola," and finally located the terminus for the present at Akasheh—not one-third of the way to Dongola. If there is, therefore, any maturely considered and far-reaching plan back of the movement, it would seem to look, as the best authorities think it does look, to the reconquest and holding of the Sudan. This can be undertaken on the plea that it is necessary to the safety of Egypt, since her present frontier is, as Major Griffiths shows, an entirely uncertain line across which Dervish raids are constantly pushing.

The result of the elections to the new Cortes will surprise no one familiar with Spanish political methods. The Government always wins in such elections. If it did not, the order of nature would seem, to the Spanish mind, to be miraculously violated. The only question is of the majority. Sometimes, as in the present case, the thing is overdone and the majority made so outrageously large as to excite protests. The Opposition will stand being put in a minority of one to two without whining, but to be left with only one Deputy to three is going a little too far. However, there is not much vigor even in the cries of rage over Conservative greed and cheating that are now going up from the Liberals. Sagasta knows that he has only to wait a little while for his turn to come. The very dispatches giving the news of the sweeping Conservative successes add that "it is conceded on all sides that the new Cortes will be short-lived." That is to say, Cánovas will soon be thrown over by his own majority, Sagasta will be called in, *he* will then have a chance to dissolve and get his infallible majority, and so the whirligig will spin on. Nothing can better illustrate the present unfitness of Spaniards for parliamentary government than the wearisome repetition of this electoral farce. The Cuban trouble appears to have cut no figure in the campaign, except so far as the Deputies from the island itself are concerned. It cannot be denied, however, that this demonstration of Spanish political feebleness comes most inopportunely for a country insisting upon its right and ability to govern a distant colony.

"IN CLOSE TOUCH WITH THE PEOPLE."

In his first term as a member of Congress McKinley voted for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1 in 1877, and to override President Hayes's veto of the Bland-Allison act in 1878. As leader of the House a dozen years later he earnestly advocated the passage of the silver-purchase act in 1890, on the ground that "we cannot have free coinage now except in the manner provided in the bill." The advocates of McKinley's nomination for the Presidency have only one way of meeting the disclosure of these ugly facts. They excuse the course of their favorite in each instance by the plea that he was no worse than his party or than public sentiment. As the Chicago *Inter Ocean* puts it:

> "McKinley's record in Congress on the silver question really shows that he was in happy accord with a great majority of the Republican party on that as well as on other great questions. He was not only with the vast majority of the Republican party, but he showed himself to be moving in close contact with the general public sentiment of the country—showed himself to be in close touch with the people."

In this argument the supporters of McKinley have reached the lowest level that can be reached in urging the claims of an aspirant for the Presidency. They maintain, and seem glad to maintain, that their favorite is a man without a spark of the statesmanlike foresight which enables its possessor to discern the dangers of a popular craze that for the moment sweeps everything before it. They boast that the first aim of their candidate, while he was a member of Congress, was to learn what the prevailing sentiment of the public at the moment of voting was, and then to array himself on that side. Their argument logically leads to the conclusion that, if he were elected President, he would not interpose the executive veto against the enactment of the most dangerous bill passed by Congress, because, if he took such an attitude, he would no longer be "in close touch with the people."

The framers of the Constitution would have been amazed to hear such a plea, that the President of the United States should be nothing more than the mere echo of fleeting public sentiment. One chief reason for vesting him with the veto power was that he might stand as a bulwark against this danger. Hamilton says in the 'Federalist' of this prerogative:

> "The power in question not only serves as a shield to the executive [from encroachments upon his power by the legislative department], but it furnishes an additional security against the enaction of improper laws. It establishes a salutary check upon the legislative body, calculated to guard the community against the effects of faction, precipitancy, or of any impulse unfriendly to the public good, which may happen to influence a majority of that body. The propriety of the thing does not turn upon the supposition of superior wisdom or virtue in the executive, but upon the supposition that the Legislature will not be infallible; that impressions of the moment may sometimes hurry it into measures which itself, on maturer reflection, would condemn. The primary inducement to conferring the power in question upon the executive is to enable him to defend himself; the secondary one is to increase the chances in favor of the community against the passing of bad laws, through haste, inadvertence, or design. The oftener the measure is brought under examination, the greater the diversity in the situations of those who are to examine it, the less must be the danger of those errors which flow from want of due deliberation, or of those missteps which proceed from the contagion of some common passion or interest."

The theory of the veto power is that the President may save the nation from disaster in a crisis by refusing to keep "in close touch with the people," by opposing what seems to be the prevailing public sentiment. As a rule, our Presidents have lived up to the theory of the Constitution in this respect, and in every such case history has justified their action. When they have fallen to the lower level of not opposing any popular craze, the nation has always suffered.

When Congress passed the inflation act in 1874, public sentiment appeared to favor it, and a majority of the Republican Senators earnestly supported it, among them such powerful leaders as Cameron of Pennsylvania, Morton of Indiana, and Logan of Illinois. A President whose prime object was to keep "in close touch with the people" would have signed the bill without the slightest hesitation. What saved the nation from a frightful disaster was the fact that Gen. Grant recognized "true principles of finance, national interest, national obligation to creditors" as superior to what might prove, and did prove, an "impulse unfriendly to the public good," such as the framers of the Constitution had foreseen.

When another of these dangerous impulses was felt in Congress sixteen years later, the incumbent of the White House was apparently a man who lacked Gen. Grant's courage. In 1890 the passage of a free-coinage act was threatened, and Senator Sherman and other Republicans who opposed that policy were made apprehensive, by Mr. Harrison's silence, that he would not feel at liberty to veto such a bill if it should pass. "Some action," says Mr. Sherman, "had to be taken to prevent a return to free silver coinage, and the measure evolved was the best obtainable." The silver-purchase act, the operation of which within three years compelled the calling of a special session of Congress to secure its repeal, was thus due to the weakness of a President who could not be depended upon to resist the passion of the hour.

McKinley's record on the currency question is bad enough. But the defence of that record on the ground that he was in line with his party, and the advocacy of his election to the Presidency because he will always try to be in close contact with public sentiment, uncover fresh perils to the country from his successful candidacy. An executive whose highest aim is always to be "in close touch with the people" is to be dreaded, as a constant menace to the safety of the nation.

THE DEMOCRATS NOT ALL DEAD.

The news which has come to hand during the past week concerning the results of city and town elections in various States must be a genuine shock to the readers of Republican newspapers. They have been assured that the Democratic party was so nearly extinct that it was not to be regarded seriously as an element in the next elections. It might make a pretence of running candidates, but would put them forward in a purely perfunctory manner, and with no expectation of electing them. The Republicans had so "sure a thing" that they might run any one they pleased for the Presidency, on any kind of platform, and elect him in a walk-over. Even Mr. McKinley, with an unbroken silver record and on a straddling platform, could be elected without a struggle. The local election news does not harmonize with this view. It shows not only that the Democrats are alive, but that the rascals are voting in such numbers as to greatly cut down Republican majorities in some places and actually carry the elections in others.

Several weeks ago the town elections in New York State showed a marked reaction in favor of the Democrats because of the Raines liquor-tax bill. That measure had not then been made a law, and the popular disapproval expressed towards it was not so strong as it is now. Many other elections were held on April 7, and in these the Democratic gains were more pronounced and general than they were in those held earlier. The general result is much the same as it was in 1893, when the people of the State improved their first opportunity of passing judgment upon the Democratic party's course under Hill, Sheehan, Maynard, and Flower. The winter and spring elections for supervisors in many counties of the State in that year showed almost uniform gains for the Republicans. The Democrats made light of their loss, but when the November election was held they discovered that the loss had foreshadowed a Republican majority of 100,000 in the State. The Republican losses now are fully as large and uniform as were the Democratic three years ago, and they come from localities which are capable of doing the party the greatest amount of harm. They are largest in the cities, nearly all of which, so far as heard from, give Democratic gains. This was inevitable, for it is in the cities, with their large and mixed populations, that the Raines law will excite the greatest opposition. The country districts will not be much affected by it, as the liquor question plays a small part in their affairs, yet even in these sections there are distinct signs of a Republican reaction, for the Democrats have made a slight net gain in the supervisors thus far elected.

In other States the same signs of Democratic life and energy are perceptible. City and town elections were held throughout Michigan on the above date, and, according to the *Tribune's* dispatches,

"unusual interest was manifested" and a "large vote was polled"; and "while the issues, as a rule, were purely local ones, the Democrats generally developed unlooked-for strength, and in many cities which for years have returned Republican officials their ticket has been elected in whole or in part." Similar reports come from Ohio, in which elections were held on April 6. The Democrats cut down the Republican majorities in many places, and carried others for the first time in several years. So too in Connecticut. They made a vigorous contest in all quarters, and scored gains in many. In Wisconsin they are also alive, for in the Milwaukee election of April 7 "large Democratic gains were recorded in all wards of the city." New Jersey bore a like testimony on Tuesday last.

We do not cite these facts as convincing proof that the Democratic party is bound to carry the next Presidential election, or that it has an equal chance with the Republican party in that election; but we do think that they give unmistakable evidence that the Republicans cannot afford to run unnecessary risks. The Democrats of the country are not dead. They have been greatly disheartened by the failures of their party in Congress, and thousands of them have stayed away from the polls in recent elections on that account. But the conduct of the present Republican Congress has cheered them up a bit on this point, by showing them that one party is no worse than the other in this respect, and they are beginning to vote again. They have not gone over to the Republican party, and the excitement of a Presidential campaign will bring them in practically solid mass into active politics again. The town elections foreshadow this unmistakably, and the Republicans will be wise to recognize the fact and conduct themselves accordingly. New York is a doubtful State for them to-day; it would be a sure Democratic State with McKinley on one side and a sound-money Democrat on a gold-standard platform on the other side. On this point there is no room for doubt. The warnings from other States are scarcely less plain. Great and sudden changes in popular sentiment are very familiar phenomena in our politics, and a blunder by the Republicans now would be quite certain to produce one. The business interests of the country, which control all elections, will not consent to the election of a man whose record on financial questions is notoriously unsound, and whose political and private business record is no better.

"INTENTION" IN INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS.

Congressman Hitt's defence of the Senate Cuban resolutions, which he had before declared to be indefensible, was based on the ground that international action of that kind can be offensive only when "it is on its face manifestly *intended* to offend." We remarked last week that this is to import into international law the Jesuit doctrine that bad actions are virtuous if done with good intentions. One of Pascal's most delightful Provincial Letters unfolds the beauties of this doctrine, and some of them are worth recurring to for the purpose of showing Mr. Hitt and his kind on what a firm foundation of ethics they are building. There is a family likeness discernible in those who "cheat with holiness and zeal," whether in religion or politics, and Pascal's exposure of insincerity and hypocrisy in one sphere applies finely to the other also.

After Pascal's Jesuit Father had explained many of the little tricks of the casuists in favor of the clergy, the suspicion arose that the rest of the world might not come off so well. Not at all, said the Father; we provide similar indulgences for all. Take servants, for example, and see what excellent maxims we have for them. They may steal from their masters if they find their wages too low, and if they do it solely and firmly for their own good, without malice. There is not the slightest occasion for them to shrink from the most questionable services, provided they are well paid for the same. For what say our Twenty-four Fathers? "To carry letters and presents; to open doors and windows; to aid their master to climb in at the window, and to hold the ladder while he climbs—all this is allowable and not immoral." But this, of course, as our good Father Bauny has pointed out, means that such actions are made innocent by resolutely fixing the intention, not at all upon the evil deeds in which servants make themselves accomplices, but solely upon the reward which they are to receive.

This "marvellous principle" of directing the intention is capable of the widest expansion and application. It covers the whole range of dubious actions from simony to stabbing a man in the back. By making sure that you have excellent intentions, you may do anything you please with a good conscience. Of course it is, abstractly, wrong to kill a man; but if you do it, not to injure him, but to maintain your own honor, that is quite another affair. So of duelling. That, of course, is forbidden by the Church; but our great Hurtado de Mendoza has shown how easy it is for a good Catholic to fight a duel. Is there any possible sin, he says, in going out to the fields to take a walk, while you are waiting for a man, and to defend yourself if he attacks you? That is a very different thing from accepting a challenge, since your intention is directed to other circumstances of the affair altogether. In fact, by being extremely careful about your intention, you may yourself challenge to a duel; you may kill a man from ambush, unless a very firm friendship (*arctior amicitia*) exists between you and him; you may kill a man for an insulting word or even gesture; may, according to our great and incomparable Molina, kill a man for six or seven ducats. These are but examples of the way in which the method of fixing the intention takes all the awkwardness out of the common principles of morality, and makes life tolerable and agreeable to perfect gentlemen.

All this makes clear the source of the Hitt doctrine of "intention" in international relations. It is simply carrying the Jesuit casuistry into public life. Congress passes resolutions which, if they mean anything, mean an affront to a friendly nation, with the threat of war in the background. But Father Hitt steps in with his mild protest that this is all a mistake; that our intention is fixed, not on insults or war, but on the most harmless and peaceable things in the world. Unless Spain is determined to fasten a quarrel upon us, she has no right to look at our words or our acts, which are public, but only at our intentions, which are hidden away in our own pure bosoms. What Mr. Hitt's intention really was, he did not say. We hazard a shrewd guess that it was the same that justified the valet in helping his infamous master—*i. e.*, a fixed contemplation, not of the wickedness in hand, but of his own personal gain. Congressmen use insulting words; they intend only personal popularity with the baser sort. They bluster about war; they mean only a renomination. They swell and explode with patriotic rage; their intention is but to be first in the war of words, and to distance dangerous competitors. This is really to out-Jesuit the Jesuits. *They* had the grace to guard their doctrine with the limitation: "Care must be taken lest the use of this maxim result in danger to the state." Father Hitt forgot that, but we do not greatly blame him in these days when the old phrase, "that the republic take no harm," sounds so silly and obsolete.

The question remains, What will foreigners think of this new doctrine of "intention" in international relations? That they will like it, or assent to it for an instant, is conceivable only on the ground that Johnson was right when he confided to Boswell his opinion: "Foreigners, so far as I can see, are fools." They surely must be if they think it possible to regulate their treatment of us, not by our public acts, our official language, our menacing attitude and gesture, but by our secret intentions. They will quote to our Jingo-Jesuit diplomats the obvious comment of Pascal, "L'intention de celui qui blesse ne soulage point celui qui est blessé."

THE EDUCATION QUESTION IN ENGLAND.

Although the bill introduced into the House of Commons by Sir John Gorst, the President of the committee of council for education, radically changes the organization of the elementary education system in England as it has existed since 1870, the various changes are compara-

tively easy to follow. While the principal object of the bill is to afford further financial help to the schools of the Church of England and the Roman Catholics, and to bolster up a system which had its beginnings long before Parliament turned its attention to education, several of the changes are undeniably in the interest of education, and have been shown to be necessary by twenty-five years' experience. The dual plan of board schools and schools ostensibly maintained by the churches is continued. There now seems no getting away from it. But, in strengthening the church schools, at least something is to be done for the poorer grade of board schools. These poorer schools under the boards are in rural communities. They have been established where the church schools have broken down; and scores of them, especially where the boards are small and in the hands of farmers and village merchants, are as understaffed and as inadequate as any of the church schools in similar localities, the management of which is entirely in the hands of the Church of England rector or vicar of the parish.

If the bill now before the House of Commons is passed, the county council will become the supreme local authority for elementary, secondary, and technical education, and the Education Department in London will be relieved of some of its duties with regard to the inspection of schools and the distribution of grants from the imperial Treasury. Each county council will elect, or elect and appoint, as it may determine, its statutory education committee, much as it now elects its police committee. It will be at the discretion of the council whether all the members of the committee are chosen from the council, or whether the council will go outside its own membership and appoint men or women eminent in the local education world. It will also be possible for counties to group themselves together, and elect joint committees to exercise powers and distribute grants under the various education acts.

The county councils will employ corps of school inspectors who will do most of the work now done by inspectors from the Education Department; and it will be from the shire house at the county town, instead of from London, that the schools, board and voluntary, will receive their annual grants from imperial funds. School boards will continue to raise their local funds as heretofore, and in the case of school-board districts in which the local tax plus the grant per scholar from the Treasury does not meet expenses, the difference will come, not, as now, from London, but through the county council. The grant to meet this deficiency is limited by the bill to four shillings per scholar. In the past this doling out of extra funds from the Treasury has been restricted to boards whose incomes from local taxes, when the maximum tax allowed by the law had been levied, was not sufficient, with the ordinary Government grant per scholar, to meet expenses. Under the Gorst bill, this extra poor-district grant will be paid to Church of England, Roman Catholic, and other voluntary schools.

The difficulty of granting additional public money to the church schools without throwing their control into the hands of popularly elected boards, has been adroitly got over by giving the education committee of the county councils the right to delegate some of their local authority to local managers. The London School Board has long delegated some of its authority in this way to managers of groups of schools, and the Salisbury Government has made the London plan general with the county councils in order to save the fullest measure of local control of the voluntary schools to the clergymen of the Church of England and the priests of the Roman Catholic Church. The London School Board appoints hundreds of these local managers of schools under its jurisdiction. They receive no pay; and, under close supervision from the School Board, these managers practically appoint and promote the teachers, and are responsible for many other details connected with the organization and working of the schools.

Nor is the four-shilling grant all that the church schools gain financially. As the law now stands, the annual grant per scholar from the Treasury to church schools is regulated in amount by the subscriptions raised by the school managers. This restriction has hampered clerical managers of schools to which private subscriptions were small, and, rather than give up the schools and resort to a school board, various devices and tricks in bookkeeping have been invented to get over the restriction. Every now and again some really disreputable dodge on the part of clergymen has been exposed. Now, however, there will be an end to all these schemes, as the annual grants per scholar, apart from the extra grant of four shillings a year, will be paid without any inquiries as to the amount of private subscriptions to the school. This is a great triumph for the clerical party, second only in importance to the ingenious arrangement under which, while drawing nearly all their funds from the Treasury, the clergymen are to give up little or none of their control of the schools.

Another remarkable concession has also been made to the Church of England party. This time it is in connection with the board schools. Under the act of 1870, no instruction can be given in a board school which involves the teaching of the formularies or catechisms of any particular church or denomination. The existence of this provision has long been a source of disquiet with the more aggressive school of English churchmen. It has been assailed several times in Parliament, more than once in the House of Lords at the instance of the Bishop of Salisbury, and with the sympathy and help of the present Premier. At last the churchmen have succeeded in their onslaught on the unsectarian character of the schools maintained wholly out of local and imperial taxes. If the Gorst bill passes, it will be possible for "a reasonable number of the parents" of the children to go before the managers of a board school, and to insist that the children shall be taught in religion according to the creed or denomination of the persons making the claim. Nominally it will be possible for Roman Catholic, Wesleyan, or Unitarian parents to make these demands. The Catholics, however, will not do so, for the priests do not allow their children to attend any but Catholic schools, and to teach Catholic children in this way in board schools would involve additions to the school furnishings which will never be allowed in English board schools. Nonconformists have never asked for the teaching of the tenets of their faith in the elementary schools, and are not likely to avail themselves of the clause. It is therefore solely in the interest of the sacerdotal wing of the Church of England, and, if it should become law as it now stands, clergymen will be able to go among their parishioners, and, in connection with almost any board school, get together a sufficiently large number of parents to demand Church of England teaching.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY'S MEETING.

ANDOVER HILL, April 11, 1896.

AT the recent Congress of Orientalists in London, Prof. Cowell of Cambridge, the President of the Aryan Section, opened its sessions with some graceful verses, first in Sanskrit, and then in English, as follows :

"Calm in calm woods the ancient Rishis sate,
Soothing their souls with friendship's converse high—
While we, my honoured friends, by evil fate,
Meet where the city's ceaseless din rolls by."

And he consoled us with the thought that "contrast brings new harmonies to light." Well, here we were as little disturbed by the din of the traffic that surges through Piccadilly as were the calm Hindu hermits, and we needed no such consolation. Andover is an ideal place of meeting for a learned society, and especially for our Oriental Society, whose earliest history is closely associated with "The Hill." For Andover may justly be called the cradle of Oriental learning in America. The names of Moses Stuart and Edward Robinson —famous Andover names, famed, withal, far beyond Andover—stand beside that of our founder, John Pickering, on the first list of our officers of considerably more than half a century ago. Indeed, the temper of cheerful reminiscence was quite pervading. It was to the house of Moses Stuart that its present occupant, Prof. Harris, welcomed us on Thursday; and it was the old home of Austin Phelps in which Prof. Moore received us on Friday. The charming inn in which—sociable and unscattered—we lodged, just opposite the Campus, was once the home of Harriet Beecher Stowe, and was fitted up for her occupancy with the first seven hundred dollars of the proceeds of 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' But let no one think from all this that the aforesaid

cradle has been consigned to the dusty attic of reminiscence. Whoever examined Prof. Moore's masterly piece of work, his Commentary on the Book of Judges, just issued, and heard the papers of his friend and assistant, Dr. Torrey, will doubtless admit that that piece of furniture is still rocking in a very lively manner, and that there is no present fear of the nursery's lapsing into unwholesome quiet.

President Gilman, who had given the Society much faithful service from the fifties to the seventies, is now our presiding officer; and it is pleasant to record the faithfulness with which —in spite of his duties on the Venezuelan Commission—he took the long journey from Baltimore in order to be present. Some societies suffer under the régime of the merely "ornamental" or "figure-head" type of president; but we are fortunate in having a man to preside who can efficiently help us to the smooth and ready dispatch of the business in hand. The attendance was good. The members number between three and four hundred, including many residing in distant parts of this country and many abroad. About one-tenth of these were present, besides many intelligently interested auditors from the Seminary and the town. The Johns Hopkins was represented by its President and by Haupt; Columbia by Gottheil and Jackson; Yale by Hopkins, the successor of Prof. Whitney; Harvard by Toy, Lyon, and Lanman; and so on.

This was our one hundred and seventh meeting. The sessions began on Thursday, and continued without drag, and yet without hurry, until Saturday noon. The purpose of this arrangement is to give opportunity for two informal evening sessions. This present arrangement of annual meetings extending over three days is a most palpable improvement over the old plan of two extremely brief semi-annual meetings, where the need of "hustling" and "catching trains" quite o'ercrowed the scholar's spirit. President Gilman set the business session for Friday morning. This began with the presentation of correspondence by the corresponding secretary, Prof. Lanman. Notable among these letters was one from a distant corner of Assam in India, from Sibsagar on the Brahmaputra. It was written by Mr. Peal of the Royal Geographical Society, who is at work on the languages of that region, and contained a request for a certain publication of the society upon those tongues by one of our earliest members, Rev. Nathan Brown, a missionary of the Baptist Union. "Its [the book's] value to us here," says Mr. Peal, "is much greater than you might suppose. Dr. Brown was a real *genius*." A recent letter, bearing the signature, still clear and firm, of Otto Boehtlingk of the Russian Imperial Academy, the Nestor of all Sanskritists and the oldest honorary member of our society (he was elected in 1844), combines with frequent brochures from his pen to attest the unexhausted vitality of this distinguished octogenarian. Prof. Buehler of Vienna sends a stately publication of the Austrian Academy dedicated to the memory of our Whitney, and tells of the progress of his Encyclopedia of Indic Philology, to be issued by Truebner of Strassburg, the publisher of Paul's Germanic, Groeber's Romance, and Geiger's Iranian Philology, and to be executed on the same plan with those works. It is of interest to us because two of our members, Bloomfield and Lanman, have a hand in it. Dr. Johnston of Ballykilbeg, County Down, formerly of the Bengal Civil Service, makes the welcome announcement that he has translated Deussen's 'System des Vedanta,' and that it is to run through the *Calcutta Review* and then appear in book form. Dr. Burgess of Edinburgh, formerly Director-General of the Archæological Survey of India, gives an encouraging account of the progress of his great work (already noticed in these columns), soon to be issued by Griggs of London. The first portfolio of 150 or more collotype plates of the most important archæological remains in India may soon be expected. They are made from the best of some three or four thousand negatives at Whitehall and the Calcutta Museum, and the negatives are selected by an unexcelled expert. Of interest to serious students of Buddhism is a letter from the well-known Subhuti, a Buddhist high-priest of Ceylon, stating his readiness to comply with a request for a transcript of certain Pali texts of the Sacred Canon. Finally, Lal Chandra Vidya Bhaskara of Jodhpur, Rajputana, sends us, in superb calligraphy, a most elaborate Life of Prof. Whitney, done into Sanskrit verses from the obituary notice of that scholar which appeared in the *Nation* of June 14, 1894.

The necrology of the year included some very notable names. Among them is that of Prof. Roth of Tuebingen, the life-long friend and fellow-laborer of Whitney in the field of Vedic research. Another is Rost, the Librarian of the India Office in London, whom scores of grateful scholars have risen up to call blessed for his learning and for the kindness with which he put that learning at their disposal. Of our illustrious countryman, Dr. Van Dyck, the great Arabist, we need not speak, unless for the pride and joy that we have in calling his noble life and life-work to remembrance. Two men long distinguished in other walks of life, the late Hon. Charles Theodore Russell of Cambridge and the Rev. Talbot W. Chambers of New York, were for very many years faithful and interested members of the Society.

The treasurer, Mr. Warren of Cambridge, showed a satisfactory balance-sheet; and the Committee of Publication announced that a new half-volume had been issued a few days before. New blood was infused into the society by the election of a goodly number of new members. The old administrative officers were reëlected, with one exception: the secretary, Prof. Lanman, after nearly twenty years of such labor, desired to be relieved, and in his stead was elected Prof. Hopkins. On the other hand, the healthy growth of the Society has greatly increased the amount of editorial labor to be done, and this labor had come, by prescription, to attach to the post of secretary. To effect a much-needed redistribution of burdens, accordingly, the directors appointed Professors Lanman and Moore to serve as responsible editors of the *Journal*.

Of the miscellaneous business only two items need be mentioned. One was an invitation from the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis to coöperate with them in the effort to establish a School of Oriental Study and Research in Bible Lands, somewhat after the manner of the American Schools at Athens and Rome. Prof. Thayer of Harvard submitted the draft of a plan. The other was a scheme for promoting the Historical Study of Religions, and emanated from Prof. Jastrow of Philadelphia.

The papers presented were about thirty in number. They were, of course, largely technical. One of the most striking things about them was the largeness of the number that attempted a *rapprochement* of wholly diverse phases of ancient civilization. Thus, Dr. Casanowicz discussed the Alexander legends in Talmud and Midrash with reference to Greek and Assyrian parallels. Prof. Macdonald's paper on the place of al-Ghazali in the theology of Islam adverted to the influence exerted by Buddhism upon one of the forms of Sufiism. Prof. Jackson's paper upon Persian names in the Book of Esther, as well as that of his colleague, Prof. Gottheil, upon references to Zoroaster in the Syriac literature, brought out still other interlacings of Aryan and Semitic life. And again, Mr. Edmunds's essay on the compilation of the Pali Canon was the fruit of studies which were suggested to him by his study of the history of the New Testament Canon under Prof. Rendel Harris. Dr. Scott's paper upon Malayan words in English was a brief account of a most elaborate investigation. In the course of it he used the expression, "If there *is* any longer any such work as an English Dictionary." *If*, indeed! Our vocabulary is already fairly flooded with words of the cosmopolitan jargon. His essay showed, perhaps more clearly than any of those just mentioned, how infinite is the interplay between races and nations, how impossible to study any of them in isolation. And yet how short is the time since scholars began to realize that they could not understand the origin of Greek civilization from the Grecian monuments of that civilization alone!

Apropos of a technical discussion of a passage in Ezra, Prof. Haupt expressed a view long held by him that Assyrian is only an older local variety of Aramaic. In his paper on Genesis ii. 6, "There went up a mist (*edh*) from the earth," etc., he assumed on the part of the Palestinian narrator a misunderstanding of the old Babylonian material worked over by him, in which material the loan-word *edh* had reference to the system of irrigation practised in Babylonia. Prof. Haupt's pupil, Dr. Johnston, sent a valuable paper on the epistolary literature of the Assyro-Babylonians. These letters are original, contemporaneous, and authentic documents for the history of their times. Noteworthy among them are the letters between Bel-ibni, the general of Ashurbanipal, and his royal master. They are pervaded by cordial good feeling and soldier-like frankness, and are rich in historical allusions and details. How wonderful that we should now possess the letters—still clear in tone and fresh in coloring—to and from a king who only a little while ago was to us the half-mythical Sardanapalus!

Prof. Bloomfield sent an advance report of the results of his 'Atharva-Veda' studies now publishing in Max Mueller's "Sacred Books of the East." And a printed specimen of the late Prof. Whitney's translation of the same Veda was laid before the Society by Prof. Lanman, who is now bringing out that work in his "Harvard Oriental Series." The latter's studies of the relative age of different parts of the 'Rig-Veda' have been continued by Prof. Arnold of the University College of North Wales, Bangor, who sent us an elaborate treatise on that subject. And a critical investigation of the eighth book of the 'Rig-Veda,' conducted with a similar purpose, was presented by Prof. Hopkins. It is interesting to see at such a meeting as this how like in method is the criticism of the Vedas to that of the Bible, differ as they may in details. For this reason, if for no other, it would be a pity to divide the Society into two sections, a Semitic and an Aryan. The meeting was a thoroughly harmonious one—no *odium philologicum*. It was altogether happy and profitable, and full of promise for the future of the Society. The next meeting is appointed to be held at Baltimore, in Easter week, April 22–24, 1897.

PERSIGNY'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 26, 1896.

THE increase of interest which is felt just now in all that relates to the Napoleonic period does not extend as yet to the genesis and the development of the Second Empire. The events of that period are so near to us that we seem to have little to learn about it; the consequences of the Second Empire are still too acutely felt. To be sure, the First Empire ended at Waterloo, as the Second Empire ended at Sedan, but it is not natural for the present generation to view with the same feelings two catastrophes separated by such a long interval.

It was perhaps imprudent to draw public attention to one of the men who were the most ardent supporters of Napoleon, and who powerfully contributed to the establishment of the Second Empire—I mean M. de Persigny; but all memoirs seem to be unwilling now to remain in the shade. There is a great demand for them, and the economists are wont to say that where there is a demand, there is a supply. This 'Mémoires du Duc de Persigny' (Paris: Plon; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), edited by M. H. de Laire, Comte d'Espagny, who was the private secretary of the Duke, are not memoirs in the usual sense of the word; they are rather a succession of political essays and notes. The notes were written at different times. Persigny was afraid that, after his death, the Government would seize them, in virtue of the law that allows a search for and seizure of the papers of men who have occupied high functions in the state. He therefore made three copies of his Memoirs, A, B, and C. M. d'Espagny gives us one of these. He thinks himself entitled to do so inasmuch as twenty-four years have elapsed since the death of M. de Persigny (January 12, 1872), and as the persons mentioned in the memoirs are all dead, with the exception of the Empress Eugénie.

The name of the Duc de Persigny was Fialin; his family belonged to the province of Forez, and he always made great efforts to prove that it was of noble origin. While he was ambassador in London I know that he induced his colleague, the Italian Minister, to have researches made in the archives of Turin, as he had a notion that his family had connections with some noble families of the north of Italy. Nothing was ever discovered about the Fialins at Turin, but Persigny was always persuaded that his family had emigrated from Dauphiné to the Lyonnais. Persigny was a small fief in the Forez, which had belonged to one of his ancestors. Fialin entered as a private a regiment of hussars. Little is known about his life after he left the regiment; he tried without success to enter the administration of the crown forests; he took some part in the intrigues of the Duchesse de Berry when she prepared an expedition in Vendée. We see him, however, abandon the Legitimist for the Napoleonic cause, in a review which he founded under the title of *Revue de l'Occident Français*. The Duke of Reichstadt was dead; Louis Napoleon was known only by the part which he had taken in a rising in Romagna; King Joseph was living in quiet retirement in London. It seemed almost madness to speak of a restoration of the Napoleons. In his review Persigny makes a real manifesto: he prophesies a complete renovation of Europe, he announces the arrival of a new Messiah.

"In the imperial idea resides the true law of the modern world. . . . The time has come for announcing in Europe the imperial gospel which as yet has had no apostles. The time has come to seize the old flag of the Emperor—not only the flag of Marengo and Austerlitz, the flag also of Burgos and of Moscow. The Emperor! the whole Emperor!"

What Persigny admires is not only the military genius of the Emperor, but his political genius, the ideas and institutions which paved the way for the new régime in France; he finds a Napoleon better than parliamentarism and all possible constitutional formulas. To do him justice, he always remained what he was in this Review, of which only one number was issued, and which provoked no echo. King Joseph, however, wished to see the author, and received him at Denham Place, near London.

Persigny entered into relations with Prince Louis Napoleon, the nephew and heir of Napoleon, and met in him a response to his own ideas. With him he arranged at Arenenberg the Strasbourg expedition, after having travelled for several months in the department of the East of France, and chiefly in Alsace and Lorraine. The expedition failed almost ignominiously. Napoleon was arrested in the barracks of a regiment of artillery; Persigny fled to the Grand Duchy of Baden, concealed himself in the Black Forest, and afterwards went to Arenenberg and to England, by way of Germany. Persigny was again with the Prince when he made his second attempt at Boulogne. This time he was arrested and tried before the House of Peers. He was condemned to twenty years' imprisonment and sent to the citadel of Doullens. After the Revolution of 1848, Persigny worked openly for Prince Napoleon. He was imprisoned again for some time by order of the Provisory Government, and was at the Conciergerie during the bloody insurrection of June. The reaction which followed ended in the nomination of Prince Louis Napoleon as President. Persigny was not among his first Ministers, who were to be chosen from the Chamber, but he was one of his secret and intimate advisers. In 1849 he was elected a Deputy in two departments, the Loire and the Nord; from that moment his public career belongs to history. He advised the President, before the 2d of December, to choose M. de Morny as Home Minister, and contented himself with a subordinate task in the execution of the Coup d'État; but there is no doubt that he was one of its chief inspirers.

His Memoirs begin with two chapters, one on the establishment of Louis Napoleon's Presidency, the other on the committee which took its name from the Rue de Poitiers, where it had its meeting, and which was composed of the most important members of Parliament, all more or less hostile to Prince Napoleon, whom they justly suspected of meditating a coup d'état and the reëstablishment of the Empire. The constituent work of the Parliamentarians had come to an end; they had committed the mistake of submitting the choice of President to universal suffrage. Universal suffrage fixed itself not on Gen. Cavaignac, though he had saved Paris in the June insurrection, but on Prince Napoleon, notwithstanding his two attempts at Strasbourg and Boulogne. The name of Napoleon had still a place in the people's imagination, and nations as well as individuals are often led by the forces of imagination. The leaders of the Parliamentarians, Thiers, Barrot, Molé, etc., were unpopular; the country attributed the Revolution of 1848, which had taken it by surprise, to their miserable rivalries. There can be no doubt that the country was tired of the permanent agitation which had followed the establishment of the Republic. The coalition of Parliamentarians—the Duke de Broglie, Count Molé, Thiers, Berryer, Montalembert, Rémusat, etc.—which met at the Rue de Poitiers, really desired the reëstablishment of a monarchy; on the other side was Prince Napoleon, silent, enigmatical, but the nominee of the people, who thought that his mission was to renew an imperialist era. Persigny was for a time a sort of deputy of the Prince in the Parliamentary committee. He tells us how he tried to convince his colleagues of the impossibility of establishing a monarchy; he spoke boldly for his own solution, the Empire; of course he did not convert anybody. The Gordian knot was to be severed by the sword.

Persigny was several times minister and ambassador; he was of an uneasy nature, and never remained long in the same place. In 1850, he knew Bismarck at Berlin; Bismarck was at that time one of the influential members of the feudal party, which hated the Empire, Napoleon, and France. Among the members of this party, Bismarck maintained an exceptional attitude towards the members of the French Embassy; he was not afraid to compromise himself by showing himself polite and amiable to them, and talked freely with them on all subjects. Persigny says that Bismarck came one day to see him, and, taking on a serious and almost solemn tone, asked his advice on the affairs of Prussia: the Liberal party was entirely the master in the lower chamber; this party threatened to disorganize everything, even the army. Persigny answered without hesitation.

"If you were used, as they are in England, to struggles for liberty—if all classes in Prussia were accustomed to make mutual concessions to each other—I should advise your King to bow to public opinion and to enter without fear on the path of a constitutional régime. But in the present state of things it would be madness. . . . If Louis Philippe had not allowed a parliamentary quarrel to explode in public, if he had placed himself at the head of his troops to keep order in the streets, the Revolution of 1848 would not have taken place, and his dynasty would still reign. It is true that Charles X. undertook to resist the Revolution and was beaten; but his example is also a lesson, for when he signed his Ordinances he did not foresee that they might provoke an insurrection, and nothing was ready to suppress it. The garrison of Paris, much weakened by the departure of a great part of the Royal Guard for the camp at Lunéville, had no food, no munitions of any sort, and, surprised by an unforeseen struggle, it was vanquished in a moment.

"Well! apply the lessons of history to the circumstances in which you are placed. You have this piece of luck, that the Liberal party invites a struggle on the question of the army, and consequently, in defending the army, you have it with you. You have also this advantage, that the vote of the budget is not necessary for carrying on the government, as, in case of a conflict, the budget of the preceding year can legally suffice. . . . Consider yourself in a civil war; resist the Chamber, adjourn it once, twice, three times; but have your army always ready for a conflict."

A few days afterwards Bismarck accepted the presidency of the Council in Berlin, and began the contest with the Parliament. Persigny never saw him again till 1867, when he met him at the Tuileries at a dinner which Napoleon gave to the King of Prussia during the Universal Exposition. After dinner Bismarck came to him: "'Well,' said he, 'have I not well followed your instruction?' 'Yes,' said I, 'but I must admit that the pupil has singularly surpassed the master.'" Two days afterwards Bismarck paid him a visit, and they had a long conversation on the subject of Luxemburg, and the difficulties which arose from the relations between the Duchy of Luxemburg

and Germany. They spoke also of Sadowa and of possible changes in Germany, of the Rhine provinces. Persigny did not think it possible that France would long establish her authority over the German-speaking provinces of the Rhine, but he objected to Prussia taking these provinces for herself; he wished her to aggrandize herself in the north of Germany, on condition that she would indemnify on the left bank of the Rhine the princes dispossessed on the right bank; he wished to avoid any direct contact between France and Prussia, and to create all along the Rhine a succession of neutralized buffer states. Bismarck took great interest in the development of these plans; he would have liked to know what the Emperor Napoleon thought of them. Persigny was candid enough to tell him that he really did not know, and to add that his personal influence in the Council was not very great in such matters. We see in the Memoirs that the influence which was most hostile to him was that of the Empress; as for the Emperor, he always treated Persigny with much kindness, but he had become more and more silent, he saw Persigny less and less, and Persigny does not disguise the fact that, towards the end of the Empire, his influence had become very small.

On the whole, these Memoirs, though there is no thread to tie together their disconnected parts, though they are very artless and incomplete, will afford a valuable document to the historian of the Second Empire.

Correspondence.

THE DEBASING OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: President Schurman's article on "Teaching—a Trade or a Profession?" in the April *Forum*, contains in categorical form certain statements which, to say the least, are plainly debatable, and therefore should not be allowed to pass uncontested.

Like other writers before him, President Schurman holds that the simultaneous pursuit of academical and professional instruction in normal schools is "pernicious," on the ground that studies otherwise yielding a liberal education lose their educational or culture value when pursued with a view to technical, practical ends. But can it for a moment be maintained that the case of a student pursuing certain lines of study with the ultimate view of teaching the same is at all parallel to that of a boy learning arithmetic, let us say, for use in the store, or of a university student working in order to pass his examination? In the one case purely practical or outward results are aimed at; the theoretical, the ideal side of the work is neglected as far as it is possible to do so. In the other case the subject is studied not merely with a view to the acquisition of facts, but also with regard to its adaptability to psychological laws and with a view to its moral and ethical aspects; the earnest student observing the attitude of his own mind toward the subject he is pursuing in order to know the better how to reach the avenues of another mind in imparting knowledge. The latter mode of learning, therefore, is exactly that which may be expected to yield the greatest intellectual enjoyment and benefit; for the student's interest in the subject is genuine and intrinsic—the very opposite of that of a student working for examination.

The plan of making normal schools *purely* professional has been often urged; it has been tried in a few cases and soon abandoned. The plan is not practicable, and, if it were, its disadvantages would condemn it. It must be admitted that the discontinuance for two years of all those branches of study in which the students might have become interested in the course of their academical training, previous to entering upon such a professional course, would be a lamentable mistake. Much to my regret, I cannot dwell upon this point, as I should have to claim too much of your valuable space.

President Schurman would limit the function of normal schools to the preparation of elementary teachers exclusively. Of several serious objections to such a course, I will mention but one. The inspiration and advantages of culture which members of the lower and shorter courses in normal schools receive through their contact with more advanced and ambitious students is of inestimable value to them and, indirectly, to their future pupils. It would not be possible to attract any considerable number of *able* and *ambitious* young persons to a school of such limited range as President Schurman contemplates; the elementary schools would therefore suffer through the inferiority of those willing to take charge of them, while now many of the brightest and most advanced students, both graduate and undergraduate, going out from normal schools of a higher order, take positions in the lower grades, either from preference or because they fail to secure positions in the higher grades. The present system, therefore, leads to an improvement of the teaching force in the lower grades and to a higher estimation of that work in the public mind—a matter of the utmost importance since there may ultimately result from it a more general recognition of the *need of highly cultivated teachers for young children.*

To reduce all normal schools—*i. e.*, that whole class of institutions exclusively devoted to the training of teachers—to one level, and that a low one, would hardly be conducive to raising the teacher's *profession.* If it were possible in this country to carry such a plan into effect—which, I firmly believe, it is not—it would lead here to a state of things similar to that found in Germany. The German seminaries turn out teachers admirably trained, professionally, for their special work in the common schools; but they are, *as a class*, lacking in general culture. Why advocate a policy which would permanently reduce the vast majority of American teachers in the future to the same condition? A. Lodeman.

Michigan State Normal School,
Ypsilanti, April 17, 1896.

OF BOOK-WORMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The account in the New York *Evening Post* of recent date of the finding of book-worms in the library of Cornell University has caused more or less comment which has not always been trustworthy. For the purpose of correcting the many misstatements and recording the facts in the case, I am moved to make the following statement:

On the 7th day of May, 1893, while working in the catalogue department of the University library, there came to hand a copy of Dante's 'Divine Comedy' printed at Venice in the year 1536. It had been received through the mails a short time before direct from Italy, and bore on the title-page a stamped device consisting of a crown and, underneath, the words ARCELLI M.-CANINO. The old leather cover was perforated with many holes about the size of a pin head, which is not an uncommon sight to those accustomed to handle old books. Many volumes come to hand during a year bearing such scars, but almost never is the insect found which does the boring. Examining the leaves of the volume, it was found that the worms had not done much damage. The title-page was pierced in eight places, but the holes extended through only a few leaves. Twenty-two holes were found through the back leaves, and they went somewhat deeper than those in the front of the book. Close down in the hinge of the book cover were found several little fat grubs, resembling those sometimes found in a hazel nut. These were taken to the entomological laboratory, where they were found to be alive and sufficiently interesting to be worth studying. From these larvæ were developed small brown beetles, and further investigation proved them to belong to the genus known in this country as *Sitodrepa panicea*, and in Europe as *Anobium paniceum.* This species belongs to the family *Ptinidæ*, or Death-watch, and the order *Coleoptera.* It was first described by Frisch in 1721. There are two other species of this genus, *Anobium pertinax* and *Anobium eruditum*, and in the larva state all three are so much alike as to be scarcely distinguishable one from another.

The often-quoted account of the finding by M. Peignot of twenty-seven folios perforated by one insect is mentioned by Blades as an instance of the work of this insect, but it is not quite clear whether the boring was done by *Anobium pertinax* or *Sitodrepa panicea.* The *Library Journal* (vol. x., p. 131) mentions the finding of "real book-worms" by Richard Savage, librarian of Stratford-on-Avon, in April, 1885. These were the *Sitodrepa panicea.* F. J. Havergal, librarian of Hereford Cathedral, reported the finding of at least a dozen "genuine book-worms" during his eighteen years' experience, from 1853–1871. In the year 1858, William Blades found in the Bodleian Library a book-worm which he showed to the librarian, who at once killed it with his thumb-nail. As none of the insects in the above cases were scientifically studied, it is impossible to say to what species they belonged, but from the general description given they undoubtedly belonged to the genus *Anobium.*

In this country one or two instances of the finding of book-worms have been recorded. In 1888 H. S. Kephart, at that time cataloguer in the Yale University Library, found some worms. After keeping them for about six months, he sent all that were left to Prof. Comstock at Cornell. Only one was found to be alive when they reached here, and so nothing could be done towards determining to what species they belonged. Recently, Mr. B. C. Steiner reported the finding of a book-worm about two years ago in the Enoch Pratt Free Library of Baltimore, but again not enough came to hand to enable any one to determine where in the book-worm family it belonged.

Fully fifteen different kinds of insects which infest books are mentioned by entomologists and other writers on the subject. The larger part of these, however, do not eat the book. Some eat the paste used in binding the books; others, like the *Hypothenemus eruditus*, fasten themselves upon a book, "and, spinning a robe, which it covers with its own excrement, do the book little or no harm." So far as I have been able to learn, the insects which actually bore the books through, and therefore do the greatest injury, belong to the *Sitodrepa*

panicea or some species of the genus known in Europe as *Anobium*. WILLARD AUSTIN.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY LIBRARY, April 6, 1896.

"HIRED MAN."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Originating from the substantive *hýr* there is, in Anglo-Saxon, the verb *hýrian*, after which came *huren*, a forerunner of our *hire;* and the participle *hired* is known to have been long current. But another *hired* is the Anglo-Saxon for "family," "household," and likewise for "retinue" and "court." To modernize the ancient spellings, Old English had *hired-swain*, "domestic," *hired-knave*, "attendant," *hired-knight*, "courtier," *hired-play*, "court-play," etc. And it had, moreover, in common use, *hired-man*, "retainer,"—that is, to say, "man dependent on the family," with its feminine, *hired-woman*. So long, therefore, as these expressions continued in vogue, the risk of ambiguity stood in the way of the employment of *hired man*, "man serving for hire," and of the allied *hired woman*.

Among the various kinds of fairs held in England there is one, now fast falling into desuetude, styled, as by other names (for instance, *statute-fair*, *Michaelmas-fair*, *sessions*, and *hiring*) *hiring-fair*. To such a fair, resort persons of both sexes, young and adult, who wish to engage themselves as servants, with others who wish to engage servants; and a bargain for service, usually for the period of a twelvemonth, if concluded, is clenched by the tender and acceptance of a shilling, or a half-crown, as earnest. Servants secured under these circumstances were formerly spoken of, at all events here in Suffolk, as *hired men*, *hired women*, etc.; and the terms were applied to no others. With the disappearance of hiring-fairs hereabouts, some seventy years ago, those terms, also, except historically, disappeared, or nearly so; since they are now heard used, very singularly, solely of domestics who comport themselves with unbecoming importance. "She is only *a hired girl*" expresses scornful censure, whereas "she is only *a servant*" expresses no censure at all.

In a former letter I have shown that the expression *hired men* was employed in America in 1751; and I hardly doubt that your researchful correspondent Mr. Albert Matthews can bring forward proof that *hired women*, *hired boys*, etc., also were somewhat as rife in the language of our colonial forefathers as they are in the language of their descendants. How such locutions found their way into our phraseology is a question which awaits solution.

By "servant" the authorized version of the New Testament represents, for the most part, δοῦλος, "slave," to be taken literally—as it is where, in Rev., xviii., 13, it Englishes σῶμα—or else figuratively. But παῖς, διάκονος, οἰκέτης, and ὑπηρέτης, as well, are there represented by "servant." In the four places where it is qualified by "hired," a free servant, in discrimination from a bond, is clearly intended, the originals being μισθωτὸς and μίσθιος, the former of which is, in two cases, translated by "hireling." Consulting brevity, I do not refer to the Old Testament.

Hired man I have not traced beyond Wyclif, who, in Jer., xlvi., 21, and again in St. Luke, xv., 17, 19, renders *mercenarii*—for he followed the Vulgate—by "hirid men," "hyrid men." The same Latin word, in the singular, he renders, in St. John, x., 12, 13, by "marchaunt"—glossed by "hyred hyne"—strangely giving it, on etymological grounds readily conjectured, a sense quite at variance with that of "marchantis," by which, in Rev., xviii., 3, etc., he naturally renders *mercatores* and *negotiatores*. In King James's version of the Bible, *hired men* occurs in Jer., xlvi., 21, and nowhere else. Wyclif has "his *hirid* place" in Acts, xxviii., 30.

On the three occasions where Wyclif qualifies "men" by "hirid," "hyrid," he would, grammatically, have put the plural forms, *hiride*, *hyride*, as every tiro in Old English is aware. Can he, then, have designed, by his spelling, a reminder of *hired-men*, "retainers," which, in all probability, still had some currency in his time? That he was capable of eccentricity is plain from his perversion of "marchaunt," noted above. And may not the Wyclif MSS. exhibit *hirid men, hyrid-men?*

Very significantly, unparalleled as are, alike for quantity and for variety, the materials they possess in illustration of our language, both Dr. Murray, editor-in-chief of the Oxford English Dictionary, and Professor Wright, editor of the Dialect Dictionary now in preparation, are unable to lend me any assistance, as regards quotations, in connexion with the terms I am considering.

Was the expression *hired man* brought over from East Anglia, or elsewhere, by Englishmen who colonized America in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries? Whether it was, or was not, we who have sprung from them, in making it, uncontrasted with *slave* or with *unpaid helper*, synonymous, pleonastically, with *servant-man* or *man-servant*, have distinctly deflected its sense from any which, so far as appears, has, in any age, belonged to it in the old country. The fact is certainly noteworthy.

Whether Dr. Holmes's restriction, in *Elsie Venner*, of the term *hired men* to servants of American birth has obtained only of late years, or otherwise than locally, could be ascertained without difficulty. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 29, 1896.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & CO. have in press 'Historical Briefs,' by James Schouler, the historian of the United States. Polk's Diary, of which he has already given a foretaste that whets the appetite, with essays on Lafayette in America, Our Diplomacy during the Rebellion, and Historical Industry, Style, Grouping, Researches, Testimony, etc., will figure in the contents.

D. Appleton & Co.'s spring announcements include 'With the Fathers,' studies in American history by Prof. John B. McMaster; 'Wages and Capital,' by Prof. F. W. Taussig; 'Genius and Degeneration,' by Dr. William Hirsch; 'The Intellectual and Moral Development of the Child,' by Gabriel Compayré; 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by W. Douglas Morrison; 'A B C of Sense-Perception,' by William J. Eckoff; 'Familiar Trees,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Ice Work, Present and Past,' by T. G. Bonney; 'The Reds of the Midi,' translated from the French of Félix Gras by Mrs. Catharine A. Janvier; 'The Seats of the Mighty,' a romance of Old Quebec, by Gilbert Parker; and 'His Honor, and a Lady,' by Mrs. Everard Cotes.

A complete edition of the works of Robert Browning, in two volumes, with fresh historical and biographical notes; an annotated edition, under Canon Ainger's care, of Hood's Poems; a translation (in connection with J. M. Dent & Co.) of the works of Alphonse Daudet, illustrated, in monthly volumes beginning with 'Tartarin of Tarascon'; and Comenius's 'Great Didactic,' are to be undertaken by Macmillan & Co. Mr. John La Farge will be the subject of the next *Portfolio* monograph, from the pen of Miss Cecilia Waern.

A Scotch novel, 'Robert Urquhart,' by Gabriel Setoun, will be published directly by Frederick Warne & Co.

Lee & Shepard, Boston, will bring out 'What They Say in New England: A Book of Signs, Sayings, and Superstitions,' by Clifton Johnson; 'Studies in the Thought-World of Practical Mind Art,' by Henry Wood; 'The Mystery of Handwriting,' by J. Harrington Keene ("Grapho"); 'Patmos, or the Unveiling,' by the Rev. Charles Beecher; 'Public Speaking and Reading,' by E. N. Kirby; 'Boston Charades,' by Herbert Ingalls; 'Gymnastics,' by W. A. Stecher; 'Maria Mitchell: Life and Correspondence,' by her sister, Phœbe M. Kendall; and 'The History of the Hutchinson Family,' by John Wallace Hutchinson, with an introduction by the late Frederick Douglass.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready 'Tom Grogan,' by F. Hopkinson Smith, with illustrations by C. S. Reinhart.

D. C. Heath & Co. will soon issue 'The School Manual of Classical Music,' compiled by H. W. Hart, with biographical sketches.

Lemcke & Buechner have in preparation an exhaustive Hebrew and Chaldee Concordance of the Books of the Old Testament ('Veteris Testamenti Concordantiæ Hebraicæ atque Chaldaicæ'), by Salomon Mandelkern; an English edition of Hugo Winckler's 'Tel-Amarna Letters,' with a glossary; a critical edition of the Septuagint; 'Der Babylonische Talmud,' complete text with variant readings, translation and notes; and (in connection with the Bibliographisches Institut of Leipzig) a 'Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur,' from the earliest times to the present day, by Prof. Dr. Richard Wülker, illustrated with 150 cuts, 25 colored tables, 11 facsimile inserts, etc., to be published in fourteen instalments. A welcome resort to wood-engraving is noticed in the excellent cuts of the prospectus and of Part i.

The Muses' Library (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners) now includes a complete two-volume edition of the poems of Keats, prepared by Mr. G. Thorn Drury. The "feature" of the edition is the "Critical Introduction" by Mr. Robert Bridges. This is the most original and suggestive essay on Keats that has been written for a long time, and will repay careful reading and even some study. It is admirably frank, not hesitating to speak out in blame as well as in praise, and it shows abundant power of discrimination. The sections on allegory are perhaps too fine-spun, however, and the discussion of Keats's philosophy of beauty would in all probability astonish the poet himself. The style of the essay is surprisingly shapeless.

Mr. H. Buxton Forman's new edition of 'The Letters of Keats' (London: Reeves & Turner; New York: Scribners) is, on some accounts, the best that has yet appeared. It is absolutely complete, so far as materials are known to exist, and therefore includes all the correspondence that has come to light since Mr. Colvin's edition was published in 1891. The letters to Fanny Brawne are not put by themselves, but are inserted, so far as possible, in their appropriate places, chronologically. The advantages of this arrangement are obvious, and not the least of them is that the reader is not forced to read these letters (which

ought to have been burned) *seriatim*. For the carefulness of the editing, Mr. Forman's name is a sufficient warrant. The type is notably clear and of good size, and the value and interest of the volume are enhanced by a portrait and by "twenty-four contemporary views of places visited by Keats."

Turgeneff's 'Smoke' has been added to the series of the Russian master translated by Mrs. Garnett (Macmillan). Comparison with the version for some time familiar to our public with Holt's imprint shows no great difference in substance; in evenness and fineness of quality one may, perhaps, prefer the latter.

That Cuba has a strong case against Spain, on the charge of misgovernment, cannot easily be denied, whatever one may say of causes, responsibility, or remedies. Much of the evidence on which the Autonomists rest their case may be found in Raimundo Cabrera's 'Cuba and the Cubans' (Philadelphia: Levytype Co.), albeit set forth with the characteristic vice of Spanish writing—a fatal turn for rhetoric; *lirismo* is the Spanish word for it. This is a useful and timely book, though stiffly translated and carelessly printed. A more telling work in the same line is Rafael M. Merchan's 'Cuba: Justificación de su Guerra de Independencia' (Bogota: *La Luz*). We know no other volume which puts the matter so temperately and, therefore, so powerfully.

The contents of the third and fourth numbers of Karl Strecker's 'Das Bismarck-Museum' (Berlin: Pauli) do not differ in kind from those of the preceding ones. There are nineteen plates (Nos. 23–42), consisting chiefly of diplomas of honorary citizenship of various German towns, addresses presented by clubs and other societies, and similar testimonials of esteem. The most original design is perhaps the "humoristic fan," representing a "European concert" of the great Powers, at which Bismarck directs the orchestra of statesmen, and wields the baton with remarkable *verve* and vigor before an audience composed of the sovereigns of Europe. It was the gift of Herr Zographo of Baden-Baden.

André Theuriet's 'Années de Printemps' forms the ninth volume of the daintily printed "Collection Ollendorff illustrée" (Paris: Ollendorff). It is a partial biography, covering the early years of the poet, novelist, and dramatist—few writers nowadays confining themselves to one branch of literature—and in many of its pages has the captivating charm of Theuriet's best work. But it carries us on merely to the time when 'In Memoriam' was accepted by the *Revue des Deux Mondes*—that is, when the author's literary career began.

'Contes d' Hiver,' by Alphonse Daudet, forms one of the numbers of the beautifully printed and illustrated "Nouvelle Collection Guillaume" (Paris: Guillaume).

'Il Duomo di Modena: Notizie Storiche ed Artistiche,' by Cav. Antonio Dondi (Modena), contains a collection of documents, alphabetically arranged, which, though in the first place dealing with the cathedral of Modena (one of the most venerable and fascinating in Italy, by the way), will be found invaluable by all students of mediæval and Renaissance art in Italy.

'Gli Affreschi della Libreria del Duomo de Siena' (Siena) is a neat pamphlet containing a reprint of old descriptions and heliotype reproductions of the famous frescoes by Pinturicchio, wherein are recounted the deeds of that captivating adventurer, diplomat, and prelate, Pope Pius II.

Another pamphlet deserving attention is an admirable *catalogue raisonné* of the various works by Ambrogio Borgognone—after Foppa, the greatest and in every way the most delightful of Milanese painters. We owe this compilation to Signor Luca Beltrami (Milan: Hoepli), and it is the first of a series that will include all the Lombard masters.

The last number for 1896 of the *Archivio Storico dell'Arte* contains its usual quantity of valuable contributions. Signor Frizzoni writes about the recently dispersed Scarpa Collection, a pilgrimage to which, at the charming Venetian village of Motta on the green Livenza, used to be one of the pleasantest tasks that fell to the students' lot. Of the two most famous pictures of this collection, Mantegna's "St. Sebastian" remains, it appears, with Baron Franchetti in Venice, while the portrait of Raphael by Sebastiano del Piombo has gone to join the many masterpieces at Buda-Pesth. Signor Anselmi gives an account of the various glazed terracottas by the Della Robbia in the province of Pesaro-Urbino. Signor Carotti calls attention to the gorgeous polyptych which Cardinal della Rovere, afterwards Pope Julius II., ordered of the great Lombard painter Vincenzo Foppa, for his own native town of Savona, where, as a child, he roamed the streets little better than a beggar. All these papers are copiously illustrated. Finally, Signor Fabriczy wins our gratitude by extracting for us the few pearls—and even these are not of great price!—from the heap piled up by German criticism during 1894.

Pan goes a great way to justify its hitherto rather futile existence by an article in its March number from the pen of Dr. Bode, in which we are made acquainted for the first time with a young decorative artist of the highest genius, Hermann Obrist. Obrist's talent has thus far most clearly revealed itself in his embroideries. Even the reproductions, excellent in their way, but yet inadequate, surprise us with the wonderful possibilities they open out for this exquisite but usually petty art. Dr. Bode ends his paper with a eulogy on our own industrial art, and on homes such as Mr. Tiffany's and Mr. Havemeyer's, more than flattering to our national vanity; but in all that differentiates decoration from furnishing, a great from a minor art, we have as yet produced little of such quality as is manifested in Hermann Obrist's best embroideries.

We have received the large and elaborately illustrated catalogue of the Schoenlank Collection, which is to be sold at Cologne during the present month, and we confess that it is not inspiring. The bulk of the collection is the work of third and fifth-rate Dutch and Flemish painters, and of the seventy-odd illustrations hardly half-a-dozen give the idea of an original interesting in any other than an archæological way. Of most of the pictures one is tempted to say that it is of no importance whether they are or are not genuine, while of the authenticity of the few that are attributed to really great names one has grave doubts. Of course one cannot definitely judge them without careful study of the originals, but we risk little in saying that few of these pictures would have created a reputation for the painters to whom they are assigned, while the so-called Titian not only is a very bad picture, but is bad in a way and to an extent that render its attribution fantastic.

Members of the psychological departments in some of our universities, and others, engaged upon the subject of "child-study," will find matter of interest in an article in the *Paedagogium* for January (Leipzig), by Dr. Alfred Spitzner, reporting on behalf of the executive committee of a "congress for hygiene and demography." Under the title "Geistige Überanstrengung in den Schulen: Nervosität," the writer treats of mental and physical defects of pupils in the public schools, their relation, causes, etc. The question to what extent the school can be held responsible for the existing evil is discussed with frankness and good judgment, and the hasty conclusions and sweeping assertions concerning this difficult problem on the part of many physicians meet with just condemnation. The writer also discusses several methods of experimental school hygiene which, though perhaps of uncertain value, deserve the attention of specialists in this important field who are not already familiar with them.

The distribution of the Armenians in Asia Minor and Transcaucasia is the subject of the principal article in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for January. The facts are mostly derived from a remarkable work recently published in Paris, 'La Turquie d'Asie,' which gives a geographical, administrative, and statistical account of each Asiatic province of the empire. The author, Vital Cuinet, a general secretary of the Ottoman Bank, has devoted his leisure and means for the past twelve years to the collection of information through correspondents in every important place. The services of these persons he cordially recognizes in his preface, but adds that to name them would be a poor return, as it would inevitably injure them with the Turkish officials. In the nine Armenian provinces, according to the figures given by Cuinet, the total population in 1890 was almost exactly 6,000,000, of whom 4,453,250 were Mohammedans, 913,875 Armenians, and 632,750 Greeks, Nestorians, Chaldeans, Jacobites, and Syrians. In the five provinces in which the Armenians are most numerous, they had only 24 per cent., while the Mohammedans had 69 per cent. of the population. They were in a majority in only nine *kasas* of the two provinces of Van and Bitlis. In Transcaucasia they form a fifth part of the total population, numbering 958,371, or slightly more than in Asia Minor. They live mostly in the governments of Tiflis, Erivan, and Elisabethpol. An interesting and valuable map, by the editor, Dr. Supan, accompanies the article, and shows by shading and coloring not only the distribution of the Armenians in the region, but that of the other Christians. To this number, also, Dr. Franz Boas contributes a colored map showing the distribution of the different Indian languages and dialects in British Columbia.

In the February number of the same periodical Mr. A. Lindenkohl gives some of the results of observations of the temperature and density of the waters of the Gulf Stream and the Gulf of Mexico. There is also a sketch of the Hinterland of the German colony of Togo in West Africa, with some useful suggestions as to the best method of developing its great resources. A detailed account of recent Russian explorations in northwestern China is interesting mainly as an indication of the activity displayed both by the Government and by scientific men and merchants in opening up this region to Russian influences. A table of the population of the principal towns in the German Empire on December 2, 1895, exhibits in a striking way the popular movement towards the cities. There are now 102 towns with more than 30,000 inhabitants, and 28 with more than 100,000. Since 1890, Hamburg and Munich have gained 55,000 each in round numbers, Berlin 100,000, and the remaining 25 large

cities have each increased in similar proportions. The editor, in referring to the reported arrival of Nansen in Eastern Siberia, calls attention to the fact that the first news of Nordenskiöld's reaching Bering Straits in 1878 came, not from the voyager himself nor from the Russian officials, but from the Siberian merchant Sibiriakoff. In this case the *Vega* reached the straits and went into winter-quarters on September 28, but the news was not received in Europe till May 16, 1879.

From April 27 to May 2 will be held the spring session of the Chicago Commons School of Social Economics.

—Volume sixteen of the Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers contains, in addition to the usual papers on engine-testing and on the strength of materials, a description, by Mr. Fred. W. Taylor, of his piece-rate system of paying wages which has been in satisfactory operation for ten years in the works of a Philadelphia steel company where a thousand men are employed. Mr. Taylor speaks from abundant experience in declaring that the ordinary piece-work system of payment is no improvement upon the demoralizing day-work plan of paying men according to the positions they fill, and not according to their individual efficiencies. The introduction of piece-payment does at first quicken the pace of the better men, and thus increases output. But, "after the job has been repeated a number of times at the more rapid rate, the manufacturer thinks that he also should begin to share in the gain, and therefore reduces the price of the job to a figure at which the workman, although working harder, earns, perhaps, but little more than he originally did when on day work." The workman soon learns to foresee the cut and to guard against it. Thus "the ordinary piece-work system involves a permanent antagonism between employers and men, and a certainty of punishment for each workman who reaches a high rate of efficiency. . . . Even the best workmen are forced continually to act the part of hypocrites to hold their own in the struggle against the encroachments of their employers." This is the testimony not of a walking delegate, but of a responsible employer.

—The remedy consists of two parts. First, each job now performed is analyzed into its elementary operations, and the rate of payment for the whole is found by adding the rates which have, as a result of experience, been assigned to the constituent elements. It is thus made possible at once to fix, by similar analysis, a proportionate piece-rate for any novel job about to be undertaken. This counteracts the tendency of men to "mark time" on each new job in hope of securing a high piece-rate for it and subsequently nursing their "soft snap." The second essential feature of Mr. Taylor's plan is a system of "differential rates" of payment, designed to afford high wages for maximum efficiency, and to reduce wages more than proportionately for any falling off from the maximum. For example, suppose a good man can turn out ten pieces per day, wages are then fixed at thirty-five cents each for ten pieces and twenty-five cents each for any less number. Under this system, quantity of work has been increased and quality improved; the men, conscious that they are treated as individuals, have become more cheerful and more truthful; and although the company has never forbidden its men to join labor organizations, its business has not been interrupted by any of the strikes that, during the past ten years, have embarrassed the steel industry generally. The best men see that the success of a labor organization must mean the lowering of their wages to the amount that inferior men can earn, and they refuse to join. Such, epitomized, is Mr. Taylor's account of his "step toward partial solution of the labor problem." It deserves to be noted that, from the establishment of the system in 1884 to the summer of 1893, no cut was ever made in piece-rates. The men found that "it was the intention of the firm to allow them to earn permanently at the rate of $3.50," and they did it.

—In the latest number of the *Historische Zeitschrift*, founded and formerly conducted by the late Prof. von Sybel, the present editor, Heinrich von Treitschke, calls upon the Prussian Government to publish the *Testaments Politiques* of Frederick the Great of 1752 and 1768, which are now preserved in the secret cabinet of the state archives, and thus rendered inaccessible to scholars. After the historiographer of the House of Brandenburg, Prof. Preuss, had finished his 'Biography of Frederick the Great,' and other minor contributions to the life of this monarch, he was authorized to prepare, under the auspices of the Berlin Academy of Sciences, a new and complete edition of the 'Oeuvres de Frédéric le Grand,' which appeared in 1846–'57 in thirty stately and sumptuous volumes. But, although this work was nominally complete, it was actually far from being so, since it did not include the political correspondence and many official documents, which it was deemed undesirable to publish. Among the most important omissions were the two "Political Testaments" above mentioned. In 1842 Frederick William IV. referred the question of their publication to the ministers Eichhorn, Savigny, and Heinrich von Bülow, who decided unanimously against it. The papers were also submitted to Alexander von Humboldt and the historian Ranke, both of whom feared lest they should give offence, not so much to France as to Austria, and especially to Russia, and thus create foreign complications. Ranke expressed the opinion that they should be printed entirely or not at all. More than half a century has elapsed since these decisions were given, and it is now believed that the documents in question might be published without causing the slightest international irritation. They would, doubtless, throw new light upon the origin and conduct of the Seven Years' War and other historical events, as well as upon important questions of economical, financial, and military administration and diplomacy.

—The many expressions of disappointment at the policy of the new Tsar that have been heard of late give a peculiar interest to an article in a recent number of the Russian Liberal weekly, *Nedyelya*, on political and economic life in Russia during 1895. While admitting that few actual public reforms have been accomplished, the writer takes a very hopeful view of the future. He points to the Emperor's expressed statements of the necessity of the development of national enlightenment and to the actual steps already taken in that direction. Among these he mentions the establishment of a medical institute for women and the stipendiums offered to authors and scientists by the Academy of Science. Important changes have been made in the administration of justice, leading to far greater equality before the law. The comparative lack of advance in communal matters is explained as being due to unfortunate economic conditions, the consideration of which absorbed public attention. It is natural that the writer, being a Russian, should dwell with satisfaction on the triumphs of Russia in the diplomatic field, especially in the East. The closer relations with France, too, which he takes more seriously than many outside of France are inclined to do, are regarded as promising much for the influence of his country in European politics. After mentioning the friendly feelings of Russia towards the United States, he closes by prophesying that in the not distant future Russia will reach a great, leading international position, the main object of which will be the preservation of the peace of the world.

—The *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen contained recently an interesting account, by Prof. Otto Jespersen, of a visit to the school for deaf-mutes at Nyborg, Fünen. This institution occupies a peculiar position among Danish institutions of its kind, from the fact that it is wholly a day school, its pupils being surrounded out of class hours by persons of normal speech, which, as the author states, is an important condition in their preparation for active life. Moreover, no children congenitally deaf are accepted. It includes both those who have become totally deaf as a result of sickness and those who have only partially lost their hearing. The articles, of which there are two, do not attempt a detailed account of the establishment, but confine themselves wholly to a description of the phonetic side of the subject, on which no one in Denmark is better fitted to speak than the author. Prof. Jespersen discusses some of the peculiar difficulties connected with the teaching of phonetics to deaf mutes. The most interesting of these to a foreign reader is that of the so-called glottal catch, as this sound is not found in any other language than Danish, where it plays a very important part. So difficult is the sound that foreigners learn to produce it only after long practice, and frequently not even then. Prof. Jespersen found the results in this direction truly remarkable, the method, which is not described, being original with the director, Mr. Forchhammer. Another difficulty noted, which is not peculiar to Danish, is to teach the accentuation of words. Formerly no attempt was made in Denmark to distinguish between accented and unaccented syllables in teaching deaf mutes, nor is the new method used in the higher classes, as the attempt to explain it to those who had already learned to speak would, it was feared, lead to confusion. The author found that the speech of the younger pupils was very much more intelligible than that of the older ones, who not only gave either the wrong accent or none at all, but also frequently changed the sound altogether. In order to teach tone and pitch, the absence of which is generally felt to be a disagreeable feature in the speech of deaf mutes, Mr. Forchhammer has constructed an instrument which he calls the phonoscope. It can be used by seven persons at a time, who of course do not disturb one another, as they cannot hear.

—M. Edmond de Goncourt's book on Hokusai, the great Japanese painter, has just appeared in Paris (Charpentier). Some foretastes of its quality had already been offered, in the *Revue des Revues*, and were sufficient to show that there is no lack in it of the brilliant characteristics of its author, and of his passionate love of art and of things Japanese. A curious story is connected with the book.

Among the students of Japanese art no one, perhaps, has been more laborious, or is more competent as a critic and more erudite, than M. S. Bing. Although Hokusai (or, as M. Bing transliterates the name, Hok'saï) died but a little more than fifty years ago, few traces of his life remained. Little remained of him except his pictures. His grave, even, was unknown, until its discovery through M. Bing's researches. Many of the artist's letters have by the same means been brought to light. In prosecuting his work, M. Bing had recourse to the services of a learned Japanese who undertook the task of verifying upon the spot uncertain facts, and of "unravelling the tangled skein of contradictory informations." This confidential agent was a certain "Jijima Hanjuro," a clever fellow, who conceived the idea of adding to the liberal wages which he received from M. Bing the emoluments of an author. As the facts cleared up, and the results of his researches grew to the bulk of a substantial collection, Jijima published them in Japan as a 'Life of Hok'saï'; and while M. Bing was busily occupied in coördinating the reports that were sent him, and spending much patient labor over Hokusai's life and works, a copy of this book was sent across the ocean to Paris, where a translation of it was made for the benefit of M. de Goncourt. This translation Goncourt bought, and used quite innocently, so far as appears, since he was ignorant of its origin. M. Bing has published the preface of his own forthcoming volume, 'La Vie et l'Oeuvre de Hok'saï,' in the *Revue Blanche*, together with a note which tells the story given above. He lays no blame on M. de Goncourt, though he cannot refrain from saying, perhaps with a little irony mingled with the wit: "Je m'estime trop heureux d'être en posture tout spécialement propice pour attester l'origine authentique de l'histoire relatée dans le volume Goncourt, auquel je souhaite de plein cœur la fortune éclatante qui couronna les plus brillants ouvrages du maître écrivain." M. Bing's own book on Hokusai, which may be expected to be much more learned and more thorough than that of M. de Goncourt, will soon appear.

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE UNIVERSITIES.—I.

The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages. By Hastings Rashdall, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Hertford College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 2 vols., 8vo, 560, 832 pp.

Ever since the great expansion of activity at Göttingen a century and a half ago, and more particularly since Wilhelm von Humboldt started the University of Berlin on its remarkable career, the universities have played an increasingly important part in modern civilization. Both in Europe and in America, as factors in institutional life they are constantly in the public eye, and, whether for weal or for woe, they influence powerfully the convictions and the conduct of a large proportion of the leaders of each generation. This condition has come about very gradually—so gradually, indeed, that we have no adequate history of it, and no widespread knowledge of the origin and causes of the institution itself, the university.

The really authoritative literature on the origin and development of the universities is very recent and very incomplete. Scholarly and accurate surveys, though necessarily much compressed, are those contributed by Mullinger to the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' and by Perry to the 'International Encyclopædia.' So far as the universities of Germany alone are concerned, we have an ideal sketch by Paulsen; but there is no treatment equally good of the whole field. Prof. Laurie's 'Rise and Constitution of the Universities' is very uncritical and inaccurate. Compayré's 'Abelard and the Origin of the Universities' is much the best and most authoritative book of its kind, but its scope is somewhat restricted. The older works of Meiners, Malden, and others were written before the wealth of material now at hand was accessible, and are of antiquarian interest only. It is to Father Denifle, the first volume of whose 'Die Entstehung der Universitäten des Mittelalters' appeared in 1885, and to Kaufmann, who began the publication of his 'Geschichte der deutschen Universitäten' in 1888, that we must look for scientific weighing of all the evidence, and careful presentation of all the facts relating to the origin and early history of the university movement. Unfortunately the work of both Denifle and Kaufmann has been interrupted, and it is impossible to predict when their remaining volumes will appear.

The publication of Mr. Rashdall's history has been eagerly awaited, especially since Mr. Gladstone's enthusiastic reference to it in his Romanes Lecture of 1892. It has grown out of an Oxford prize essay written in 1883, and is entitled by its scope, its vast research, and its scientific method to take rank with the works of Denifle and Kaufmann, to both of whom, indeed, but particularly the former, Mr. Rashdall owes much. He has also availed himself of the immense mass of official and historical matter relating to particular universities that has seen the light during the past twenty-five years. Indeed, Mr. Rashdall's bibliographical notes alone are of the greatest value, and would amply justify publication. No important omission of any kind, save of Compayré's excellent volume, mentioned above, has been noted in them.

The educational beginnings of the universities are readily traceable to the *scholæ exteriores* of the monasteries; their institutional origin goes back to the mediæval guilds. Cassian, St. Benedict, Alcuin, and Hrabanus builded more wisely than they knew. Their cloister schools were resorted to by numbers of students who had no intention of becoming monks, and for them a special class or department, *schola exterior*, was organized. These schools developed with somewhat more freedom than the *scholæ interiores*, which prepared pupils specifically for a monastic life. As a result, there began to appear in the tenth and eleventh centuries—first in Italy, then in France and England—a class of men, well trained and well educated according to the standards of the time, who were not restricted to the monasteries, and who were able and not unwilling to make teaching their life-work. These *magistri* or *scholastici* migrated from place to place, giving lectures and presiding at disputations. As their reputations spread, and groups of scholars followed them about, these masters and their followers were invited hither and yon by bishops, abbots, and princes. Their learning and influence became international. The leading teachers of the time gradually gravitated to certain centres, and in the course of a century or two several of them, often many, were to be found teaching in one town or near one monastery. Bologna, Paris, and Montpellier were such centres, and at each one of these places there appear to have been a number of masters and scholars without any relation to each other. It is doubtless with this development in mind that Cardinal Newman claimed for Charlemagne the glory and honor of commencing the university movement, and wrote that "whether his school at Paris be called a university or not, he laid down principles of which a university is the result, in that he aimed at educating all classes and undertook all subjects of teaching."

The theory of Savigny that a university came into existence whenever a distinguished teacher attracted to himself a large number of scholars, is suggestive and partly true; but, as Denifle has shown, it is insufficient to account for all the facts. Mr. Rashdall's treatment proceeds upon the same assumption. A method of instruction different from that practised in the lower schools, and the possession by the students and masters of certain privileges, were the marks of the developed university. The method, so far at least as Paris and its imitators are concerned, is due largely to Abelard, who, as Mr. Rashdall says, inaugurated the intellectual movement out of which the universities eventually sprang, although even in their most rudimentary form they did not exist until a generation after his time. This fact has been so persistently ignored by popular writers on the subject, despite the verdict of Cousin, Newman, Denifle, and Compayré, that it is gratifying to find that Mr. Rashdall's independent studies have led him to lay great emphasis upon the influence of Abelard in the university movement. We can readily understand how the elaborate and forceful argumentations of William of Champeaux and his more famous pupil, Abelard, encouraged freedom of opinion and discussion and attracted hundreds of mature students to Paris. Abelard's "attempt to appeal from recent tradition to the ancient Fathers, and from the ancient Fathers to Scripture and to Reason," is the mediæval equivalent of what the modern university teacher knows as the study of the "sources." It would be a mistake to suppose, however, that the liberal and intelligent method of Abelard was universally followed and adhered to or that it uniformly led to good results. Many of the "disputations" based upon it were unquestionably stimulating, but too often they degenerated into mere formal logic-chopping and the routine of the "dictation."

The mode in which the universities acquired special privileges and immunities is somewhat more difficult to explain. By the beginning of the thirteenth century *Studia Generalia* had become common. Three were prominent—Paris for theology and arts, Bologna for law, and Salerno for medicine. Apparently any town that chose might, at that time, claim to be a *Studium Generale*, and, as Mr. Rashdall says, if Arezzo or Vercelli desired to intimate that it offered as good an education as Paris or Bologna, it did so by assuming the title of *Studium Generale*. It could do this with some grace if it simply provided more than one Magister, invited students from all countries, and maintained at least one of the so-called higher faculties—theology, law, or medicine. There was no authority to determine whether or not a given school was a *Studium Generale;* it was wholly a matter of usage. But it is natural to follow Mr. Rashdall in supposing that a Magister who had taught at so celebrated a centre as Paris, Bologna, or Salerno was pretty sure to receive recognition elsewhere. Doubtless the less well-known *Studia* gladly welcomed such a man as a teacher, while subjecting masters from smaller schools to severe and technical tests. It is Mr. Rashdall's inference

that "to the original conception of a *Studium Generale* there was thus gradually added a vague notion of a certain œcumenical validity for the Mastership which it conferred" (i., 9). This "œcumenical validity" became in time the *jus ubique docendi*.

The next step is the one by which Emperor and Pope were brought to lend a helping hand to the now vigorous university movement. As this is but dimly understood and has been hotly debated, it will be well to quote Mr. Rashdall's own carefully supported words:

"In the latter half of the thirteenth century this unrestricted liberty of founding *Studia Generalia* gradually ceased; and the cessation brought with it an important change in the meaning of the term. It so happened that at about the same time the two great 'world Powers' of Europe [anticipating the modern American millionaire] conceived the idea of erecting a school which was to be placed by an exercise of authority on a level with the great European centres of education. In 1224 the Emperor Frederick II. founded a *Studium Generale* at Naples; in 1229 Gregory IX. did the same at Toulouse; while in 1244 or 1245 Innocent IV. established a *Studium Generale* in the Pontifical Court itself. These foundations would appear to have suggested the idea that the erection of new *Studia Generalia* was one of the Papal and Imperial prerogatives, like the power of creating notaries public. Moreover, in order to give the graduates of Toulouse (in so far as parchment and wax could secure it) the same prestige and recognition which were enjoyed by the graduates of Paris and Bologna, a Bull was issued (in 1233) which declared that any one admitted to the mastership in that University should be freely allowed to teach in all the Studia without any further examination. In the course of the century other cities anxious to place their schools on a level with those privileged Universities applied for and obtained from Pope or Emperor Bulls constituting them Studia Generalia. The earlier of these Bulls simply confer the position of *Studium Generale* without further definition, or confer the privileges of some specified University such as Paris or Bologna.

"The most prominent practical purposes of such Bulls seems at first to have been to give beneficed ecclesiastics the right of studying in them while contriving to receive the fruits of their benefices—a privilege limited by canonical law or custom to *Studia* reputed 'general.' But gradually the special privilege of the *jus ubique docendi* came to be regarded as the principal object of Papal or Imperial creation. It was usually, but not quite invariably, conferred in express terms by the original foundation-bulls; and was apparently understood to be involved in the mere act of erection even in the rare cases where it is not expressly conceded. In 1292 even the old archetypal universities themselves—Bologna and Paris—were formally invested with the same privilege by Bulls of Nicholas IV. From this time the notion gradually gained ground that the *jus ubique docendi* was of the essence of a *Studium Generale*, and that no school which did not possess the privilege could obtain it without a Bull from Emperor or Pope" (i., 10-12).

This passage is a concise and doubtless correct summary of the facts concerning what has seemed a very difficult matter. Denifle and Mr. Rashdall are probably right in their conclusions from the admitted facts, and Kaufmann, despite his great learning and acumen, is probably wrong. While the Emperor and Pope had nothing to do with originating the university movement, after 1300 they became a most important factor in creating universities, and Mr. Rashdall is conservative rather than radical in excluding from the category of universities, from the beginning of the fourteenth century, all bodies that were not founded by Pope or Emperor. The essential point to bear in mind, however, is that the earliest universities were not founded, but *grew*.

SCARTAZZINI'S DANTE COMMENTARY.

La Divina Commedia di Dante Alighieri, riveduta nel testo e commentata da G. A. Scartazzini. 2ª edizione, riveduta, corretta, e notevolmente arrichita, coll' aggiunta del Rimario Perfezionato del Dott. Luigi Polacco. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli.

THAT indefatigable Dantist, Dr. Scartazzini, must have taken for his motto, No year without its book. Amid his almost kaleidoscopic publications for the illustration of his chosen poet, his readers bid fair to find themselves before long in some bewilderment. We now have his Introduction to Dante (to give this name to a work with various titles) in no less than five forms, three in Italian and two in German. We already had from him two commentaries upon the 'Divine Comedy,' a larger, in three volumes, published at Leipzig, and a smaller, in a single volume, issued at Milan; and now comes this second edition of the latter, so increased in bulk that it must be regarded as a distinct work. His voluminous 'Dante in Germania' surveyed what German scholars have done for the great Florentine; and he announces as already in the press an 'Enciclopedia Dantesca' in two large volumes. Several others of his books there are, but we will not mention them here.

In spite of this amazing rapidity of production, the work of Dr. Scartazzini is always valuable. The larger edition of the 'Divine Comedy' at once established itself among students of Dante as in important particulars the most useful modern commentary on the great poem. The one-volume edition, issued two years since, had already generally superseded for beginners and for class-room use the editions of Fraticelli, Bianchi, Andreoli, and others of less diffusion; and there can be little doubt that in its new form this edition is destined to be for some time to come the most useful and the most generally adopted of all the briefer commentaries on the poem. It seems, therefore, worth while to give our readers some notion of its merits and demerits.

The writing of an adequate commentary upon a poem like the 'Divine Comedy' is hardly less a work of art than was the production of the poem itself. It is, to be sure, art of a lower, though perhaps not more common kind; yet clearly showing itself art in that pedestrian industry, however laborious and faithful, invariably makes a failure of it. Only by the constant exercise of the imagination can the difficult three-fold task be accomplished of comprehending the poet, of understanding his words, and of interpreting both poet and words justly and surely to the commentator's own generation. For success here grammar does not suffice, nor the vanity of that erudition which D'Alembert so well described—"qui croit voir tous les jours augmenter sa substance par les acquisitions qu'il fait sans peine." The really successful exegete must manage to place before us the poet himself, as he uttered himself in his poem; stroke upon stroke he must depict for us that living personality as it drew from the stores of nature the materials for a new and rare fabric, selecting and shaping them to its needs. Mere explanation of verbal difficulty or of allusion is therefore but the beginning of a commentator's duty, though naturally, in dealing with a work like the 'Divine Comedy,' there are many and serious problems to be faced even here. The main matter is to induct us, more swiftly and truly than our limited personal studies can do it, into that manner of seeing and judging men and things which is peculiar to the poet. What were his imaginative prepossessions, and how came he by them? In what shapes did truth and beauty present themselves to his inward eye? From what conjunction of personal experience and contemporary convention did his moral estimates proceed? What course of speculation did he run? Who were his intellectual masters? What did they teach him? And what were the determinations of his independent thought? These are the essential questions; and the really adequate commentary, flowing beside the poem, will answer them, not all at once, but little by little, so that at the end we shall have come not only to understand and admire, but also to comprehend and sympathize. All the great poets of the past need this treatment, but none among them more than Dante.

There is much in the 'Divine Comedy' to lead the commentator away from what should be his main purpose. First of all, the style abounds in lexicographical and grammatical difficulties, due in part to the uncertainties of the text, in part to the accumulated obscurity of six hundred years—difficulties whose solution may fairly tax the abilities and learning of any modern man. Then, Dante has chosen to give a firm vesture of flesh and blood to his thought by constant allusions to contemporary men and events. The elucidation of these has already given rise to a huge literature, the production of which shows no sign of abating. In this vast morass it is but too easy to become lost, and few that enter it ever emerge. But in our judgment the greatest danger of all for the commentator is a misconception of the poem as a whole, into which no less a person than Dante himself seems to lead us. Throughout the Middle Ages there reigned supreme and undoubted a peculiar theory as to the purpose and function of poetry, namely, that in so far as it is serious it is in its innermost essence allegory. This theory was held without reserve by Dante. In his 'Convito' (Tratt. II., cap. i.) he outlines it at length, and assumes to interpret in accordance with it the *canzoni* used as the texts of that work. Furthermore, in the dedicatory letter sent with the "Paradiso" to Can Grande della Scala (accepting this as genuine), the poet reaffirms the doctrine and asserts its application to his own poem, saying that the subject of his work, taken literally, is "the condition of souls after death, pure and simple"; while, taken allegorically, it is "man, in so far as, having through the freedom of his will merit or demerit, he receives from Justice reward or punishment."

Thus we have Dante's own assurance that the 'Divine Comedy' contains at once a literal and an allegorical meaning—an assurance that seems to find confirmation from the very aspect and first impression of the poem. Furthermore, we have his definition of allegory as threefold in its character. After this there could seem to be no doubt that the first business of the commentator is to disentangle this threefold mystic sense, and to show it running side by side with the literal meaning through the work. Such, indeed, has been the conception of their task that the majority of the commentators from the fourteenth century down have had; and in our own time many and severe have been the criticisms upon those who have seemed to be indifferent or careless in this matter. What was the excellent Giuliani's tractate, 'Dante spiegato con Dante,' but an arraignment of such as have dared to neglect Dante's own guidance in the interpretation of his poem? And yet, we venture to say, he who completely and absolutely accepts this guidance will certainly fail

of success in his efforts to produce a satisfactory exposition of the 'Divine Comedy.' For the truth is, it is, in the nature of things, an impossibility that there should be four meanings expressed at one and the same time throughout this or any other work of literature. This was long ago recognized in dealing with the classic poets; it is at last almost universally accepted in dealing with the Bible. And the time has come to admit that even a man who wrote his poem in the firm conviction that it ought to contain these meanings, if it was to be a serious work, and who at the end flattered himself that he had succeeded in making it do so, though he were Dante himself, could not by any possibility so transcend all human capability as to accomplish such an undertaking. Of symbolism in details, of allegory in dealing with particular matters, there certainly is an abundance in the 'Divine Comedy,' and these the commentator must explain as well as he can. But towards that vast and all-embracing four-fold meaning supposed to run through the whole poem, the only safe plan is to adopt an attitude of wise indifference. If any one doubts this, let him turn to Gabriele Rossetti's exposition of the 'Divine Comedy' and be convinced.

It is a much more important matter that should engage the chief energies of the modern commentator on Dante. It cannot be too often repeated that no man's ideas, not even the greatest poet's, are of his own peculiar coinage and issue. However rare and personal they may seem at first sight, they will be found upon examination to be in reality products of a slow accretion, in which many generations of minds have left traces of themselves. And something of this process we must be shown if we are to arrive at any adequate understanding and appreciation of what the poet tells us. It can hardly be said that Dr. Scartazzini has undertaken any one of his editions of the 'Divine Comedy' with this obligation clearly in mind. In all of them his effort seems chiefly to have been laboriously to gather what everybody has said on each particular point, and to select from the mass what appears to him most reasonable and probable. In doing this he has given many evidences of good sense and just discrimination in his preferences. He has avoided, for example, an undue zeal in the pursuit of Dante's possible allegorical intentions. He has in general refused to follow the *ignes fatui* of incidental interpretation. His judgment in questions of the text is, in the present state of our knowledge, not often to be quarrelled with, and he is undoubtedly superior in this respect to most of his predecessors. In lexicographical questions he is less sure, and, indeed, at times displays a decided lack of original and first-hand scholarship. He is too apt to fall back upon the interpretations of the fourteenth-century commentators, who are, after all, as any one who makes a comparative study of them must see, so uncritical in their methods and so divergent in their opinions as to afford us hardly more than valuable bodies of collateral linguistic and illustrative material, requiring in use the same treatment as the work of Dante himself. Still, the free even though unscientific employment of this material will guard any judicious commentator from many hasty and fantastic renderings. And this is the case with Dr. Scartazzini. We must add, however, that in the important and in many ways difficult matter of Dante's grammar he has done next to nothing of value.

But the greatest weakness of this edition, as we have already implied, is to be found in what we may call its comparative literary aspects. Evidences abound in it that Dr. Scartazzini has a decidedly superficial acquaintance with mediæval literature outside of Italy, and indeed with the course of ideas in the Middle Ages in general. Though expounding a poet whose imaginative life began with the almost unlimited acceptance of social and moral ideals first formulated by the poets of Provence and France, and who to the end retained his respect and admiration for these poets, Dr. Scartazzini shows so little knowledge of them that he is able to characterize even the most famous among them, like Arnaut Daniel and Giraut de Borneil, only at second hand and most inadequately. Of the real character of their poetry and of the sources of its interest for Dante he gives no account at all. And the same lack of sure and original knowledge makes itself felt in his treatment of those intellectual additions which Dante in his maturer years made to his earlier imaginative prepossessions. The passage from the amorous service of Beatrice Portinari to that practice of love which brings the desire and the will into harmonious motion with the divine "love that moves the sun and the other stars," is no such easy and obvious process that we may safely be left to follow it for ourselves. An adequate and final comment upon the 'Divine Comedy,' if we ever get it, will show us the kind of help Dante derived from all the great spirits he enshrines in his poem in attaining this ultimate adjustment of his thought to the world and to God.

Robert Burns in Other Tongues: A Critical Review of the Translations of the Songs and Poems of Robert Burns. By William Jacks. Glasgow: MacLehose; New York: Macmillan.

THIS book, if it serves no other end, ought to be a treasure to the Scotch perorator. One delights to imagine the flow of eloquence at Burns anniversaries and St. Andrew's Day dinners which will follow from a judicious use of its contents. The most resourceful speaker can hardly hope to produce a more electric effect than by reminding his hearers that the oppressed Czech, in his struggle against the Austrian tyrant, nourishes his courage on the martial pabulum of "Scots wha hae"; that the Dutch of the Orange Free State have a President who can do the "Cotter's Saturday Night" into their South African dialect; and that the Swiss Germans confirm their democratic independence with "A man's a man for a' that," while the Germans of the Fatherland wallow knee-deep in the wild-romantic sentiment of "O my luve's like a red, red rose." Some dexterous Scot might even get his tongue around

"Feledjuk-é a régi jót
S ne emlegessük öt,"

which is the Hungarian beginning of "Auld Lang Syne." If these sentiments do not bring down the house, all patriotism must be dead to the north of the Tweed.

Mr. Jacks's collection of translations is brought together from many quarters, and no one who lacks Mezzofanti's attainments can be trusted to pronounce with authority upon the merit of the versions. Alas that it should be a case of "No man but Lancelot, and he is dead." In the absence of Mezzofanti, Mr. Jacks has resorted to the only possible expedient. The tongues represented are German, Swiss-German, Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Dutch, Flemish, African-Dutch, Frisian, Bohemian, Hungarian, Russian, French, Italian, Scottish-Gaelic, Irish-Gaelic, Welsh, and—not to be outdone by upstart tongues—Latin. Mr. Jacks does not pretend to be a master of all these, yet to each translation a critical comment is prefixed. The preface explains how this is managed:

"It would be hypocritical pedantry to leave it to be assumed that I knew all the various languages which appear here sufficiently well to enable me to criticise these translations as I have done; indeed, some of them I do not know at all. In such cases I had each retranslated literally into a language which I did understand, and the retranslation was sent to a native of the particular country for confirmation and comment, and in this way I was able to make my remarks."

Such a process means no end of pains, as does the whole compilation. The volume is a labor of love and has been done thoroughly. The claims which it has to attention, apart from excellence of printing and paper, its incense to Scotch pride in Burns, and the portraits of the translators, are more considerable than one at first thought might suppose. Mr. Jacks's own observations are very interesting. The Burns devotee who wishes to take up languages will, from his knowledge of the originals, find the translations easy reading, and new light may be thrown on Burns in his own tongue by attention to Burns in French or German. Mr. Jacks gives a decisive instance of this last advantage anent the line "Courts for cowards are erected":

"Four out of every five readers of Burns to whom I put the question, 'Does this mean Royal Courts or Courts of Law'? replied 'Royal Courts of course.' An eminent German translator uses the word Gericht, not Hof. This suggested the question to me; and I discovered he was right, as the context shows. 'A fig for those by *Law* protected. . . . *Courts* for cowards were erected.' When I pointed this out, my friends admitted that they had not thought of it so closely."

Mr. Jacks has not thrown in his translations miscellaneously, but has used method. As it is, the book runs into 550 pages, and only the leading translations in each language are printed. A selection is made of certain pieces, and these, wherever possible, are followed through the various tongues so that the reader may form standards of comparison. Out of the 47 songs and poems chosen for illustration, only 9 are given in but one language, and the majority of the rest are given in half-a-dozen. The pieces which English critics have recognized to be the best are those which have been most diligently translated. "The Cotter's Saturday Night," "Duncan Gray," "Flow gently, sweet Afton," "John Anderson, my Jo," "The Jolly Beggars," "A Man's a Man for a' that," "O wert thou in the cauld Blast,' "O My Luve's like a red, red Rose," "Scots wha hae," "Tam o' Shanter," "To a Daisy," "To a Mouse," "To Mary in Heaven," "Ye Banks and Braes o' bonnie Doon" are the favorites of the Continent as of Great Britain and the United States.

In coming to the translations themselves, it seems to us that, as one would suppose *a priori*, the Teutonic translations are better than those in the Romance languages. Burns in French or Italian sounds very strange, though we must not forget that the most learned and sympathetic study of Burns which has been made by any foreigner is to the credit of a Frenchman, M. Auguste Angellier of Lille. Competent Celtic scholars say that the difficulty of translating Burns into Gaelic equals that of translating him into Greek or Latin. "Burns in Gaelic is a David in armor. His movements lack freedom, grace, and vivacity." But in German, especially in Swiss-German, a good deal of the original afflatus is preserved by a skilful translator like Laun, Ruete, or Corrodi. We insist upon Corrodi's translation into Swiss-German

because his contention that no other tongue serves so well for the reproduction of Burns as the Zurich dialect is supported by some excellent proofs. Corrodi has not tried the poems, but has translated thirty-four of the songs. Mr. Jacks says of his version of "A Man's a Man": "This translation is almost perfect; the first line is rather stilted, and two lines seem weak. . . . These are but two very small defects in what is perhaps the best translation into any language of this magnificent ode; and it is fair to point out some lines where the language seems even more expressive than in the original, which is a bold thing to say of any of Burns's masterpieces." The most distinguished European who has tried his hand at the translation of Burns is Van Lennep, the Scott of Holland. Perfect command of the English tongue is an inheritance of the Van Lenneps of Haarlem to the present day. The Latin translations are at least amusing, notably Mr. Leighton's into mediæval Latin verse. Mr. Whamond is less ridiculous, but Burns and Latin are oil and water.

We wish to leave the impression that this book will be valuable to the student of Burns and to the student of translations in general. Not least among its strong points is the merit of Mr. Jacks's criticism of each separate translation, and the light incidentally thrown upon European interest in English literature.

A Manual of Greek Antiquities. By Percy Gardner and Frank B. Jevons. Scribners. 1895.

An introduction, in a single volume, to Greek antiquities in their chief branches—social, religious, and political—has long been needed, and the want is supplied, and well supplied, by the present work. The editors have divided the labor of composition. Prof. Gardner is responsible for the first five books, entitled respectively The Surroundings of Greek Life, Religion and Mythology, Cultus, The Course of Life, and Commerce; Dr. Jevons has written the other four, on Constitutional and Legal Antiquities, Slavery, War, and The Theatre.

Manuals are generally pretty dry reading, but this one is a pleasing exception to the rule. It is written in an easy, almost conversational style; it is no mere cataloguing of the facts, for in most cases the endeavor is made to trace the manners and customs described back to their origins, and indeed the success in this particular is remarkable. Take, for instance, the subject of Sacrifice. It was hardly to be believed that in a mere manual Prof. Gardner should have been able to go so deeply into a topic like this; and yet even the origins of the sacrifice meet with satisfactory discussion. And the subject of religion in general is treated by him with a fulness which is all the more welcome because Hermann-Strack's handbook has been long out of print, while the volume on Greek religion in Müller's great series is far too bald an outline for general readers. A little study of the pages here devoted to totem and fetish, ancestor worship, and orgiastic cults will be a genuine surprise to the reader unfamiliar with what has been doing of late years on the lines of comparative religion. The account of the Eleusinian Mysteries is interesting and yet sober—wholly without that overstraining of the imagination with which English writers have been too apt to portray the surroundings of the secret that was better kept than any other in antiquity. The contrast between the ritual of ancient temples and that of modern churches is excellently drawn. And, descending to particulars, we have noted no important omission in details of religion save that of the Athenian καθάρματα. For all these pages on religion, by far the most valuable in the book, we are indebted to Prof. Gardner, and we must thank him too for his clear account of Greek houses and of social life in the open air.

To Dr. Jevons we are especially grateful for his chapters on the laws. In fact, we know of no other English book which gives so full a selection from the Attic Code in the original Greek, accompanied by such a clear commentary. The code of Gortyn also finds a place. His treatment of legal procedure before the courts is also excellent, though we note here a slight contradiction. On page 583 it is stated that "witnesses themselves did not appear" in court, while on page 590 we find the proper explanation, that they appeared, indeed, but merely to acknowledge their evidence as given at the ἀνάκρισις. On the subject of theatrical antiquities Dr. Jevons is not so much at home. On the still burning question of stage or no stage, while we agree with him that the case of the no-stagers is not yet fully proved, yet his attack upon their position by no means blunts all their weapons. In fact, he seems not to be aware how many and various shafts will soon be directed at his devoted head. For instance, the careful examinations made by both Americans and Germans of the internal evidence from the plays themselves, appear to be all but unknown to him. And, to take up one of his own arguments, the passage in Plato's "Symposium" on which he lays much stress is now generally admitted to refer to the *proagon* of Agathon's play, and not to the performance itself. It took place, therefore, in the odeum, not in the theatre. And nobody has yet arisen to tear away the raised stage from the Greek music-hall.

It is to be regretted that the plan of this book did not include at least simple bibliographies of the most important subjects treated in it. The footnotes are few for such a work (750 pages of text), and they are chiefly references to ancient authors. The book contains some pictures, not very well executed; but, as the editors remark in their preface, English-speaking students have now at their command a fairly complete and well-arranged series of illustrations for all the important branches of Greek antiquities in Anderson's edition of Schreiber's 'Atlas,' which has already been reviewed in these columns. These two books ought to be in the library of every classical school, and they will usually be sufficient for all except advanced students of old Greek life.

Goethe's Faust. By Kuno Fischer. Translated and published by Harry Riggs Wolcott. Vol. I. Faust Literature before Goethe. Manchester, Iowa. 1895.

Prof. Fischer's lectures on "Faust," which were delivered about twenty years ago in Goethe's native city, were first published in 1878. In 1887 they were republished with extensive additions, and five years later a third edition brought the work up to date. The present translation, which is, we believe, the first into English, has been made from the text of the last edition. It comprises only the first ten chapters, which deal with the Faust literature prior to Goethe; the second and more important volume, on 'The Origin, Idea, and Composition of Goethe's Faust,' is promised for the end of the year. To English students it will be an invaluable aid.

In the first volume the Christian magus legends of the early centuries are discussed, chiefly in the interest of scholarly completeness, under the representative names of Simon the Sorcerer, Cyprian of Antioch, and Theophilus. The various Faust traditions of Germany are treated with illuminating fulness, although, of course, the discovery at Carlsruhe of the Nuremberg "Faustgeschichten" of Rosshirt, which antedate even the oldest Faust book, is too recent to have received notice here. A chapter is devoted to Marlowe's "Faustus," the influence of which upon the dramatic treatment of the legend in Germany was of great poetic importance; it fixed the character of the opening scene. The volume closes with a discussion of Lessing's famous *Litteraturbrief*, No. xvii., and his fragment of "Faust." The peculiar aptitude of the German mind for this mediæval legend is everywhere apparent. Those who are impressed by numbers will be interested to learn that "Faust" has been dramatized 113 times, and that 41 of these dramas preceded Goethe's. It seems to have been the predestined form in which the soul of Germany was to find its highest poetic expression.

Sanity and moderation characterize Prof. Fischer's critical methods. He is of that small but cherished minority of Faust interpreters who preserve beneath the *talar* of scholarship their reasonableness and humanity. But he has been unable wholly to exclude controversial matter. He has given much patient or impatient study to Faust interpretations, and derives from them the same kind of entertainment that Goethe would have found, had he lived to read all the strange things which have been uttered in his name; but the pages devoted to an attack on Herman Grimm lead to nothing and are to be regretted. Nor do we think that Prof. Fischer has made out his case that the Faust book was in the nature of a Lutheran tract. Ridicule of the Pope was a coarse form of wit, common enough long before the Reformation; and Calderon, who cannot be accused of anti-clerical sentiments, puts disrespectful words into the mouth of one of Cyprian's lackeys in "El Mágico Prodigioso." Certainly it was not the purpose of the chap-book to laud the deeds of Dr. Faust even at the Vatican.

The translation is worthy of all praise. It is easy and idiomatic, and particularly felicitous in the rendering of catchwords and phrases into which the author has put a special significance. On page 116, "converted" is doubtless an intentional perversion of the playful impropriety of the original. On page 120, Faust is made to remove his entire leg, which in the chap-book is only a foot. The Hochschule at Erfurt is called a university, p. 126. The words of the prince at the Diet of Augsburg, page 144, are not accurately rendered. On page 152, by a slip of translation, the Faust fable is said to be founded on the puppet play, whereas, two pages below, Prof. Fischer's opinion is correctly stated: "The drama grew out of the chap-book." Finally, on page 161, the word "duel" unduly dignifies the tavern brawl in which Marlowe lost his life. That these should be the only slips which a careful reading has revealed, is a sufficient tribute to the excellence and accuracy of the translation. The second volume will not complete this admirable work unless it is furnished with a full index.

The Pianoforte Sonata: Its Origin and Development. By J. S. Shedlock. London: Methuen & Co.

The earliest known sonata for the clavier was written by the German Kuhnau and published

at Leipzig in 1695. The latest known sonata of importance ("Eroica") was written by the American E. A. MacDowell and published in the same city in 1895. Mr. Shedlock does not mention this last work, but he had no lack of material in two full centuries of sonata-composing for writing a book of 245 pages, which no student of composition can afford to ignore, and which is so admirably written that it will appeal even to the general reader who knows enough of music to be able to play a sonata.

Mr. Shedlock devotes one of his chapters to "The Sonata in England." Patriotism alone can excuse such a thing, but, on the other hand, it must be admitted that the best treatises on the sonata have been written in England, viz., the present book by Mr. Shedlock, and Dr. Hubert Parry's article in Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians.' In 'The Art of Music,' too, Dr. Parry has many excellent remarks on the sonata. His thorough familiarity with this branch of music (he has composed two sonatas himself) gives the more weight to the opinion expressed in the following sentence: "The aspect of pianoforte music in general seems to indicate that composers are agreed that the day for writing sonatas is past, and that forms of instrumental music must be more closely identified with the thoughts which are expressed in them."

Dr. Parry was by no means the first musician who expressed doubts as to the vitality and future of the sonata. Schumann wrote, as long ago as 1839, that "although from time to time fine specimens of the sonata species made their appearance, and probably would continue to do so, it seemed as if that form of composition had run its appointed course." He did, indeed, compose two sonatas himself, but his heart was not in this work as completely as when he wrote his shorter pieces in freer form, and the same may be said of Weber, Schubert, Chopin, and Rubinstein, as well as of the semi-classical Mendelssohn, whose four sonatas Mr. Shedlock simply ignores (twenty years ago this would have been a capital crime in England), and even of the reactionary Brahms, whose three sonatas are among his earliest works (op. 1, 2, and 5), wherefore it is doubtful, as Parry says, whether they represent his maturer convictions.

Liszt's original and inspired sonata in B minor stands by itself. Mr. Shedlock thinks the germ of it may be found in Beethoven's sonata in A flat, opus 110, and, after quoting Charles Soullier's opinion that "la sonate est morte avec le dix-huitième siècle qui en a tant produit," he asks, "Is Liszt's sonata a Phœnix rising from its ashes? Shall we be able to say, 'La sonate est morte! Vive la sonate'? Time will tell. Hitherto Liszt's work has not borne fruit." After all, this sonata is so different from other works called by the same term that the question is less of the survival of a species than of a name. It differs from other sonatas very much as Liszt's symphonic poems in one movement and arbitrarily varied tempo differ from the symphonies in four movements of arbitrarily prescribed tempo, or as Wagner's organically united music-dramas do from the old-fashioned mosaic of operatic arias.

Mr. Shedlock's attitude towards the sonata is revealed in this sentence: "The history of the last seventy years almost leads one to imagine that Beethoven was the last of the great sonata writers;" and he then proceeds to show, in what is by far the most valuable and interesting chapter in his book, how Beethoven varied in his attitude towards the sonata, so that he may be regarded at once as its master and its destroyer. Under an outward show of preserving classical formulæ, he was, in fact, almost as great an iconoclast as Wagner and Liszt. He did not slavishly copy the three-movement sonata of Haydn and Mozart, but wrote some of his works in four, six of them in two movements. Of two of these Mr. Shedlock frankly says: "The title of 'sonata' given by Beethoven to his op. 90 and op. 111 does not affect the music one jot; under any other name it would sound as well." Beethoven also abolished the repeat, a survival from the old dance movement in binary form, and in the sequence of keys, freedom of modulation, moderate use of full closes, etc., modified the old sonata rules; and Mr. Shedlock does not exaggerate when he closes his chapter on this composer with the words: "In Beethoven, so far as sonata and sonata form are concerned, we seem, as it were, to perceive the beginning of a period of decay"; and a few pages before this: "The process of evolution of the sonata was gradual; so also will be that of its dissolution."

While Mr. Shedlock devotes most of his space to the architectural or structural side of his subject, he does not ignore the poetic or emotional aspect. A musician once asked Mozart regarding the andante of one of his sonatas, and the composer replied that he "meant to make it exactly like Miss Rose"—a pretty girl who had won his admiration by her grace and amiability. "This was the picture to which he worked," says Mr. Shedlock. "One of Beethoven's finest sonatas, the C sharp minor, was inspired by a beautiful girl: a strong appeal to the emotions calls forth a composer's best powers." In another place he remarks: "Very many, probably the greater number, of Beethoven's sonatas rest upon some poetic basis." According to Schindler, the master at one time (1816) conceived the intention of indicating these poetic ideas definitely. He certainly took great pleasure in discussing this project, and it is to be regretted that he did not carry it out. Like the havoc he created with the rigid formulæ of the sonata species in his later works, it would have emphasized the fact that he was not so austerely "classical" as some of his admirers would make him, but that he showed in many of his works the modern romantic spirit which Wagner and Liszt were the first to point out and insist upon in their interpretations of them.

The Hill-Caves of Yucatan: A Search for Evidence of Man's Antiquity in the Caverns of Central America. By Henry C. Mercer. With seventy-four illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896.

THE expedition of which this volume is the outcome was made possible by the generosity of J. W. Corwith of Chicago, and was carried out under the auspices of the Department of Archæology of the University of Pennsylvania, of which institution Mr. Mercer is an officer. During the sixty days that these gentlemen, with their assistants, were at work in the field, they visited twenty-nine caves, in ten of which excavations were made. Of these ten, six are said to have yielded valuable and three decisive results.

Without going into particulars, it will be sufficient to say that these results are divisible into two classes, one of which is based upon the evidence found in the caves, while the other is deduced from the absence of all proof of a contradictory character. Thus, for example, basing his conclusion upon the similarity of the pottery and stone implements found in the caves to specimens in collections from the neighboring ruins, our author asserts (p. 176) that the cave visitors were identical with the Maya Indians who built the ruined cities of Chichenitza, Labna, and Uxmal; while, on the other hand, the absence from the different culture levels of the caves of all evidence of a civilization lower than the Mayas are known to have reached, is believed to justify the conclusion that no earlier inhabitant ever occupied this region, and that the culture of these cave people was not developed in Yucatan, but was brought by them from somewhere else, and in geologically recent times. To the first of these conclusions there can be no objections; and even those of the second class may be temporarily accepted, though in so far as they are drawn from negative evidence they can hardly be said to be final. This fact our author clearly perceives, for he tells us, p. 177, that "the discovery of an earlier culture-layer at a cave unvisited by us will upset the inference."

Aside from these results, it is of interest to note that, when manufacturing pottery, the Maya Indians of to-day use a rude wheel or disk, turning it with both feet, instead of with one, as is the custom with us. Whether this invention was "indigenous to America" is uncertain. Dr. Brinton, for linguistic reasons, thinks not; but the Bishop of Yucatan takes issue with him on the point, and Mr. Mercer tells us (p. 165) that while it would be difficult "to infer the ancient existence of such a slow-moving wheel from the shape and texture of the potsherds found in the caves," yet "in many the fairly even thickness, the superior regularity of the rims, and the parallelism of the surface scratchings suggest clay-turning upon the hand rather than the hand turning upon motionless clay." Archæologists will await with some interest the result of further investigations on this subject, as the existence of a potter's wheel in prehistoric America has hitherto been generally discredited.

The Far Eastern Question. By Valentine Chirol. Macmillan & Co. 1896. Pp. 196, with two maps and ten illustrations.

THESE studies, by a *Times* correspondent, set forth smoothly and succinctly, from a British standpoint, the conditions and problems, international and commercial, that present themselves since the convulsion of the Chino-Japanese war in the region now known as the Far East. Not so comprehensive as Mr. Norman's and Mr. Curzon's books (for Siam, Annam, and East Siberia are not treated), this volume supplements those in giving special attention to the commercial and industrial conditions and possibilities which have to be entirely reconsidered in view of such recent events as the foreigners' new privileges under the Treaty of Shimonoseki, the Russian diplomatic successes, the industrial encroachments of Japan, and the extreme depreciation of silver.

The chapters on these subjects are useful in their summary of events and in their suggestions. But for information about the political and moral condition of China, to which half the book is devoted, it is useless. The whole attitude of the writer is the "reportorial" one—the assumption that all one needs to do to know about anything is to go to the place and make some inquiries. This writer, for example, vouchsafes to pass judgment on Chinese morality, religion, and politics, to expound the history and traits of the nation, and to promulgate with repeated and severest emphasis a wholesale condemnation of the manner of life and thought among an entire people; and

on what basis? On the basis of a few months' sojourn in the open ports and Peking - nearly as satisfactory a source of information as a Chinese newspaper correspondent would find for writing about our people in the Chinese quarter of San Francisco. The preface alludes, forsooth, to the peculiar advantage of "studying" the questions "on the spot." This has the true "reportorial" ring; if you can only get "on the spot," you are certain to secure ample material for a good "write-up"—whether of a street-brawl or of a legal system, of an elopement or of the whole moral and political fabric of an empire. We have been treated of late to so many of these volitant surface-studies (of the West, of the South, of China, of the Orient—it matters not how great the survey, how deep the problems) that our senses are being dulled to the risk of it, and one cannot too often record a protest. The wise will understand that, for Chinese affairs at least, there are on record maturer views which alone it will be safe to trust.

Hunting in Many Lands: The Book of the Boone and Crockett Club. Edited by Theodore Roosevelt and George Bird Grinnell. New York: *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co. 1895.

THE second issue of the Boone and Crockett Club is somewhat of a disappointment. Hunting stories, unless well told, seldom have much interest for any but the narrator, or for those who have hunted the same game under similar circumstances. A bald statement of facts, such as the number of animals killed in a day, or a careful computation of the average number of shots needed to kill different kinds of game, makes very monotonous reading. There is so much in big-game hunting that appeals to every man, whether sportsman or not, so much in the silence of the woods and plains, in the observation and knowledge of game, in the picturesqueness of the companions of the hunt, and in all the small details that constitute outdoor life, that it seems a pity not to make more of them than has been done here. No doubt the task is difficult, and if overdone it were better not attempted. This very fault is noticeable in the article on "The Ascent of Chief Mountain," the style of which, though attractive, is better suited to some poetic Indian legend than to a nineteenth-century account of rugged mountain-climbing. Another criticism applies not only to this book, but to nearly all of its class. The old style of hunting story was exaggerated, boastful, ridiculous, yet thrilling. The present style is at the opposite extreme. Undoubtedly the habits of dangerous wild animals have changed—the fear of man has become part of their nature; but not a little of this change is due to the narrator. One notices an absence of detail, a belittling of danger, and seemingly a constant fear of telling a good story and being laughed at for it.

Still, notwithstanding some dreary wastes, 'Hunting in Many Lands' contains several readable articles. Among these may be mentioned "To the Gulf of Cortez," a most interesting description of a hunting trip in an obscure region, Lower California; "A Canadian Moose Hunt," which, with its series of mishaps, disappointments, and unexpected "red-letter days," reflects the bitter-sweet experience of many a big-game hunter. "Wolf-Hunting in Russia" reminds one in parts of 'The Jungle Book,' but leaves behind it a sense of disappointment, as if the tale might have been better told. The article on "Game Laws," and those concerning the protection of Yellowstone Park, are excellent and instructive, and are illustrated by some very attractive pictures. They are also important as showing that the Boone and Crockett Club is really accomplishing something of value, not only to sportsmen, but to the whole country—the protection of game, and incidentally the protection and preservation of its haunts and breeding grounds.

The Sentences of Publilius Syrus. Edited by R. A. H. Bickford-Smith. Cambridge, (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. Pp. lxii, 61.

THIS new edition of the 'Sentences' is, and honestly professes to be, a résumé of the labors of the Germans, W. Meyer, Woelfflin, Friedrich, etc., etc. The author, known in our younger days as "Publius," not "Publilius," is that mimographer whom Julius Cæsar patronized for the sake of discrediting Laberius, to whom Publilius was already a dangerous rival—only inferior, perhaps, in not being a Roman knight. It is not possible to determine which of these sentences belong to Publilius, as only a small fraction are proved to be his by having been quoted as such in antiquity. Those given in this edition are selected from various mediæval collections, where they are found mixed up with wise saws in prose and verse from other authors, the whole being ascribed to Seneca; and this confusion is only worse confounded by their partly alphabetical arrangement under the initial letter of the first word in each.

It is a great pity that we cannot fully identify what belongs to Publilius, and that we have no more of the context with the verses possessing a distinctly proverbial character. We should in that case enjoy an opportunity to compare the Roman mime with the relics of the Greek mime which we possess in the remains of Herondas, in some idyls of Theocritus, and in other fragments of like character.

There is no easier road to poetic immortality than to write *quotable* poetry—that is, poetry in which clear-cut thoughts and tersely stated maxims shape themselves into one or two complete verses easily memorized and long retained. It is probably the great success of this trick at the hands of the mimographers of the Augustan age that is chiefly responsible for the labored and tiresome pursuit of such "sententiæ" by the poets and rhetoricians of the silver age. Nor did the taste for them soon pass away. In the dark ages, when readers were few and literary taste well-nigh extinct, when most of the great classics were sleeping semi-millennial slumbers in neglected corners of conventual libraries, the most popular books were stupid abridgments of ancient authors which would now be regarded as beneath contempt. Among these a collection of quotable maxims and proverbial sayings might well pass for the best sort of literature. This explains the curious fact that, while some of the greatest works of antiquity have come down to us in one or two manuscripts only, we have these 'Sentences' in no less than forty-four. Nor did the popularity of these "familiar quotations" end with the revival of learning. Since the discovery of printing there have been at least 276 separate editions of them, without reckoning reprints; and the maxims have been used and appropriated by moralists and other writers of all lands, by La Bruyère, by Calderon, by Metastasio, etc., etc.

The present editor, who modestly, if truly, calls himself an amateur, has selected judiciously from his German authorities. It is not, we presume, from that source that proceeds the curious inaccuracy on page 13, where the verse "cuivis potest accidere quod cuiquam potest" is twice quoted with the substitution of "cuius" for "cuivis." The English reader may be grateful to Mr. Bickford Smith for a satisfactory presentation of the "Sententiae" and their bibliography, and for an original Index Verborum (a very necessary addition to such a book) which leaves nothing to be desired, unless it be a classificatory index of the maxims by subjects, which some readers will miss.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Altsheler, J. A. The Rainbow of Gold. Home Book Co.
Anderson, Mary. A Few Memories. Harpers. $2.50.
Andreis, Rev. J. Z. The Christian at Mass. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co. $1.
Appleton, Robert. And it Came to Pass. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Bailey, W. H. The Detective Faculty. Illustrated from Judicial Records and Experience. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Bloomer, D. C. Life and Writings of Amelia Bloomer. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Carleton, William. Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry. Vol. II. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Channing, Prof. Edward. The United States of America. 1765-1865. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chester, Prof. A. H. A Dictionary of the Names of Minerals. John Wiley & Sons. $3.50.
Ellis, E. S. The People's Standard History of the United States. Parts 1-4. Woolfall Co. Each 50c.
Fisher, Prof. G. P. History of Christian Doctrine. Scribners. $2 50.
Franay, Gabriel. Mlle. Huguette. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Frederic, Harold. The Damnation of Theron Ware. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Fulton, John. Memoirs of Frederick A. P. Barnard. Macmillan. $4.
Geyer, F. P. The Holmes-Pitezel Case. Philadelphia: P. W. Ziegler & Co.
Gilbert, Prof. G. H. The Student's Life of Jesus. Chicago: Chicago Theological Seminary.
Ginn, Edward. Selections from Epictetus. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50c.
Goodwin, Maud W. Dolly Madison. Scribners. $1.25.
Green, J. L. Allotments and Small Holdings. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Greenhill, W. A. Sir Thomas Browne's Hydrotaphia and the Garden of Cyrus. Macmillan. $1.
Grenfell, B. P. Greek Papyri, chiefly Ptolemaic. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Guiness, H. G. Creation Centred in Christ. Armstrong. $2.50.
Gummere, Prof. F. B. Shakspere's Merchant of Venice. Longmans, Green & Co. 60c.
Gunter, A. C. Her Senator. Home Publishing Co. 50c.
Hartmann, Dr. J. God and Sin in the Appetites. Truth Seeker Co. 50c.
Hibben, Prof. J. G. Inductive Logic. Scribners. $1.50.
Hobhouse, L. J. The Theory of Knowledge. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $4.30.
Hofer, E. The School of Politics: The American Primary System. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25c.
Hoffmann, E. T. W. Weird Tales. 2 vols. Scribners. $2.50.
Holland, Clive. The Lure of Fame. New Amsterdam Book Co.
Howells, W. D. A Parting and a Meeting. Harpers.
Hubbard, H. S. Beyond. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Hume, M. A. S. The Courtships of Queen Elizabeth. London: Unwin; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Jewett, Sophie. The Pilgrim, and Other Poems. Macmillan. $1.25.
Jókai, Maurus. Pretty Michal. Rand, McNally & Co.
Kenyon, F. G. The Brownings for the Young. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 40c.
King, Capt. Charles. Trumpeter Fred: A Story of the Plains. F. T. Neely.
Kovalevsky, Sonja. Vera Vorontzoff. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Lanahan, Rev. John. The Era of Frauds in the Methodist Book Concern. Baltimore: Methodist Book Depository. $1.
Lea, H. C. A History of Auricular Confession and Indulgences in the Latin Church. Vol. II. Confession and Absolution. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. $3.
Lecky, W. E. H. Democracy and Liberty. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Le Chien de Brisquet, and Other Stories. Edited for School Use. American Book Co. 35c.
Lewis, E. C. A History of the American Tariff. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25c.
Locker-Lampson. My Confidences. Scribners. $5.
Lockyer, J. N., and Rutherford, W. The Rules of Golf. Macmillan. 75c.
Morillot, P. Lesage. [Pages Choisies des Grands Écrivains.] Paris: Colin & Cie.
Nietzsche, Friedrich. Works. Vol. XI. The Case of Wagner. Macmillan. $2.
On Sermon Preparation: Recollections and Suggestions. Macmillan. $1.
Pattee, Prof. F. L. A History of American Literature. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.50.
Peter, Dr. John, and Miss Johannah. Transylvania University: Its Origin, Rise, Decline, and Fall. [Filson Club Publication.] Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.
Rogers, Horatio. Mary Dyer of Rhode Island, the Quaker Martyr. Providence: Preston & Rounds. $1.
Rutherford, Mark. Clara Hopgood. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Smith, Prof. G. A. The Book of the Twelve Prophets, commonly called Minor. Vol. I. Armstrong. $1.50.
Tallman, G. W. Tom's Wife. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
The Earl's Granddaughter. Boston: A. I. Bradley & Co.
The Sixteenth Amendment. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
The Story of New Sweden. Portland, Me.: Loring, Short & Harmon.
Waugh, Arthur. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. New ed. Vol. I. Scribners. $2.50.
Wendell, Barrett, The Duchess Emilia. Rankell's Remains. New ed. Scribners. Each $1.
Wülker, Prof. Richard. Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur von den ältesten Zeiten bis zur Gegenwart. Heft 1. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1896.

The Week.

THE most hopeful development of the canvass for the Republican Presidential nomination is the presentation of Speaker Reed by the Maine convention upon a gold platform. That the Republicans of New York should declare clearly for sound money as they did last month was a foregone conclusion, and consequently their action did not materially affect the development of opinion in the party on this question. But the case of Maine is altogether different. Two years ago the Republicans of that State yielded to the temptation of a shuffling deliverance in favor of "bimetallism," the financial plank in the platform of 1894 declaring for "a financial policy not in favor of monometallism, either of gold or silver, as the basis of a financial system, but international bimetallism, to be secured by strenuous efforts of the national power." Mr. Reed was already then an aspirant for the Presidential nomination in 1896, and this platform of 1894 showed that his managers thought the road to that nomination lay along the path of silence regarding free coinage, and compromise regarding bimetallism. It is therefore an immense gain to find the party in his State this year adopting a platform which, of course, he framed, and which declares that "he is opposed to the free and unlimited coinage of silver, except by international agreement; and until such agreement can be obtained, he believes the present gold standard should be maintained."

We greatly mistake the temper of the public mind if Mr. Reed's declaration against free coinage and in favor of maintaining the gold standard does not give a great impetus to the movement for his nomination. He has labored thus far in the canvass under the misfortune of not standing for anything in particular, while Mr. McKinley represents the principle of protection. But the principle of sound money, and of the maintenance of the gold standard as essential thereto, is vastly more important than any question of tariffs. Moreover, the country is coming to recognize this fact, and Republicans everywhere outside the silver States are growing more insistent upon a clear statement of the party's attitude. Both the New Jersey and Kentucky conventions on Thursday declared for the gold standard. Even in North Dakota the silver craze has subsided, and the Republican convention on April 15 adopted a resolution squarely opposing free coinage "until it can be arranged by international agreement." Public opinion seems now in the mood in which a determined effort by the business men in the Republican party can avert the threatened danger of the nomination at St. Louis of a man whose character and record on the financial question would, in case of his election, throw doubt upon the maintenance of the gold standard.

If the country wants a President who doesn't know his own mind about the currency, and is only sure that, if he were given a chance to carry out his ideas, he shouldn't know how on earth to do it, Morrison of Illinois is just the man. His open bid for the Democratic nomination is frankly made on a platform of cheerful idiocy. There are a great many puzzling things about this currency business, he sagely remarks. If we go to the silver basis, we shall only have less money of a worse kind, but if we stay by gold, we can easily see that "the property of the financially weak will pass to the strong." For his part, Morrison would like to take a middle path—that is, take to the woods; but "if you are going to ask me how this is to be done, I say frankly I do not see the way."

The Democrats of Missouri held on April 15 their State convention for the choice of delegates to the national convention at Chicago next July. The interest of the gathering centred in its position regarding the silver issue. The result was an overwhelming victory for the advocates of free coinage. They not only put their plank in the platform, but they carried, by a vote of 530 to 5, a resolution instructing their delegates to the national convention to refuse to vote for any person for temporary chairman of that convention who is not a pronounced advocate of the free coinage of silver at 16 to 1, and then, to cap the climax, by a rising vote they put in nomination as their candidate for the Presidency at Chicago next July "Silver Dick" Bland. The sound-money men in the Democratic party should take warning from this action of the Missouri convention. It shows that they must immediately organize their forces and fight for the control of every State convention, or they will find, when they reach Chicago next July, that the majority of the delegates have been elected upon platforms declaring for free coinage. Four conventions have now been held, all of them in States beyond the Mississippi. The success of the silverites in Oregon, Washington, and Colorado was not surprising and is not discouraging. But this cannot be said of the free-coinage vote in the Missouri convention, and the presentation of the wildest silver lunatic in the Union as that State's "favorite son." The friends of sound money were not prepared for so great a defeat.

Secretary Carlisle's address before the Chicago workingmen on April 15 is a good specimen of the kind of argument that should be heard in every part of the country, if we are ever to get a sound currency. With his customary clearness and pungency he illustrated the old truth that the laborer is the first man to be hurt by a depreciated currency and the last man to adjust himself to it. Especially skilful was his turning the flank of the latest silver onset—the Oriental bogy. We cannot long compete with China and Japan, say the silverites, unless we go to the silver basis. They are underselling us now, and will do so more extensively every year unless we get off this terrible gold standard. Workingmen ought to understand that they will soon be out of a job if something is not speedily done for silver. Mr. Carlisle's answer is crushing. Speaking solely from the standpoint of the laboring man, he affirms truly that this is but a thinly disguised proposition to reduce wages one-half. In other words, in order to compete with Japan, the Philadelphia bimetallists say we must pay only Japanese wages. Of course they do not say this openly; they talk learnedly of an international par of exchange and a broader standard of value; but what their proposals really mean is payment of wages in currency depreciated one-half. If it is necessary to reduce wages one-half, the reduction might better be endured on the gold standard. Then a man would at least know what he had got, what his wages would buy; but his silver pay would fluctuate from day to day. This argument knocks all the remaining stuffing out of the Oriental bogy.

Mr. Edward H. Van Ingen has continued his pursuit of the newspapers which published his name in connection with the familiar Cobden Club lie in the campaign of 1892 until he has brought all the chief offenders to the point of retraction. It will be remembered that on the evening before and the morning of the last Presidential election, the Republican press of this country published, under flaring headlines, a statement that Mr. Van Ingen, as an American merchant, had brought home a corruption fund of half a million dollars from the Cobden Club to be used in buying votes for Cleveland. Mr. Van Ingen brought suit against Dalziel's news agency in London for sending the story, and it was compromised by the payment by Dalziel of 200 guineas and costs, amounting to $4,800. He also sued the *Mail and Express* and the *Recorder* of this city, and obtained a verdict against the former of $4,000 and costs and one against the latter of $1,000 and costs. The *Press* also printed the story. It now publishes the confession of Dalziel that "no such fund ever existed, and the re-

port was entirely unfounded," and adds that, "as this completely exonerates Mr. Van Ingen, it only remains for us to express our regret at having published such false and unfounded charges." The *Press* further pays $3,000 and costs rather than have the case go to trial. We may now reasonably hope to escape the Cobden Club lie in all its forms this year.

The poor Hawaiians must rub their eyes as they read one Republican platform after another and find not a word about their rights, their heroism, their chastity, their coming annexation. In Massachusetts there was a mild affirmation that we should retain "our influence" in Hawaii, yet not a whisper about annexation. But Maine is absolutely dumb about the glorious little republic, soon to be a State in the American Union. This is a very Brutus-blow, as Maine was the most fervent and furious champion of annexation only two short years ago. If the State of Stephens and Blaine and Hale and Boutelle has forsaken the Hawaiians, who will take them up? There is evidence, moreover, that the blow was deliberate and long preparing. The *Hawaiian Gazette* of March 31 published an extract from "a private letter" from Senator Hale, in which he told his anxious and puzzled correspondent that "annexation must wait for a while." But are not three years "a while"? And if annexation is to be left out of this year's State and national platforms, when will it get in, and where? The Hawaiians are slowly learning the sad truth that the Republicans never really cared a pin's worth for them. They temporarily were a fine theme for patriots to roar about, but have been lost sight of altogether in view of the much bigger game that has since been started.

The Senate took happy advantage of Senator Morgan's absence on Wednesday week to ratify the treaty between Great Britain and the United States providing for a commission to determine the damages we must pay for illegal seizures in the Bering Sea. Morgan had intimated a desire to oppose or seriously amend the treaty, and to submit a few more remarks of his cheerful kind extending over a week or two. But a not very mysterious dispensation of Providence has confined him to his house with illness, and the Senate unanimously jumped at the chance to ratify the treaty. This will save our reputation for fair dealing in the matter. As a matter of economy, it would doubtless have been money in our pocket if the last Congress had voted the $425,000 agreed upon by Secretary Gresham and Sir Julian Pauncefote. Damages and expenses under the commission plan are likely to amount to twice that sum; but we have had a good deal of fun blustering and making faces, which is surely worth the difference.

Why does not some one, at some of the colleges, lecture and publish concerning the disappearance of the old form of popular government in the State of New York? We are not indulging in the language of exaggeration or of political invective when we say that very little remains of the old Constitution as redrafted in 1846, and amended in 1864, 1869, 1874, and 1894. In the first place, both the Governor and Legislature, as provided for by that instrument, have practically disappeared as bodies responsible to the people. Neither of them pays undivided attention, and the Legislature pays none whatever, to public opinion as usually expressed in civilized states through their intelligent classes. What they will do touching any measure is not to be ascertained by intercourse with them, and is rarely known to themselves beforehand. The practice of debating, too, for which both houses are organized, and which is presumed as part of their business, has virtually ceased, or is reduced to personal altercation. The intention of the framers of the Constitution, evidently, was that the objection of the mayor of a city to any legislation affecting it should be weighed before its second passage, but that provision has been wholly disregarded. The mayor's veto now simply means a delay of one fortnight, and his opinions on city legislation have no sort of consequence. The Constitution also provided that State offices should be distributed through competitive examination, but it had no sooner been adopted by popular vote than the leading State officers laid their heads together and devised a plan for filling the offices without competitive examination. The Comptroller, too, is a State officer elected for two years, whose duty it is to see that nobody receives money from the State who is not legally entitled to it. The Legislature, now acting under instructions, talks of taking this power from him by enactment, and giving the State money to anybody it pleases. Various other changes have taken place, the most important of which is the lodging in the hands of one man not in office, and therefore not responsible to the people, the whole patronage of the State, and the control of all State legislation, which is in itself a virtual change in the nature of the government. As far as our knowledge goes, these changes are all ignored in the colleges and law schools of the country, as well as in the text-books. The professors and writers keep on talking as if they had not occurred, and as if New York were still governed mainly in the same manner as in 1846.

The Greater New York bill was "jammed through" the Senate on April 15, but with a loss of Republican support, which shows what the measure is costing the party. When it first passed the Senate, only four Republicans voted against it. Finally, this number was increased to eleven, leaving the measure three votes short of the necessary majority. It was saved from defeat by the solid support of the Tammany Senators, who, under Cantor's lead, joined hands with the Platt machine, thus giving indubitable evidence of the Platt-Tammany combine which is behind the bill, and which hopes to make it the first step toward capturing the governments of New York and Brooklyn for an indefinite period by means of bi-partisan Platt-Tammany commissions. It is not surprising that eleven Republican Senators should shrink from the responsibility of placing a burden like this upon their party. At this writing it is very uncertain what the fate of the bill will be in the Assembly. No less than thirty-six Republicans refused to vote for it on its first passage, and if the percentage of increase be as large in that body as it was in the Senate, the bill will fail, even though Tammany gives it solid support.

We doubt if anything quite equal to the proceedings at Tom Platt's rooms in the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Sunday ever occurred in this country. The government of the State was really in operation there. "The callers," says a friendly chronicler, "went in pairs and in threes, and at one time nearly every leading member of the Legislature was in Platt's rooms." The purpose of the convocation was to consider the Greater New York bill. The boss had returned from Florida with the determination of "jamming through" the bill, which was in danger of failing in the Assembly. Congressman Odell, a Republican candidate for the governorship, had been at Albany last week opposing the bill. He called on Platt, and, when his interview was over, declared that his opposition had been merely personal, that he "had always had the highest regard for Mr. Platt," and let it be known that he should not oppose the bill further. Mr. Odell had been through the process known as being "hauled off." He will be a docile Platt dummy now, and, if he makes no more "breaks," the boss may let him run for the governorship. Before Mr. Odell was disposed of, the "leading members" of the Legislature held an executive session of two hours' duration with the boss, and, when that was over, the boss announced: "The Greater New York bill will be passed and Gov. Morton will sign it. It will be passed when we determine to pass it, this week or next week, but it will be passed. Of that there is not the slightest doubt." All the deputy bosses echoed the great man's words, and went about the corridors of the hotel assuring everybody that the bill was "sure to pass." Fish felt so sure of it that he said no caucus would be held. In fact, the caucus had been held, and the legislating for the week to come had all been done in advance.

Our Jingoes must not suppose that war as a national tonic can be reserved exclu-

sively for their own use. The people they want to fight may insist upon sharing the inspiring draught. Here, for example, is a Spanish writer hinting that all that Spain needs to arouse her from her prostrate condition, and to give her a place again among the great nations of the world, is a jolly good war with the United States. This sentiment is expressed in a pamphlet published recently in Madrid, 'The United States against Spain. By an Optimist.' The optimist is supposed to be Valera. Anyhow, he is some one who knows the United States. He is perfectly aware that the fierce and ignorant outcries against Spain have not come from the American people; they are traceable to reckless politicians and a still more reckless press. Hence, he argues, let the Spanish people be patient, considering the ignoble source of the insults, and expect the good sense and love of justice of the United States to make themselves felt in the end. But if war must come, he concludes, let us think of it as a "salutary crisis," as something that will sink all our differences, make our politics pure and noble, and leave us fronting the world, "all Spaniards." Valera has a fine turn for sarcasm, and he seems here to be making excellent fun of our youthful regenerators by war.

The news from Africa is disquieting. The continuance of the alarm, and the dispatch of fresh troops to Africa, show that a rose-colored view of affairs there is not tenable. Mr. Chamberlain has given notice to President Krüger of the dispatch of the troops, with an explanatory note, which is evidently necessary in order to avoid arousing the old man's suspicions. He does not come to London, and is said to be holding off in order to secure eventually the abrogation of that article of the convention which makes the approval of Great Britain necessary to the validity of any treaty between the Transvaal and any foreign Power. The Boers are said to be very restless under this, so satisfied are they of their power to face Great Britain single-handed. The Transvaal, it is said, has formed an alliance with the other Dutch state, the Orange Free State, and between the two they profess to be able to put 40,000 men in the field, which in a country like Africa is a formidable force, and could be subdued only after a long and bloody conflict, which would, however it ended, leave behind endless hates between the two races, and make the work of government increasingly difficult. It is not believed that war would elevate the character of the Boers and Englishmen. It is noticeable that the tide of Mr. Chamberlain's popularity has begun to slacken a little. The Jameson outbreak was a godsend to him, as his skilful management of it postponed a little longer his grand plan of a Zollverein with the colonies. Should the African trouble be well settled, he must take up this scheme, of which the *Economist* speaks with open contempt, for in one breath he says the policy of free trade can never be abandoned by England, and in the next he proposes to abandon it for the benefit of the colonies.

The new land bill of Lord Salisbury's Government, remitting half the rates on the land and causing a deficit of $7,500,000 in the revenue, is likely to excite a storm of opposition. It is the first attempt to help the land by legislation since the repeal of the corn laws. It is now proved beyond question that the farmers were, down to 1846, completely humbugged on the question of the duties on corn, and that the high price of wheat in England from the close of the war in 1815 until the abolition of the duties, went not into the pockets of the farmers,but into the increase of rent, for the benefit of the landlords. The fight made for protection by the landed interest was, therefore, really a fight for higher rents. The landlords were, however, altogether disappointed as to the effect of the repeal of the corn laws on rent. Rents were never so high as between 1846 and 1876. The land profited prodigiously by the great stimulus to industry given by free trade, and it may be said that down to 1873 the lot of the English squire was one of the happiest on earth. Luxurious living in this class greatly increased. Land was a favorite investment, and marriage settlements were made on a very high scale. The great improvements in transportation made about that time brought the ends of the earth into competition with England. A fall in rents at once ensued, and in twenty years had ruined a large part of the landlords, lowered the price of land about one-half, and effected a radical change in English society. Things have, during the last five years, been going from bad to worse, and the present bill may really be called a measure of relief. It is likely to lead to revolt even in all the Tory boroughs. A large part of the county expenses, which are now taken from the poor-rates raised by the county authorities, are to be paid by the imperial treasury—that is, by other interests. Sir William Harcourt predicted that the time would come when the whole poor-rate would be paid in the same fashion if the Tories had their way.

With regard to the Irish land bill now before the House of Commons, it is to be observed that Irish land legislation began with the encumbered-estates act nearly fifty years ago, when the Irish farmers were not represented. It was then believed, as it is still believed, that English and Scotch members of the House knew better what was good for the Irish than the Irish themselves. Within twenty years it was acknowledged that this bill had not worked well, and that the Legislature had committed a radical mistake in overlooking the fact that, as a rule, all improvements on Irish farms were made by the farmers themselves, and that, therefore, the sale of these improvements under the act as the property of the landlord was a gross wrong and injustice. A Parliamentary title—that is, a title against all the world—was, however, given with each sale. In 1870 this title was disregarded and a new Irish land act was passed, in which the interest of the farmer in the estate thus purchased under a Parliamentary title was disregarded. This is now twenty-five years ago, and it is a solemn and suggestive truth that every Parliament since then, both Whig and Tory, has been occupied mainly with the Irish land question, each party in turn being either promoters or opposers of legislation thereanent. The Tories have brought in bills nearly as often as the Liberals, and the former have adopted and are acting on doctrines which they have pronounced immoral and detestable. Each bill, too, has, as a rule, been brought in by an Englishman who has not been in Ireland at all, or has been there only once, and he denounces its opponents on each occasion as public thieves. There is hardly a doubt that no Irish Parliament, however composed, would in 1850 have gone as far as the House of Commons will in 1896, if it passes Mr. Gerald Balfour's bill.

Recent events in Bulgaria and in Turkey have not, perhaps, received, either in America or in Europe, the attention which they deserve. Our ears have been filled with booms and the noise of Congress. In Europe the affairs of the Transvaal and the English advance toward the Sudan have been uppermost in the newspapers and in the minds of the public. Yet, during this time, the dynasty of Ferdinand of Bulgaria seems to have settled down, or almost to have settled down, upon a solid base. The "conversion" of Prince Boris—a religious incident inadequately described by the word *bouffe*—brought in its train, first, recognition of Ferdinand by Russia and afterward by the Powers, and then his very significant visit to his suzerain, the Sultan. The etiquette of this visit was arranged beforehand in long negotiations. He was given the rank of a sovereign prince. He took precedence even of the Grand Vizier. An imperial palace was allotted to him, and he received the title of Imperial Highness, as if he were a prince of the blood. The Sultan, in fact, lavished on him the most distinguished honors in his gift. He was received like the Prodigal Son. And all this, apparently, because Ferdinand has made his peace with Russia, and because the one man who might have made Bulgaria a nation has been murdered. What the ultimate future of Bulgaria may be, no man can now say; but it is apparent that on her immediate future a seal has been set during these last few weeks.

ENGLAND ON HER KNEES.

We hope our more eminent bimetallists, and especially President Andrews of Brown University, will read carefully the statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in Parliament on Thursday last. He will there see, as we pointed out to him at the time, how foolish was his talk of "bringing England to her knees" through his own little scheme over two years ago. He will see, too, how foolish was the talk of a good many of his congeners throughout the land who maintained that monometallism was bringing England to her ruin; that if she maintained her reliance on gold, collapse of her financial system was certain. Happily, all through this difficult period her finances have remained in the hands of business men who understood currency and exchange. There never has been any more chance of her changing her standard than of her adopting the Julian calendar. Nothing in the whole discussion has been so droll, and yet so melancholy to those who understood the English mind and polity, as the belief that she would change her standard because Mr. Balfour and some of the professors were bimetallists, because Moreton Frewen said America was unanimous for bimetallism, and because Senator Lodge thought her unkind to silver. All these antics on our side of the water have simply made Englishmen smile.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer says the Treasury was never so full. Consols were never higher, though the interest has been reduced one-half within a century. The deposits in savings banks have never been so great; the deposits in other banks were never so large. The production of gold has never been so great. The bullion reserve in the Bank of England was never so large. The revenue receipts have exceeded the expenditures. "Everything has an upward tendency." The exports, imports, railway earnings, and clearing-house returns all show a great expansion of business. The revenue from wines, spirits, and tobacco and tea has increased. Every class of the community is flourishing except the agriculturists, who, there as here, have now to compete with better soils and climates in all parts of the earth.

This ought to be astonishing reading for an American. We have nearly double the population of Great Britain. We have an immensely greater area of soil; we have far richer resources in coal and iron and other metals. We have a government which we maintain is much better, or at all events dearer to the people who live under it, than the government of Great Britain. We have no army; we have next to no navy. We have no colonies or dependencies. We have little public debt. Yet we are not happy. Wails over the badness of business meet one's eye in every newspaper. We have to borrow money every quarter to keep our paper at par. The success of the loan is received with shouts of triumph, though, while it is being raised, every business man holds his breath. At this moment nearly every man of instruction and ability in the country is working, with great anxiety, to prevent the election of a President and Congress who shall declare fifty cents to be worth a dollar, and abolish the gold standard. The receipts fall below the expenditures. Debts contracted in the war, thirty years ago, remain unpaid. The principal commercial city in the Union is governed by a system of blackmail, carried on by a parcel of ignorant and penniless adventurers from various parts of the Union, who do not conceal their contempt for the population which submits to them.

Now what causes this difference? Nothing material. Our population and resources are, as we have shown, far greater than those of England. Our government, on paper, is as good or better. The difference arises out of the fact that common sense still presides over English affairs. Were our Congress and legislatures to take charge of England to-morrow, by the 1st of December the Treasury would be empty, the Queen would have taken refuge in Berlin, India would have risen in revolt, specie payments would have been suspended, and a bloody war would have commenced with the principal Powers of Europe. All this has been prevented, and public affairs go as smoothly in England as private affairs do in this country, simply by maintaining the supremacy of common sense, which is supplied in this country, unhappily in too small quantities, only by the Constitution. They are not desperately wrong who maintain that we should be better off to-day if governed exclusively by constitutional conventions, meeting only once in ten years.

In England, currency and finance are left by general consent to experts, to men who have given attention to such subjects, or are engaged in the management of currency. A few metaphysicians, or professors, or cranks may proclaim the near approach of ruin if some scheme of theirs be not adopted, but few mind them. They make their little speeches, print their little pamphlets, but the great world of business goes on its way. There are no "gold-bugs" in England. The poorest man is as much interested as Lord Rothschild in having the gold sovereign's quality as a measure of value preserved intact. The idea of submitting currency to a vote at a general election enters no one's head. When the Chancellor of the Exchequer says he will not have a thing, that ends the matter. The ablest men in all branches are still, as a rule, put at the head of affairs for the general good. In London, instead of a commission giving each other the lie for political reasons, the police is governed in silence, order, and admirable discipline by a one-armed Indian officer, whom no one ever dreams of interfering with. This means simply the reign of common sense. It means the application to public affairs of the individual prudence and foresight which make our private affairs a success. It is as much within our reach as the reach of Englishmen. The use of it during the last thirty years would have given us by this time sound finance, light taxation, and a roaring trade. The Mikes, Jakes, and Barneys, instead of ruling us, would be in the almshouse or the jail. The American dollar would be as famous the world over as the English pound.

The fun of it is that we can have this state of things any day we please, and there is evidence on all sides that the great prosperity of England, as set forth in the Chancellor's budget speech, is having a profound effect on what we may call without disrespect second-rate business men in this country. First-rate business men have long been aware of the good trade in England for the last year; but merchants and bankers whose interests and whose views are local and narrow, have known nothing of this. Now they have had the facts thrust upon them in this forcible way, and are set profitably wondering about the causes. England has so long been a sort of hobgoblin in this country, an example mainly of the things to avoid, that it is hard to confess that she is showing us how to do it. But if she is really showing us, and if the good times which she is enjoying do not, for some reason or other, take their way to us as they so often have done in the past, the determination to find out what that reason is and remove it, cannot but strengthen among sensible men. Bismarck said that he wanted the French republic to continue, instead of a monarchical restoration, inasmuch as the republic was a very "salutary hobgoblin" for Germans to gaze upon. The great English surplus and quickened trade and commerce constitute just now a most salutary hobgoblin for Americans.

THE ROAD TO VICTORY.

The first essential to the restoration of prosperity in the United States is assurance of the stability of the currency. Such assurance has not existed for years. The lack of it was the chief cause of the panic of 1893, and continues the main reason for the prolongation of the business depression. What threatens the stability of the currency is the demand of a large fraction of the voters for the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, which would involve the substitution of the silver standard for the gold one; and the readiness of prominent politicians in each party, including the leading Republican candidate for the Presidency, to compromise with this dishonest demand by favoring a "bimetallism" that is necessarily incompatible with the maintenance of the gold standard. The election as President of a man whose record makes such a platform the only one on which he could consistently stand, would mean four

years of constant apprehension as to the safety of our financial system.

The one sure way of averting this peril is the election of a man who can be trusted, upon a platform which pledges his party against free coinage and for the maintenance of the gold standard. Such a result would establish the credit of the nation beyond question, and this would of itself induce a period of great prosperity. Secretary Smith of the Interior Department has expressed the opinion that "the nomination and election by either party of a sound-money man, on a platform declaring briefly and clearly that the dollar of this country should consist of 25.8 grains of gold, and that no legislation should be undertaken to depreciate this dollar, would increase business values in the United States 25 per cent. at once." We believe that this is an underestimate of the good that would be accomplished.

During the summer of 1868, gold ranged at a premium of between 40 and 50. There was an active agitation for the payment of Government bonds in the depreciated greenback currency. Butler in the Republican party and Pendleton in the Democratic advocated the adoption of the policy. Pendleton carried his party with him, and secured the adoption of a platform by the Democratic national convention which declared that "where the obligations of the Government do not expressly state upon their face, or the law under which they were issued does not provide, that they shall be paid in coin, they ought, in right and in justice, to be paid in the lawful money of the United States"—meaning greenbacks, instead of gold, the only coin then current; demanded taxation of Government bonds; and raised the clap-trap cry of, "One currency for the Government and the people, the laborer and the office-holder, the pensioner and the soldier, the producer and the bondholder."

The Republicans snubbed Butler, and nominated Grant upon a platform which contained this clear and explicit declaration in favor of paying the bonds in gold:

> "We denounce all forms of repudiation as a national crime; and the national honor requires the payment of the public indebtedness in the uttermost good faith to all creditors at home and abroad, not only according to the letter, but the spirit, of the laws under which it was contracted."

Although Seymour, whom the Democrats nominated, did not believe in the greenback policy, he "stood upon the platform," and declared, in accepting the nomination, that "the resolutions are in accord with my views." The issue therefore entered into the canvass, and resulted in a strong movement by business men to defeat the Democrats on this ground. Only New York and New Jersey of all the Northern States were returned for Seymour, and his majority in the latter was small, while the count of New York for him has always been considered fraudulent by many.

The first act passed by Congress a fortnight after Grant's inauguration in March, 1869, was "An Act to strengthen the public credit of the United States," which redeemed the pledge of the Republican platform by declaring that "the faith of the United States is solemnly pledged to the payment in coin or its equivalent of all the obligations of the United States not bearing interest, known as United States notes, and of all the interest-bearing obligations of the United States, except in cases where the law authorizing the issue of any such obligation has expressly provided that the same may be paid in lawful money or other currency than gold and silver"; and that "the United States also solemnly pledges its faith to make provision at the earliest practicable period for the redemption of the United States notes in coin."

The consequences of this victory for sound money were immediate and lasting. The premium on gold, which had ranged between 40 and 50 during the summer before the Presidential election, fell to an average of below 35 in the month after that election occurred, and was down to 13 within a year after Grant's inauguration; while specie payments were resumed only ten years later. The Republican party (no less than the country) found that honesty was the best policy in a series of great victories, while the Democratic party has not to this day fully recovered from the discredit brought upon it by its tenderness towards repudiation nearly thirty years ago.

The Republicans can make history repeat itself this year. Bland, as a later Pendleton, will go to the national Democratic convention as the advocate of free silver coinage, and will have a large portion of his party with him in this later movement for repudiation. The masses of the Republican party are sound on this issue. They are sick of "straddles" and "dodges." They are tired of the deceptive talk about "bimetallism." They are ready to welcome as clear and emphatic a declaration for national honesty as was adopted by their party in 1868. Upon such a declaration, and with a candidate who can be trusted upon this issue as implicitly as Grant showed that he could be trusted, the Republicans can sweep the country.

THE FUTURE OF THE CITY.

We do not need to wait for the passage or failure of the Consolidation bill to learn from it the objects of its promoters. The refusal to debate it on its merits, the aid extended to it by the Tammany members of the Legislature, the revelations of Lauterbach, and, though last, not least, the disregard of the vetoes of the two Mayors, all go to show that the improvement of the city government has nothing to do with the scheme. Its originators do not, in fact, deny that it is a plan for the creation of a large number of offices to be divided amicably between the two machines, Croker's and Platt's. Consequently, the observations of the Mayors and of President Low and others on the advantages of consolidation in the abstract were thrown away. Consolidation as a means of improvement of anything whatever is not in the minds of the projectors. Even the "public improvements" which some of them talk of would be simply contracts to be divided between the parties, as the contract for the new aqueduct was.

The last two Legislatures have been, in fact, the most barefaced we have ever had — worse much than Croker's, for Croker's was known to be composed in the main of malefactors, and we flattered ourselves that a change of parties would have given us relief. What has happened since 1884 has shown us that we were mistaken; that in this State at least, the old idea that the Republican party was that of intelligence and reform must be given up, and that we are face to face with a crisis in which neither of the old parties can be called on for redress. Our experience since 1884 shows us that the old device of punishing one party by turning it out and putting the other in power, is no longer available. Should we attempt to apply it next fall, as many undoubtedly will, we shall probably find that Platt and his followers have made such arrangements with Tammany that defeat will not trouble them in the least, and, whichever comes into power, the Republicans will get their share of the spoil. There is every sign now that Platt is very indifferent as to the effect of his measures on the voters, and that his secret support will be given in 1896, and in 1897 too, to the Tammany candidate. The part he is making Mr. Morton play in this programme is its most melancholy feature. There is not the smallest reason for believing that Platt cares in the least who is President if the division of offices in the State is satisfactory to him.

These things are all to be considered by those who are in 1897 to make one more effort to deliver the city. It is becoming clearer every day that, if the thing be done, it must be done by a municipal ticket, that no help is to be expected from the politicians of either party, and that if it fails badly it will probably not be repeated in our time. The "Presidential year" is being successfully used by Platt to strengthen his own power, as the failure of the "Better Element" movement shows. Still, the separate election in 1897 will demonstrate how much there is in the city of real patriotism. But it is not a minute too soon to begin to think about it.

No one who thinks about it can avoid the conclusion that the use made by both parties of the cities of the State for their various "dickers," and the successful employment of men of low character as political leaders, are the result of great ignorance of city affairs on the part of the country constituencies. If one believed that the majority of the

voters really willed such assemblages as the present Legislature, and really willed with knowledge such measures as the Consolidation bill, one would have to give up completely all faith in democratic government. One would have to admit that the disappearance, even of its forms, was merely a matter of time. One goes on writing and speaking in the belief that people desire good government under republican forms, and that, with more reading and listening, they will finally determine to have it. But the misfortune of the present situation is that the city makes no impression on the country. As a rule, either the city press does not discuss things seriously, or its good faith is suspected. The news and comments of the great picture papers simply amuse people, and the real object of some of the others does not command respect. The country papers are as ignorant about city affairs as newspapers can well be, and the worldly success of the editors depends wholly on their devotion to the party. To quarrel with the Boss means for a country editor the loss of circulation, of advertisements, and of the small patronage through which the Boss keeps the country in good humor.

The situation is not unlike that which prevailed before the war with regard to the slavery question. That fight was largely won by the lecturers, and one of the greatest misfortunes of our time is their disappearance from the scene. We have, it is true, plenty of lecturers still, but they do not touch on questions of the day. They amuse and they gratify curiosity; but they do not attempt to influence opinion. The local paper has it all its own way. The lecturer in the old days, on the other hand, let light from the outer world into a great many places that would have remained dark; and he commanded a hearing not less by his eloquence as a speaker and a writer than by his superior knowledge. If we had people like Chapin, and Curtis, and Phillips, and Emerson, and Beecher going through the country clearing the popular mind on the subject of municipal government, international law, and currency, we should undoubtedly escape, sooner or later, such extraordinary phenomena as the result of our reform movement in this city, as the Jingo excitement after Cleveland's message, and as the nomination of a man like McKinley when the country is threatened with a monetary crisis. We mention these things because it would not be difficult to show that they are the product of pure ignorance. That the Northern mind was not easily aroused by slavery is shown by the fact that for fifty years it held its own in the Northern church and in Northern opinion, its pretensions increasing every year in extravagance, and its contempt for public opinion growing more conspicuous. Men like Platt were, in every State, all on its side. They were beaten by stronger forces than the country paper, and, in our opinion, something should be done to revive the agencies which forty years ago gave righteousness its victory.

ACTION AND INACTION IN EUROPE.

PARIS, April 9, 1896.

I REGULARLY read, always with much interest and pleasure, often with much admiration, what appears under the name of Leo Tolstoi, the famous author of 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina.' In the third number, which appeared in March, of a new review, *Cosmopolis*, which calls itself international, as it has three parts, written one in English, one in French, and one in German, there is a curious article by Tolstoi, entitled "Zola et Dumas: le Non-agir." It is written in answer to a speech delivered by Zola at the banquet of the General Association of Students, as well as to a letter written shortly before his death by Dumas to a French paper. Tolstoi treats these two documents as representative of the two fundamental forces which act on humanity—the force of routine, which keeps it on the road that it follows; the force of reason and of love, which inclines it towards a higher ideal.

It is rather amusing to find Zola treated as the representative of routine; and why? Because, in his speech to the students, he recommended them to work, and told them that work would make their life happy and cheerful and deliver them from "the torment of the infinite." Tolstoi takes the opposite view; he sees no peculiar virtue in work, and aims to prove that much of what goes under the name of work is bad and detrimental to humanity. His criticism of work is paradoxical, but very clever; to sum it up, he considers work, in our badly organized society, "as a sort of agent of moral anæsthesia, like tobacco, wine, and all our other means of stultifying ourselves so as to cover the disorder and emptiness of our existence." The "non-agir" which Tolstoi places in opposition to the "agir" recommended by Zola and generally by all moralists, economists, and even by poets, as in the beautiful line of Longfellow,

"Act, act in the living present,"

is an approach to the Buddhist *nirvana*. Tolstoi, however, does not go so far as to consider the cessation of thought and of conscience as the supreme object which we ought to try to attain; he begs us to think, to look round, and to consider love and charity as the most important affairs of our human existence. "Seek ye first the kingdom of God, and his righteousness, and all these things shall be added unto you."

My mind could not help, while I was reading this Tolstoian theory of "Work not," establishing a relation between it and the present policy of the Russian Government, which might be summed up in two words, "Act not." Russia's diplomacy has been left entirely of late in the hands of Prince Lobanoff, who has an intimate acquaintance with all the courts of Europe, as he has been ambassador in nearly all its capitals; he has become, if not nominally, in reality, a chancellor, a permanent Minister of Foreign Affairs. The late Czar was his own chancellor, but Nicholas II. is very young, and he has shown no desire so far to assume all the responsibilities of diplomacy himself. The policy of Prince Lobanoff has been what Sir James Mackintosh called "a masterly inactivity." Nobody knew better how little Russia had gained by the policy of action which culminated in the Turkish war and ended in the Congress of Berlin. Russia has now entirely changed her manner. She thinks no longer of making war on the "Sick Man"; she allows him time to die.

This policy of inaction has its source not only in the lessons given by the late Turkish war, but also in the events which took place after the war in Bulgaria. Russia had placed a nominee of her own in Sophia; she had organized and officered the Bulgarian army, and had thought her influence for ever paramount in the principality. But she subsequently lost her influence, at least in appearance. After the downfall of Prince Alexander of Battenberg, she saw with much displeasure the Government of Bulgaria fall into the hands of Prince Ferdinand of Coburg (whom she had every reason to consider a favorite of Austria) and of Stambuloff, who was the boldest adversary of Russian influence in the principality. She adopted towards Bulgaria an attitude of "non-activity"; she simply refused to recognize Prince Ferdinand, and she thus hindered his recognition by all the great Powers. For years, Prince Ferdinand tried in vain to conquer the sullen and silent resistance of the late Tsar; he never succeeded, and in the end he had to abandon the anti-Russian party, and, after the death of Stambuloff, he called to power the men who represented the moderate Russian party. It was not enough; we have since seen him making concession after concession to Russia. Young Prince Boris was converted to the orthodox church, and we hear now that a military convention has been proposed, if it is not already signed, between Russia and Bulgaria. This convention practically places Bulgaria, in time of war, in the hands of Russia, as, by its terms, Russian troops may land at Varna and occupy the principality. In this manner, the crossing of the Danube, always a most difficult occupation in front of an enemy, is avoided; what becomes, then, of the defences prepared with so much care and at so much expense by Rumania, which is a sort of vanguard of Austria in the East? It is plain that, by throwing himself into the arms of Russia, Prince Ferdinand has allowed Russia to extend, without a struggle, her sphere of influence in the direction of Constantinople and in the Balkan peninsula. Prince Ferdinand has found it easy to abandon the interests of Austria, which has helped powerfully to maintain him in Sophia during the last few years; he will not find it as easy to separate from Russia, if he ever chooses to do so. A natural attraction is exercised by the Russian orthodox church on the Bulgarian church; and so strong is it that Prince Ferdinand found himself obliged to convert his young son Boris to the national church, feeling that otherwise he would not obtain his own recognition by Russia. Edward Dicey has very well described the situation of what he calls the "peasant state," and, with his usual clearness of apperception, he has seen that the Prince could not be recognized without making great sacrifices to Russia. These sacrifices, which Stambuloff was not willing to make, are now completed, and Bulgaria may be considered as a mere vassal state.

These results have been obtained by Russia's waiting game. The same policy of inaction, of inertia, has given her for the present a paramount influence in Constantinople. It is certainly worthy of remark that, of all the great Powers, Russia, which once professed and which still professes to be the protector of the Christians of the East, has been the least moved by the Armenian massacres. The famous "Bulgarian atrocities," the disorders in the Lebanon which

caused, under the Second Empire, an armed expedition to Syria, were nothing compared to the appalling horrors of which Asia Minor has been the scene during the last two years. Wholesale massacres of men, women, and children have taken place under the indifferent eyes of the civilized world; and when some sort of intervention by the great Powers was meditated, the chief obstacle came from Russia. France, disarmed and neutralized by the Russian alliance, could not repeat what she had once done in Syria; Russia's veto saved the Turkish Empire from an intervention which at one moment seemed imminent. By mere *vis inertiæ*, Russia became the dominant Power at Constantinople; her advice has become irresistible; her ambassador is omnipotent.

Russia has derived great benefits from her alliance with France, or compact—it is difficult to find a suitable word for an attraction which seemed instinctive on both sides, and which has drawn towards each other two nations placed at two opposite ends of Europe, living under different institutions, and having absolutely different ideals. A common dread, not to say hatred, of Germany is the tie which has united them; but this sentiment has not been allowed by the governments of the two countries to take an offensive form. The alliance is, so to speak, purely defensive, like the Triple Alliance of Germany, Austria, and Italy. The vague but very strong sentiment which is felt in France for the great Power which first showed her some sympathy after the unhappy war of 1870, has proved a greater benefit to Russia than to France. It has helped Russia to put her finances in much better order; no less than six or seven milliards of French money is said to be invested in Russian funds. The Russian Treasury, with the help of France, has been allowed to borrow to an almost unlimited extent, and to make conversions which produce a great economy.

The alliance, however, has not yet been tried on purely political questions—that is to say, on questions of great importance. It is understood that on all minor questions, in every capital, the French and the Russian ministers hold a similar attitude. The first question of great importance as to which the interests of France and of Russia are perhaps not quite similar, has been the recent question of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition to the Upper Nile. This expedition, though it had been preparing for a long time, took Europe by surprise. In Paris the Minister of Foreign Affairs, in his first excitement, sent a semi-official note to the newspapers which was conceived in an almost ominous tone. The French public is really very indifferent to what is going on in the valley of the Nile; it is felt that we have no right to speak loud at Cairo since, at the time of Arabi's revolt, we refused to join the English expedition which put an end to that rising. Our fleet was before Alexandria, with the English fleet, but, at the last moment, much to the surprise of our sailors, it was ordered back to Toulon. We gave at that moment *carte blanche* to England; but our Foreign Office has kept on its old way of interfering in Eastern affairs, and from time to time thinks it necessary to remind England that its occupation of Egypt is and must be only temporary. England invariably answers that it knows its obligations, but remains the judge of the time when the evacuation can be made without endangering the interests and the peace of Egypt.

When the expedition to Dongola was announced, France made objections to the use of the reserve fund, which is under the control of a European commission. Germany, Italy, and Austria gave their consent; Russia could not well separate from France, but it is said that Prince Lobanoff made some remarks on the initiative which France had taken with too much haste, and without first entering into communication with Russia. Russia does not interfere in the interior affairs of France, and treats in the same manner the administrations which succeed each other, sometimes with great rapidity; but when it comes to external affairs which concern all the great Powers, Russia demands that the action to be taken by her in common with France shall be the object of previous negotiation and deliberation. If Russia had been consulted in time in this affair of the Egyptian funds, France would probably have avoided the crisis in which it is now involved. The expedition to Dongola has had the singular result of intensifying the state of complete hostility between our Senate and our Chamber of Deputies. This hostility may have for its consequence a ministerial and, perhaps, what is more serious, a Presidential crisis.

THE NEW DEGREES AT OXFORD.

OXFORD, March 30, 1896.

THE University of Oxford has seldom given its assent to a statute which promised to be of greater importance and more far-reaching consequence than the one passed last year and just now going into actual operation, by which men, not necessarily holding an Oxford B.A., are admitted as candidates for the newly established degrees of bachelor of letters and bachelor of science. It is a measure, moreover, of especial interest and importance to American students, for whose benefit it was in great part intended, throwing open as it does a field of foreign graduate study which previously had been in great measure closed to them. For heretofore the only access to an Oxford degree in course has been through the candidate (of whatever university rank or standing) laying aside his pride of previous degrees, taking the regular entrance examinations of the university, entering as a freshman, and working three years as an undergraduate. For the M.A. he was obliged to pay his fees and keep his name on the books for the required twenty-seven terms from matriculation—a course which few men of previous training could or would adopt. In many respects, then, this new departure is a revolution in the Oxford system, and one hears even now rumors to the effect that it is to be emulated by the still more conservative University of Paris some time in the near future. This will no doubt have a tendency to divert part of the stream of Americans to Germany into other channels—a result which, for some reasons, is by no means to be deplored.

The new degrees are established avowedly to encourage research in Oxford by men already trained and even advanced in specialization. They correspond closely to graduate degrees elsewhere, and are thrown open under conditions which not only recognize work done outside Oxford, but relieve the candidates from some restrictions of ordinary undergraduate work, residence, and examinations. The conditions under which they are established are these: A candidate for either degree must be at least twenty-one years of age, and either be a B.A. of Oxford or give satisfactory evidence of a good general education to a committee of the Board of Faculties. Having satisfied these requirements, he must present a plan of study or a subject of research for the approval of a committee of the Board of Faculty to which his work belongs, and satisfy the committee that (1) this work may be profitably pursued in Oxford, and that (2) he is fitted to undertake the line of research proposed. A minimum of eight terms' residence is required for the degree. The Oxford year of twenty-four weeks, however, is divided for purposes of residence into four terms, in addition to which in any one year a candidate for B.L. or B.Sc. is allowed to reckon forty-two days' residence, not necessarily consecutive, during vacation as a term counting toward the residence requirement for the degree. Any one, moreover, who has kept two years' residence in the University as an undergraduate is eligible for the degree, so far as residence is concerned. After the candidate has proved his age and his general education, and his subject and his special qualifications for grappling with it have been passed upon, he is handed over to a committee of the Board of Faculty under which his work will naturally fall. This, corresponding in all essential respects to a graduate committee elsewhere, supervises and directs his investigation, aids him with advice and counsel, and finally examines him on the results of his work. For upon the completion of eight terms of work and residence the candidate must satisfy his Faculty Board, through its committee, of his fitness to receive the degree, either by such an examination in the subject of his course of special study or research, or by such a dissertation or report of work done as shall meet with the approval of the Board. Any candidate directed to submit a dissertation or report is publicly examined on the ground it covers.

All this is, in its essentials, scope, aim, and method, almost exactly equivalent to the process of obtaining a Ph.D. in an American university. It may be added here that the degrees in letters and science do not lead to the degree of M.A., and that Bachelors of Letters and Science rank immediately after Bachelors of Civil Law and Medicine in the university polity. The titles of the higher degrees in Letters and Science have not as yet been fixed upon, but it is very possible that doctors' degrees analogous to D.C.L. and D.D. will be established.

The "Faculties" under which these degrees are granted correspond more or less exactly to the "departments" of an American university. For the purposes of this statute they are eight in number, Theology, Law, Medicine, Literæ Humaniores, Natural Science (including Mathematics), Oriental Languages, Modern History, and English Language and Literature. And in order to give some idea of the ground covered and the instruction offered in each, it may be worth while to enumerate the subdivisions in some detail.

Theology, Law, and Medicine are regarded as "superior" faculties, and the two former are divided into (1) a specific superior course leading to B.D. and D.D., and B.C.L. and D.C.L., accessible only to those already holding a B.A., and (2) a "school" in which an undergraduate reads for a B.A. as he would in any other school, like modern history or natural science. Theology covers (*a*) the Holy Scriptures, (*b*) Dogmatic and Symbolic Theology, (*c*) Ecclesiastical History, (*d*) Evidences of Religion, (*e*) Liturgies, (*f*) Sacred Criticism and Archæology, (*g*) Hebrew. Law comprises (*a*) Jurisprudence, (*b*) Roman Law, (*c*) English Law, (*d*) History of Legal and Political Institutions, (*e*) International Law. Literæ Humaniores includes (*a*) Greek and Latin Languages, (*b*) Greek and Roman History, (*c*) Logic, and

Moral and Political Philosophy. Medicine covers Human Anatomy, Physiology, Medicine, etc., in addition to the general subjects under Natural Science. Under Natural Science are included (*a*) Mathematics, (*b*) Physics, (*c*) Chemistry, (*d*) Animal Physiology, (*e*) Animal Morphology, (*f*) Botany, (*g*) Geology, (*h*) Astronomy. Oriental Languages comprise (*a*) Sanskrit, Indian History, Literature, Religious and Comparative I. E. Grammar, (*b*) Arabic Language, Literature, History, Epigraphy, and Theology, (*c*) Hebrew Language, Literature, History, and Epigraphy, (*d*) Persian Language, History, Philology. Modern History covers (*a*) History of England, Political and Constitutional, (*b*) a period of general European history—six in number, from 476-1815, (*c*) a special subject, like Italy 1492–1513, (*d*) Political Science and Political Economy. English Language and Literature includes (*a*) portions of English authors like Chaucer, etc., (*b*) History of the Language, including Gothic, Old and Middle English, (*c*) History of English Literature, (*d*) a "special subject" in language or literature, chiefly foreign.

This outline will convey an idea of the general lines of instruction offered here; for as the whole system leads up to the schools' examinations under their respective Boards of Faculties, it follows that the main strength and body of the instruction is directed to preparing men for these. On the other hand, of course, the diversity of choice is greater than appears at first sight. Modern history, for instance, covers Indian history, geography, and palæography; law includes Indian law; Oriental languages, some six Indian dialects, besides Burmese, Turkish, Chinese, and the like; while natural science takes both agriculture and anthropology under its protecting wing. There is, it need not be said, a considerable body of teaching devoted to modern languages, including Russian, besides Prof. Rhŷs's admirable Celtic, which has not yet risen to the dignity of a school. So, while the schools system defines arbitrarily and not always felicitously the provinces of human knowledge, there is still a considerable range of selection within these limits.

Moreover, the candidate for the new degrees is fortunately little hampered by this schools system in any direction. The list given above is rather indicative of what, in the meaning of the statute, may profitably be pursued at Oxford—of what, that is, there are men here to advise him about and direct him in his work. It is not intended as a list of courses of lectures to be taken for a degree, for, under the present construction of the statute, the candidate is not supposed to go into a school on the same footing as a candidate for the B.A. The primary intention is that of highly specialized work on a subject or period *already selected*, leading up primarily to a dissertation; and though the candidate may and doubtless will avail himself of lectures, his real work will be that of his thesis. Undergraduate instruction here is not, of course, in the hands of the University, but is given by the colleges or by the delegacy for unattached students, which in its practical working throws the student into the hands of a tutor who directs all his movements. The new statute, however, while treating the candidate for B.L. or B.Sc. as an ordinary undergraduate in every other respect, puts him in the hands of the University, answerable to it and directed by it through its committee.

A word as to the more practical details may not be out of place. An intending candidate should arm himself with proofs of identity, age, and acquirements in the shape of birth certificate, diploma, and certificates of work done, and even personal letters from previous instructors. He should by all means have some definite piece of work selected, if possible—certainly some definite subject or period to offer—and be prepared, if necessary, to pass a general preliminary examination upon it if required. It is advisable in many ways to join a college, if possible, and even to live in college, at least for a time, for in no other way can one come under the peculiar influence of atmosphere and association on which so much stress is laid in the Oxford system. And, however one may sneer at restrictions as to the meaning of cap and gown, being in by 10 P. M. under penalty of a fine, and a dozen others, even these seem to lend a certain charm to the life here, which is almost ideal in so many other respects.

As to the facilities for work outside the routine of lectures, it is impossible even to touch upon most of them. The first and greatest of these, the Bodleian Library (with its annex, the Radcliffe), as to size, ease of access, facilities for work, and, above all, the invariable kindness and courtesy of those in charge, is hardly to be equalled anywhere. There are, too, great stores of books and MSS. in the less accessible college libraries and in the museums. There are the great archæological, antiquarian, art, ethnological and scientific collections, together with the Botanic Gardens, the various laboratories (college as well as university), and institutions like the Indian Institute devoted to subjects connected with the Indian Empire, and the Taylorian to those connected with the study of modern languages. There is, too, perhaps a greater number of men engaged in advance research in Oxford than almost anywhere else in the world—men with or without official connection with the University or with colleges, who, though they may not lecture, are generally accessible for advice or consultation, and who, by their very presence, do much towards maintaining the atmosphere and tradition of learning that hang about the place, and insensibly form such a great factor in the training of men who come to this, perhaps the most dignified, certainly the most beautiful seat of learning in the world.

WILBUR C. ABBOTT.

Correspondence.

THE RUSSIAN BRYCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *Slavica non leguntur* was the categorical statement of a savant of bygone days. Since then the German countries have become the strongholds of Slavic philological learning, and France has produced some good works in the Russian language that enjoy the respect of Slavic scholars, while the name of good translations from Russian into German and French is legion. America, with its traditional friendship for Russia, has up to date shown but a spurious interest in the intellectual movement of its nearest trans-oceanic neighbor, and thus makes true the statement, *Slavica non leguntur*. With the praiseworthy exception of one or two writers who know Russia and Russian, the translations and compilations made in this country are unreliable and often worthless. But of this another time.

Until very lately Russians knew just as little of America and Americans, their acquaintance not rising above a reading of the literary productions that have become the possession of the whole English-speaking world, and with it of the world at large. Now, through the excellent articles by A. P. Tverskoy that have appeared in various leading Russian journals and weeklies, it is possible to gain as clear an insight into American life as through the pages in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' These articles have been conveniently collected in a well-printed volume bearing the title, 'Sketches from the United States of North America' (St. Petersburg, 1895), and containing in 460 pages the following heads: Ten Years in America—The Presidential Campaign of 1892—My Life in America—Letters—The World's Fair.

In these there is unrolled a wealth of personal observations and experiences but rarely found in one man. It is the history of the intellectual transformation of a Russian emigrant into a stanch American; it is the joyous message of free America to the East of Europe. The autobiography of the author reads like a fairy-tale. He arrived in America in 1881 with a copy of Ollendorff in his hands and slender means. Of America he knew nothing, and he wanted to become a farmer, though as a nobleman and soldier he had never put his hands to a plough. He settled in Florida, worked in a sawmill, acquired a practical knowledge of its running, and entered into partnership with two Americans, whom he bought out in one year. By diligence and shrewd investments he in a few years had laid by enough money to take the contract for the building of a railroad. A few years later he became the superintendent of a large railroad system. Within eight years he was the owner of a large sawmill, wood-planing establishments, general stores, a railroad-carriage factory, a railroad with its branches, vessels and steamships, a million acres of land granted by State and private individuals, several towns along the line of railroad, etc., etc. He founded the city of St. Petersburg in Florida, became mayor of a town, and held several political offices. He has now retired from business and lives a happy life on his estates in Southern California.

In his short but brilliant career Mr. Tverskoy has had ample opportunity to become acquainted with American life in all its minutiæ, and he has acquitted himself of his difficult task of critic with remarkable success. It is to be hoped that his work may become accessible to an American public in an English translation, that Americans may have again a chance to see themselves as others see them.

LEO WIENER.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

RUFUS KING'S CORRESPONDENCE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The portion of the dispatch from Rufus King to the Secretary of State which remains in cipher in King's edition of Rufus King's Correspondence, vol. iii., p. 398, may be found deciphered in Am. State Papers, Foreign Relations, vol. ii., p. 401, as follows:

"I am assured that our affairs shall be taken into consideration as soon as the new cabinet is settled; and I am not without hopes that they may be satisfactorily adjusted. Having caused it to be understood that we should not consent to pay more than ten hundred thousand pounds in lieu of what might be awarded under the sixth article, I shall await a decision upon this offer."

By the convention of 1802, negotiated by King and Lord Hawkesbury, the sum of £600,000 was designated as the amount to be paid by the United States to Great Britain for

debts contracted prior to the treaty of peace of 1783.—I am, very respectfully yours,

J. S. Reeves.

Washington, D. C., April 14, 1896.

PIDGIN SPANISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the interesting remarks of your correspondent in the *Nation* for January 30, regarding "Pidgin English," and in view of the ever increasing number of Spanish-American stories contained in our current literature, perhaps you will let me remark that the average Spanish quotation, with its corresponding translation, bears much the same relation to Castilian as "Ralphese" to "Pidgin English." Thus, in the March number of *Harper's Magazine*, the writer of the paper on "Arcadian Bee-Ranching" refers to the musical names of the California ranches, and translates some of them for the benefit of its readers. He writes "Las Posas" for "Los Posos" (meaning 'The Wells'), and translates "Las Chupa-Rosas" "Humming-Birds' Nest," when every one familiar with Spanish America knows that "chupa-rosa" (literally, rose-sucker) is the vulgar Spanish-American for humming-bird, and in Castilian the poetic "colibri" is the exact equivalent.

In the same magazine are some remarks on the obscurity of the etymology of the word "gringo." This word was first applied to the soldiers of the American army invading Mexico in 1847, when the then popular song "Green grow the rushes, oh" was in vogue and was sung on the march. The two first syllables plainly show the origin of the word, which, curiously enough, appears to have originated in the same manner along the Pacific Coast from the singing of the same popular air by British sailors. I have trustworthy evidence of the word having been adopted in Peru in reference to them about the same period. Nowadays it is applied indiscriminately to all English-speaking people, much in the same manner as "gavacho" is to the French and "gachupin" to the Spanish by the Mexicans.—Yours truly,

El Buitre Gryngo.

Topia, Durango, Mexico, April 5, 1896.

P. S.—You may like to know that your views on the Anglo-Venezuelan question are very much appreciated by well-informed Mexicans, and have caused a great deal of favorable comment.

Notes.

Further announcements by Macmillan & Co. are 'The Interpretation of Literature,' by W. H. Crashaw; 'The Italic Dialects,' by Prof. R. Seymour Conway; and 'London Burial-Grounds,' ancient and modern.

Messrs. Scribner have now become, by purchase and arrangement, proprietors and American publishers of all the works of Robert Louis Stevenson, including the posthumous.

The Star Publishing Co., Chicago, will soon publish 'Camp-Fire Stories,' by Col. Edward Anderson, profusely illustrated.

E. W. Moes, assistant librarian of the University of Amsterdam, is about to bring out in parts, through C. L. van Langenhuysen (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), a work on the local printers and publishers of the 16th century ('De Amsterdamsche Boekdrukkers en Uitgevers in de zestiende eeuw'), a chapter in the history of early printing as yet unwritten. Numerous facsimiles of marks, colophons, etc., will enhance the bibliographical and national value of this publication.

The forty-sixth volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan) all but disposes of the letter P. Priestley and Pope offer more of interest than any other names in the section that extends from Pocock to Puckering. Quite exceptionally, if we remember, the Birmingham philosopher is allotted to two hands, his biography proper being followed by an estimate of him as a scientist. Leslie Stephen might have been expected to be one of these colaborers, but he has reserved himself for the poets Pope and Praed. The former he biographizes in his best manner through eighteen pages, with a success for which he himself supplies the praise when he says, "There is, in fact, no more difficult subject for biography, especially in a compressed form." He makes the happy observation that "probably the nearest parallel to the combination [in Pope of a kindly disposition with seeming malignity due to unfortunate conditions acting upon a sensitive nature] is to be found in his contemporary, Voltaire." The notice of Praed is much shorter, and reminds us that his prænomen points to a relationship with the New England Winthrops, and that the first edition of his poems was published in America by R. W. Griswold. Another significant sketch is that of the Greek scholar Porson, which is readable but cannot be censured for compression in the purely personal and anecdotic part of it.

The eight-volume edition of Poe's Works, bearing the English imprint of J. Shiells & Co., and the American of J. B. Lippincott Co., is without note or comment of any kind, biographical introduction, or chronological indication, or variant reading. It therefore does not properly compete with the Woodberry-Stedman edition just concluded, nor is it as beautifully made. The volumes are, nevertheless, both handy and well printed, and are embellished with twenty-four tasteful and effective designs (chiefly by F. C. Tilney) in photogravure, including a view of Poe's house at Fordham, his portrait, and those of Henry Cockton, Hawthorne, and Mrs. Browning. There may yet be other editions of Poe, but the public seems now to be sufficiently supplied for a long time to come.

The enduring popularity of Symonds's translation of Benvenuto Cellini's Autobiography is evinced by the issue of a fourth edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). This edition, like the third, is in one volume, which, in spite of its more than five hundred pages, is not very cumbrous to hold, while the print is handsome and legible. The only thing we find to object to is the inadequate illustration. The cuts are small and confused, Cellini's elaborate ornament and complicated grouping of figures being often nearly indecipherable, while the red bronzing of the ink does not add to their clearness. Cellini's known works are not numerous, and could be completely illustrated at no great cost; but half the number of drawings here given, if printed on as large a scale as the page would allow, and in black, would be preferable to the whole number as we have them.

The Loudon Virginia Rangers were "scouts" during the civil war, employed by the national Government along the Potomac. They had lively experiences, being often matched against Mosby's Partisans on the Confederate side. The history of the battalion is told by Briscoe Goodhart of Company A, and published by McGill & Wallace, Washington, D. C. Besides the personal interest it will have for the members of the companies and their friends, it gives some instructive views of the petty warfare of raids and reconnoissances.

The "other side" is presented in 'Mosby's Rangers,' by James J. Williamson, of the Confederate Company A, a book of larger size and of greater historical pretensions (New York: Ralph B. Kenyon). A comparison of the two volumes shows how natural it is for each side to exaggerate its successes and slur its defeats. As they often describe the same skirmishes from opposite standpoints, the amusement is heightened by taking them together. It is a pity that the author of 'Mosby's Rangers' had not given at least a chapter to a frank history of the law under which they were organized, and to their actual practice of scattering after a raid and pretending to be peaceful farmers till called together again by preconcerted signal. He protests against calling them guerillas, but something more than a protest is needed when the law shows that they were irregular, and practically irresponsible, not on the pay-roll nor acting under definite orders, authorized to plunder and to keep the profits of their raids. What all this leads to, the history of war plainly tells. On the representation of the higher military officers the Confederate Government, at the beginning of 1864, disbanded all such organizations but Mosby's, and Virginia would doubtless have suffered less if his also had been suppressed.

Prof. W. M. Flinders Petrie, the Egyptian explorer and archæologist, has recently again put English readers under a debt of obligation by editing two volumes of translations of 'Egyptian Tales' (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.). They date all the way from the fourth to the nineteenth dynasty, and yet the collection does not by any means exhaust the folk-lore of this ancient people. The service of Petrie is, however, only comparative, since all the tales thus rendered have been in print for some years in an excellent French translation, Maspero's 'Contes Populaires.' In reading the smooth version given by Prof. Petrie, the reader might suppose that no involved questions of grammar and vocabulary are presented by the original; but such is by no means the case, and many of the renderings are no more than shrewd guesses. The original matter of the present volumes must be sought in the introductions and notes, and here the editor has rendered a more conspicuous service than elsewhere. The tales present material valuable from the point of view of both literature and folk-lore. They throw light upon many questions of mythology, every-day life, and the current conceptions of the times, and they deserve also the attention of students of the Egyptian religion. In them a natural progression is observable, from marvels and tales of wonders and of strange lands to novels of adventure and delineations of character.

The number of persons in this country who will be interested in a translation, from the Arabic, of an account of 'The Churches and Monasteries of Egypt and some Surrounding Countries' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), attributed to Abu Salih, the Armenian, is probably small. The book has required the expenditure of much erudition, and is a storehouse of quaint information for students of the history of Christian Egypt. The translation and many of the notes represent the labor of Mr. Basil T. A. Evetts of Trinity College, Oxford, and formerly of the British Museum. He has also had the assistance of other scholars, such as Alfred J. Butler, F.S.A.,

whose work on the 'Ancient Coptic Churches of Egypt' is our latest and best authority. The book is an illustration of the progress of research and of the increase of the resources of scholarship for which the present generation is noted. The original has been known for a long time, but has only now been put to use.

In 'A Dictionary of the Names of Minerals, including their History and Etymology,' by Albert Huntington Chester, Professor of Mineralogy in Rutgers College (New York: John Wiley & Sons), we have for nearly 5,000 names of minerals the original source and name of the giver, when possible; the etymology of each name; and a brief description of the mineral to which the name applies, for help in identification. In the nomenclature of minerals, fancy has been called into play perhaps more than in any other branch of science. As the author says: "We sometimes find as the reason for a name the simple idea of distinguishing the thing itself; but this is not the common reason. Names have been given to commemorate battle-fields, to sneer at the work of earlier investigators, and as a tribute to feminine loveliness. In short, the whole round of human passions has been gone over in the manufacture of these words, which are purely scientific in their uses, and for the making of which scientific methods might well have been employed." In addition to its general interest from the philological side, the book will be of great value to mineralogists, and save them much mental wear in struggling with half-forgotten roots and distorted or trivial meanings.

'The Water Supply of the City of New York, 1858-1895,' by Edward Wegmann, C.E. (John Wiley & Sons), contains somewhat more than 300 quarto pages and about one hundred and fifty plates, besides half that number of figures in the text. It is one of those valuable compilations which every citizen of New York who concerns himself with the growth and development of his city, and every engineer who is interested in water supply, may find of interest and of use. Moreover, it combines the historical and statistical information interesting to a layman with detailed descriptions, estimates, and illustrations which are of real value to the engineer. It begins with an account of the various systems and projects which preceded the first construction of the Croton aqueduct; the most prominent system being that of the Manhattan Company, and the most amusing project being a proposed adaptation of the system used on the Schuylkill at Philadelphia, by building a dam across the Hudson River near the foot of Christopher Street, the estimated cost of the dam being about one-sixth of what has lately been the estimated cost of a bridge pier near the middle of that river. Then comes an account of the construction of the old Croton aqueduct, and two chapters devoted to the work done after the completion of the aqueduct proper, first by the Croton Aqueduct Department and then by the Department of Public Works. There follow an account of the new Croton aqueduct, and a description of the Croton watershed and of the reservoirs which have been or are to be built to provide adequate storage capacity. The book proceeds from an exceedingly competent hydraulic engineer, and has evidently been carefully prepared by a master. The chief criticism that one would offer is, that the execution of the numerous plates is evidently decidedly inferior to the execution of the drawings from which they were made.

All who have felt the interest and charm of the great scholar and writer that was James Darmesteter will be glad to know that a new volume of his essays has been collected by a loving hand, and is just now published: 'Nouvelles Études Anglaises. Avec avant-propos de Mme. Mary James Darmesteter' (Paris: Calmann Lévy). The first of these ten studies tells the story of the different steps by which the reputation of Joan of Arc has risen in England from that of an abandoned sorceress to that of a virgin and martyr. Other essays regard the life and letters of George Eliot; the works of Wordsworth and of Oliver Madox Brown; the political songs of Ireland; the poems of Miss Mary Robinson (his wife); and various Indian matters. These valuable studies have been hitherto buried in old reviews and magazines, and have been hard to come by; they are all the more welcome now on this account. The new style of Mme. Darmesteter may be noted; it is perhaps a fresh tribute to a deeply cherished memory.

Volume vi. of the *Oeuvres Complètes* of Huygens, which was received by subscribers in this country early in the present year, well maintains the high standard of the earlier volumes. Two more will be required to complete the correspondence, which is advanced in this beautiful quarto only from 1666 to 1669, the period of the early residence in Paris. But if the movement is slow, it embraces the entire thought of the time. Some indication of all the great interests, and something from the hand of nearly all the great names, of the middle of the 17th century will be found in these volumes. Bits of gossip, natural portents, the flight of spiders, the case of the man who seemed to carry his X-rays about with him so that he could see through people's clothing, find place beside a discussion of the unity of God, of the nature of truth, of the doctrine of probabilities, or of a universal language. Huygens's supreme preoccupations at this time—optics, astronomy, and horology—of course occupy much space. The Scientific Society of Holland, which is responsible for the editing, may well be congratulated that it has been able to secure committees competent to carry out such a monumental undertaking. The indexes are especially complete, occupying about sixty pages: a chronological index; an alphabetical list both of writers and of correspondents; an alphabetical list of persons mentioned; a list of works cited; and, finally, an index of subjects, prepared with evident care and unusually complete.

Recent folios of the Geologic Atlas of the United States continue to furnish welcome additions to the fund of geological, geographical, and economical information, useful in so many applications. Locally of great value to the people within the limits of their several areas, the folios are of broader value in teaching, inasmuch as they supply, in a measure of detail never before attempted generally for the whole country, a body of first-hand facts upon which a sound superstructure of generalization may be reared. The several Tennessee sheets portray the different features of the Cumberland plateau and its bordering lower lands. The sheets for the slope of the Sierra and the plain of middle California vie with the transcontinental railroads in bringing the Pacific States near to us on this side of the country. Additional sheets for various parts of the country are in course of publication.

The latest report of the Connecticut Board of Education reveals the actual condition of a number of the public schools in that State, which is certainly such as must make conscientious educators grieve. Poverty and isolation appear in the pictures of the little frame schoolhouses, as well as in the answers given by teachers to various elementary questions on school methods, and in the uniformly high percentage of pupils' failure to answer easy questions correctly. The candor and sympathetic quality of the report give assurance that reform and improvement will result from it. One sentence of practical import deserves quotation from a chapter on women's voting: "Men are elected to school offices for a variety of reasons, but women always because they are qualified."

The current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. x., part 2) are unusually rich in papers of permanent value. Prof. Egbert C. Smyth returns to the subject of Jonathan Edwards and his early writings, printing several of the latter, with specimen facsimiles of the MS., and establishing Edwards's claim to a high rank among the world's precocious intellects even in a scientific direction. Nathaniel Paine's list of early American imprints in the Society's library prior to 1701 is supplementary to Dr. Green's similar list for the Massachusetts Historical Society's library, to the extent of non-duplicates. Volumes common to both libraries are chronologically named without repeating Dr. Green's bibliographical descriptions. Justin Winsor contributes a convenient summary of the Literature of Witchcraft in New England. The battle of Bunker Hill is reviewed from a strategic standpoint by Charles Francis Adams.

The solid foothold of the *American Historical Review* (Macmillan) is manifest in the April number. Every one of the six leading papers invites careful reading. Most curious is Wilbur H. Siebert's "Light on the Underground Railway," a report of progress in a study yet to be given historical shape and completeness; and the map accompanying it, with red route-lines of the fugitives from Southern bondage, is also provisional. Virginia is involved in Justin Winsor's "Virginia and the Quebec Bill," in Prof. William P. Trent's "Case of Josiah Phillips," and James Ford Rhodes's terse and weighty judgment on the first six weeks of McClellan's Peninsular campaign. Charles Francis Adams adds an ornament or two to his study of the battle of Bunker Hill described above. Melville M. Bigelow, the well-known legal writer, begins an interesting translation, with annotations, of several Bohun wills and inventories. Finally, Prof. H. Morse Stephens estimates some recent memoirs of the French Directory. Quite the most extended and important review is that of Senator Sherman's Memoirs by Edward L. Pierce, a capital performance, just and moderate, but ending in a prophecy, already shaken, that this political trimmer would (on his own word) be found among the opponents of Cuban annexation. We must notice also a list of New England town records (of Massachusetts chiefly), and an account of the Barton Historical Collection in Detroit, accessible to students.

In the *Green Bag* (Boston) for April the Hon. Walter Clark records two instances of judicial burnings alive in North Carolina of slaves convicted of murder "without the solemnity of jury," as the Act of 1741, not repealed till 1793, read. Burning was not prescribed in the law, but the mode of punishment was left to the discretion of the two or more justices of the peace and the "four freeholders (*who should also be owners of slaves*)" empowered to form a court. After 1793 a slave could be tried by a jury of freeholders—whether slaveholders or not is not stated.

We have already, on occasion of their photogravure reproduction of Stuart's head of Washington, noticed the series of American celebrities undertaken by A. W. Elson & Co., Boston. This auspicious beginning has since been followed up, and two fresh remarque proofs, of Marshall and of Hamilton, have just come to us from the above firm (New York: Knoedler). The Marshall is after a portrait from life by Inman, painted in 1831 for the Philadelphia bar, and now owned by the Law Association of that city. It has become familiar through engravings, but a better reproduction was still possible, and we have it here on a plate 12x15, bearing what relation to the scale of the original canvas we are not informed. The Hamilton is a copy of the original by Trumbull, now in the Jay house at Katonah, N. Y., which is thought to have been painted in 1792. The plate in this instance is about 16x20, and the scale larger than the Marshall. Both these prints are excellent specimens of the skill of the photogravurists who offer them for the satisfaction of amateurs, and with a laudable aim to secure them a place on the walls of schools, through the wise liberality of boards of education or by private gift—for they properly command a good price.

On April 24 a meeting will be held at the Columbian University, Washington, for the sole purpose of organizing a Southern Historical Association. Dr. J. L. M. Curry heads the call, which is signed also by Postmaster-General Wilson, Gen. Wade Hampton, Gen. G. W. C. Lee, Prof. Woodrow Wilson, G. Brown Goode, Prof. J. Randolph Tucker, Prof. Wm. Hand Browne, Col. Richard M. Johnston, Philip A. Bruce, Walter H. Page, Stephen B. Weeks, Prof. W. Gordon McCabe, Prof. W. M. Baskerville, and many other well-known and representative names. Miss Louise Manly, of Judson Female Institute, Ala., alone represents her sex in this list.

—Mr. Simon G. Croswell contributes to the *Harvard Law Review* for April an extremely suggestive paper on the development of the law concerning the use of electricity on highways. He confines himself mainly to an examination of the conflicting claims of telephone and trolley lines. Both these lines in the first place made use of the ground for the return current, and to a considerable extent still do so. The discharge from the trolley lines, however, is so powerful as to be mischievous. It passes along the gas and water-pipes into houses, reaches the telephone-discharging wires, and passes into the telephones and through them to the central exchange. This of course produces all sorts of undesired sounds and makes conversation unintelligible. There is also trouble from induction when the trolley wires are near to and parallel with those of the telephone. The telephone companies, being first in possession of the highways, brought suit against the trolley lines, endeavoring to compel them to discharge the electric current in some way which should not interfere with existing uses, *e. g.*, by means of metallic circuits for the return current. The same device, however, would relieve the telephones from most of their trouble, and in some cases the courts inclined to hold that whichever party could abate the nuisance at least expense should be required to do so.

—In other cases, however, the maxim, *Qui prior est tempore, potior est jure*, was regarded as controlling. The telephone companies were where they were by right, and it seemed reasonable that later occupants should be made to respect this right. The other maxim, *Sic utere tuo ut alienum non lædas*, was also invoked by the telephone companies against the trolley lines. They said that these lines could exercise their franchises without damaging other interests if they chose to take the trouble to do so, and that it was only equitable that they should be required to respect existing rights. But all this reasoning, plausible as it seemed, was suddenly brushed aside by the application of another principle. The trolley lines took the position that the primary use of the highways is for public travel, and that all other uses must be subordinate to this. The telephone, therefore, is only a licensed interloper, and the trolley as a common carrier need not regard such dubious rights as those of mere purveyors of intelligence. The telephone and telegraph lines therefore take their franchises on highways subject to the right of travel, and so the highest courts seem now to hold. But this principle in its turn may require modification. The iron pipes used for drains, for water, for gas, etc., which are laid under the highways, have no more to do with public travel than the telephone wires. May the trolley lines therefore discharge their electric current into the ground to the destruction of these pipes, without being called to account? Evidently the doctrine that the highway is primarily for travel must be modified so as to recognize the fact that what is secondary is not therefore to be ignored. *Qui posterior est tempore, potior aliquando jure sit.*

—An important unpublished document on the war of 1870 has just appeared in Germany, and is translated in the current number of the *Revue des Revues*. This document is an extract from the journal of Count Frankenberg, who, during the time that intervened between the battles around Orleans and the capitulation of Paris, played an important part, not only as an officer of rank in the Prussian service, but also, and especially, as an intermediary between Mgr. Dupanloup and Count Bismarck. On the 14th of October, 1870, he called on the Bishop of Orleans to arrange with him some details of hospital service, when the Bishop took occasion to say that he did not share the extreme tendencies or the stubborn animosity of the Government. In the evening of the same day, he returned the visit of Count Frankenberg and opened himself freely to him on the question of peace. Peace must be made, he said, without delay, or everything would fall into confusion. He himself had been urged to take the first steps, but this he could not do because Orleans was in German hands. Only one Frenchman could do it, and that was his old friend Thiers. The Bishop had read Bismarck's dispatch on the interview with Jules Favre at Ferrières, and did not think the propositions made to France extravagant or out of proportion to the situation. France must resign herself to a cession of territory, he said, and, after peace was made, she could be saved only by the return to power of the legitimate dynasty. Prussia survived Jena only because of the Hohenzollerns; and Austria was not broken up after Koeniggraetz solely because she had the Hapsburgs to rely upon. The situation in France was more difficult on account of the schism in the legitimate family, and the Bishop urged the good offices of King William to heal the breach. The Count de Chambord ought to be King, and, as he had no child, to adopt the Count de Paris as his successor and heir. "I do not express in this," the Bishop said, "my own personal opinion only; the whole French episcopate is with me." These advances of Mgr. Dupanloup were at once laid before the King of Prussia, the Crown Prince, and Count Bismarck. All three expressed their satisfaction at the peaceful intentions of the Bishop of Orleans, and declared that they in no wise desired the reëstablishment of the Empire, but would be ready to treat with the one who should offer them the best terms and the most satisfactory warrant of peace. Safe-conduct, they promised, should be given to the friend whom Mgr. Dupanloup desired to send to M. Thiers. At this point the extract from the journal of Count Frankenberg ends.

—The reverse side to the glorious pomp and circumstance of war is graphically shown in 'With an Ambulance during the Franco-German War,' by Charles E. Ryan (Scribners). The author was a young medical student in Dublin when the great war broke out in 1870, and being, like most Irishmen, an ardent admirer of France, he volunteered to use such medical and surgical knowledge as he had acquired for the assistance of the French wounded. After some difficulty he got an appointment with the Anglo-American Ambulance and proceeded with it to Sedan, where he had his first experience in ambulance work. The greater number of the doctors with whom he served had learned their business as army surgeons upon the Confederate side during the American civil war. Their skill, kindness, courage, and amiability seem to have made a great impression upon the young Irish medical student, who never mentions the names of his colleagues without words of admiration and respect. The relation given of the disaster of Sedan fully confirms in its piteous details the vivid narrative of Zola in 'La Débâcle,' which, in his preface, Dr. Ryan greatly lauds, stating that "those who were eye-witnesses of Sedan can add little to his description." After tending as many as possible of the wounded of both armies with faithful and tireless care at Sedan, the Anglo-American Ambulance endeavored without success to make its way to Paris, and thereupon offered its services to the Germans, and was sent to Orleans, where, as at Sedan, it tended the wounded on both sides during the first German occupation, the brief French occupation after the battle of Coulmiers, and the second German occupation of the city of Jeanne Darc. In a simple and natural style Dr. Ryan describes the work of the international ambulance among the wounded, giving a graphic picture of the terrible sufferings inflicted on the unfortunate victims of modern military operations. Yet his volume is no mere gruesome tale of human suffering.

—The third volume of Mr. J. H. Wylie's 'History of England under Henry the Fourth' (Longmans) covers the years from 1407 to 1410. It exhibits the same merits and defects as its predecessors. Evidence of untiring industry is given upon every page; the references to authorities used are so full that often more than half the page is composed of footnotes; the primary authorities for the period have been carefully examined, and the very adjectives used in the description of an historical character's personal appearance are vouched for by quotations from contemporary documents; careful impartiality is everywhere observed, and the reader is enabled to draw a conclusion differing from the author's from the material the author himself supplies; and there is a judicious absence of irritating moral and philosophical comments. On the other hand, the defects that were conspicuous in Mr. Wylie's earlier volumes are again perceptible.

The old tendency to wander from the subject in hand is shown in irritating fashion, and the book has become not a mere history of England during the reign of Henry of Bolingbroke, but a history of the reign of that king with side glances at other countries and at anything else that happens to occur to the author at the moment of writing. This digressive habit is by no means offensive to the reader. Indeed, the most interesting chapters are digressions, as, for instance, chapter lxxv. in the present volume, dealing with Gilds and Misteries, as Mr. Wylie spells the better known words guilds and mysteries, and chapter lxxxiv., on Oxford. It is by means of such digressions that his book has grown to its present size, for neither the accessible material nor the importance of the reign of Henry IV. could in any other fashion have been stretched to such an extent. It is possible to recognize the real learning of Mr. Wylie, to be grateful to him for his industry, and to enjoy his digressions, while deprecating a system of writing history which produces an *omnium-gatherum* of miscellaneous information in the place of a carefully constructed account of the political, economic, and social tendencies of a definite historical period.

NICOLL'S LITERARY ANECDOTES.

Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century: Contributions towards a Literary History of the Period. Edited by W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D., and Thomas J. Wise. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. 1895.

THE first volume of a series which seeks to do for the literary history of the nineteenth century what Nichols's 'Literary Anecdotes of the Eighteenth Century' has done for its age, deserves more than a casual notice. Dr. Nicoll and Mr. Wise have thus in the preface expressed their general aims:

"The editors hope to provide . . . a considerable amount of fresh matter, illustrating the life and work of British authors in the nineteenth century. To a large extent they rely upon manuscript material, but use will be made of practically inaccessible texts and of fugitive writings. While leading authors will receive due attention, much space will be devoted to the less known writers of the period. It is intended to supply biographies, letters hitherto unpublished, additions from manuscript sources to published works, together with a series of full bibliographies of the writings of the greater authors. Every precaution has been taken to avoid the infringement of copyright, and the editors hope that they will be forgiven any involuntary transgression."

This is a terse yet comprehensive account of the scheme, and the contents of the first volume fall readily under one or other of the heads indicated. To select a single example from each class, we have under "Manuscript Material" more letters from Shelley to Leigh Hunt; under "Practically Inaccessible Texts" Thomas Wade's 'Helena'; under "Fugitive Writings," Hawthorne's "Uttoxeter"; and under "Bibliographies of the Writings of the Greater Authors," 267 pages of "Materials for a Bibliography of the Writings in Prose and Verse of Robert Browning." The promise that "much space will be devoted to the less-known writers of the period" is also amply fulfilled. This is keeping close to the path of Nichols, for not all Mr. Bowyer's friends, nor even Mr. Bowyer himself, are universally celebrated. Thomas Wade, Richard Henry (Hengist) Horne, and Charles Wells are among the obscurer men whose lives and writings are now more fully disclosed.

The frontispiece is an admirable portrait of William Blake, after Phillips's original sketch. The plate used for the reproduction was etched by William Bell Scott. "This work is one of the strongest and most characteristic of Scott's etchings, which, for purposes such as the present, possesses the unusual value of being done on steel with the burin and not on copper with the point. Save through a few proofs circulated in Scott's lifetime, the plate is totally unknown." Blake wears his most prophetic aspect and looks every inch a man of genius, with a touch of that madness to which his great wits were near allied. One can almost hear him say:

> "Bring me my bow of burning gold,
> Bring me my arrows of desire,
> Bring me my spear: O clouds, unfold,
> Bring me my chariot of fire."

The "Anecdotes" begin with a series of unpublished documents which furnish fresh information concerning Blake's trial for treason in 1803. Scofield's deposition against Blake comes first, then Blake's memorandum in refutation, and thirdly the speech of Blake's lawyer, Counsellor Rose. Blake's trial has a distinct historical value apart from being a critical incident in the life of a most distinguished man. The mere fact that a public prosecutor could be found to proceed with a grave charge on the trumpery evidence which was adduced, shows that during the period of the Napoleonic wars the rage for suppressing *Majestätsbeleidigung* was even greater in England than it now is in Germany.

Tennyson is not directly taken up in this volume, but two early estimates of him are given—one by Arthur Hallam, the other by Mrs. Browning. Hallam's unfailing advocacy of his friend appears in two letters to Leigh Hunt. The first, written in 1831, is addressed to the editor of the *Tatler*. The second is above a year later in date and more familiar in style. Neither letter contains any views that are not elaborately expressed in Hallam's Essay on the Lyrical Poems of Alfred Tennyson which Mr. Le Gallienne has already published. The 1832 letter, however, bears clear testimony to the devotion of Hallam's set, the original band of "Apostles," to Shelley. "While at Cambridge I partook largely in the enthusiasm which animated many of my contemporaries, and indeed formed us into a sort of sect in behalf of his character and genius." Elizabeth Barrett's "Opinion," published in 1844, was doubtless based largely on the 1842 volume of Tennyson's poems. We do not consider it by any means so piquant as Mrs. Gaskell's tribute in 'Cranford,' but it deserves to be reprinted. It originally appeared in 'A New Spirit of the Age,' two volumes of critical essays in which Miss Barrett collaborated with Horne. The "Opinion" is printed from a manuscript in Mr. Buxton Forman's collection, which shows just how Horne cut up Miss Barrett's paper and interpolated "copy" of his own. The arrangement was fair enough, for they were avowedly working together and he had authority to use her contributions as he chose.

Three minor poets who receive generous recognition in this volume are Horne, Wade, and Wells. A biographical account of each is furnished by Mr. H. Buxton Forman, upon whose pen and library the editors have drawn largely. His sketch of Horne's life and character is one of the freshest and best things in the book. The curious know Horne's farthing epic "Orion," but few, in this country at least, are familiar with his exciting career and vigorous personality. He is like the worthies we run across in the publications of the Hakluyt Society. We do not judge such a man by what he writes, but by what he is. Horne was not dependent upon Europe for amusement and enjoyment. He would have made his cycle of Cathay a very lively term of existence. From 1833 to 1851 he was a voluminous writer on a great variety of subjects, sometimes striking a style in verse that called forth praise from Roden Noel and even from Browning. His ballad of "Delora" is now first printed in its original form, with marginal notes in the manner of the "Ancient Mariner." It is somewhat spasmodic for the taste of the present generation, and would not be apt just now to run through many editions by itself. However, if we are to have agony we can stand it better from a man who could at the age of eighty swing dumb-bells weighing fifty pounds, than from a poor anæmic creature who never had a passion in his life. Horne once beat a shark in a race, once helped the captain and mates of a timber-ship put down a mutiny, and once won a prize claret bottle "for grace and agility displayed in swimming when thrown over the side of a ship, bound hand and foot." Here are some of his experiences in America. He served in the Mexican expedition of 1825:

"was at the siege of Vera Cruz and the taking of San Juan Ulloa, was taken prisoner and narrowly escaped being shot as such, got away, and, though he knew little of Spanish and less of surgery, was employed in translating Spanish dispatches, etc., and filled the post of surgeon in the cock-pit. As boarding officer he took several prizes, and finished with the yellow fever, his only illness save his last. Quit of the fever, and defrauded of his prize-money, he left the Mexican service, cruised off the Floridas, landed at New York, ascended the Erie Canal, visited several Indian tribes, broke two of his ribs at Niagara Falls, lost all his money there at billiards, and worked his passage *up* [*sic*] the St. Lawrence."

Upon the discovery of gold in Australia he left England again and became an extremely useful magistrate in the gold fields. Surely one ought not to grudge Horne his civil-list pension of £50 nor his occasional rants in "Delora."

A fresh opportunity is afforded Wade and Wells to win a place for themselves in the esteem of lovers of poetry. Next to creating a new poet of consequence, nothing could please lovers of poetry so well as the discovery of a true bard neglected by the contemporaries of Wordsworth in his age, and of Tennyson and Browning in their youth. Unfortunately, the chance of vindicating the claims of men like Wade and Wells is but indifferent. The present century is not open to the reproach of having turned a deaf ear to the truly great. Its excess has been on the side of running to fads. Wade and Wells undoubtedly possess enough good qualities to preserve their work from being called rubbish, but they will always remain caviare to the general. We cannot regret this particularly, because there is so much poetry of a high class to be read in the various tongues of the modern world that time devoted to the minor poets must be stolen from the time which should be devoted to their betters. Mr. Forman complains that, "with the sole exception of Thomas Lovell Beddoes, no nineteenth-century English poet whose merit equals that of Thomas Wade has been so liberally neglected," and accuses Mr. Stedman of "missing a good opportunity of telling the truth about this nearly lost poet." For our own part we cannot blame Mr. Stedman for his cursory mention of Wade in "Victorian Poets." A writer so completely under the influence of Shelley and Keats is an awkward person for erection into a literary cult. The

Fifty Sonnets of Wade, many published for the first time, "The Contest of Death and Love," and "Helena," both of which have been published but are extremely rare, may, however, succeed in accomplishing this wonder. At any rate they are worth printing.

The "Dramatic Scene" of Charles Wells is taken from "Joseph and his Brethren," and is really an interpolation "regarding the relative merits of Nile-side polytheism and Hebrew monotheism." The piece contains fine lines, but is marred by a rhetoric which is striving to become poetry, and by a weakness for sententious utterances such as:

> "What thou hast said against our deities
> I leave between our deities and thee:
> Their proper honour is their proper cause,"

and

> "The God of justice is the God of love,
> And chastisement is love where sin is death."

The ten letters of Shelley to which we now come cover the years 1813-1822, and are full of warm affection for his correspondent, Leigh Hunt. The editors insist upon their value for the interpretation of Shelley's character, by their emphasis of the great change which came over him in 1814, the year when he threw in with Mary Godwin. The one letter prior to 1814 shows Shelley in the thick of his abstract atheistical speculations. The rest show him merged in the palpitating facts of life, awake to the concerns of his friends and instinct with genius. "When once that point in the Shelley chronology [1814] is reached, there is no record of retrogression; variety—yes, and progress; but never any more letters, however trifling or matter-of-fact the subject, behind which it is possible not to see this particular personality—intellect, emotions, imagination, all alive, and creating fresh combinations of language and thought." This naturally raises the question of Shelley's letters versus his poetry—the question of Matthew Arnold's paradox that Shelley's prose will outlive his verse. Certainly there is nothing in the letters now published to support such a view. They are spontaneous, unaffected, and fresh from the heart, but their subjects are not of perennial moment. A criticism of Michael Angelo might be held to furnish an exception. For the rest, the chronic money difficulties of Hunt, and Shelley's assistance, the circumstances under which the "Hymn to Intellectual Beauty" was published, the relations of Byron, Shelley, and Hunt leading up to the publication of 'The Liberal: Verse and Prose from the South,' and the appearance of 'Frankenstein,' are the principal themes. We welcome the publication of new Shelley letters, but we must confess that, in our opinion, the editors have somewhat overestimated the value of their discovery.

The "Landor-Blessington Papers" show Landor in his most amiable mood. He lavishes articles upon Lady Blessington, redeeming her 'Book of Beauty' and her 'Keepsake' from inanity. His modesty will surprise those who remember "I strove with none, for none was worth my strife." In sending on a quarto sheet headed "Pleasure, Youth, and Age: An Allegory," he says: "I hope you will think it worthy of a place, not in the forthcoming but in the following Book of Beauty." We quite forget in the shower of compliments which he pays the fair editor that he ever threw his cook into a tulip-bed at Fiesole, replying to the remonstrances of his wife: "Well, my dear, I *am* sorry, if that will do you any good. If I had remembered that our best tulip-bed was under that window, I'd have flung the dog out of t'other." The story may be legendary, but no one could invent such a legend about the Blessington-Landor. His intimacy with the Countess extended from June of 1827 to the day of her death in 1849, and he could conclude a sketch of their friendship with the words: "Virtuous ladies, instead of censuring her faults, attempt to imitate her virtues. Believe that, if any excess may be run into, the excess of tenderness is quite as pardonable as that of malignity and rancour." The letters now published relate chiefly to Landor's contributions to the various annuals which Lady Blessington published in years when her income had become small, and she was forced to depend on her own energy for the funds which kept the salon at Gore House, Kensington, in existence. They fill up gaps in Madden's 'Life and Correspondence of the Countess of Blessington,' and are of considerable value to the lover of literary gossip. Besides letters, various minor papers and verses of Landor, which accompanied the letters, are set forth. An autobiographical note which Landor drew up for the Countess, and an extract from her diary concerning the first weeks of their acquaintance, are also included.

We must not altogether pass over Hawthorne's paper on Uttoxeter, which Dr. Nicoll and Mr. Wise have rescued from a file of the 'Keepsake.' Hawthorne himself introduced portions of it into his chapter on Lichfield and Uttoxeter in 'Our Old Home'; now we have it alone in its first form. Hawthorne never wrote more delightfully than on the subject of Johnson's penance and the market-place in which it was performed. The conclusion is an amusing little anti-climax. By an analogy drawn from his own experience, Hawthorne excuses the people of Uttoxeter from their failure to remember and be impressed by the one event that redeems their town from obscurity. We do not get much assistance from this essay about the pronunciation of the name. Hawthorne says it is called Yute-oxeter, but here he is hopelessly astray if the local researches of Dr. Birkbeck Hill are to be considered conclusive.

We have left ourselves no space to dilate on what in some respects is the most important portion of the volume, viz., the Bibliography of Browning's Writings. The following order of treatment is observed: I. Editiones Principes; II. Contributions to Periodical Literature; III. Published Letters; IV. An alphabetical list of poems with reference to the position of each in the various editions; V. Collected Editions; VI. Selections; VII. Complete volumes of Biography and Criticism; VIII. Browningiana. The whole bibliography would reflect credit on the most precise and laborious German, and will be indispensable to the systematic student of Browning. The notes added to the separate pieces under section iv. are most ample, useful, and entertaining. The section *Browningiana* is brought down to February, 1895.

The paper, type, and illustrations of this volume are all very beautiful, quite eclipsing old Nichols; while the numerous reproductions in facsimile of original holographs will give the book a special value in the eyes of the bibliophile and the collector of autographs. It would be too much to say that the material collected by the editors presents any great public character in a new light, yet much of it is of high interest and none of it is trivial. If the succeeding volumes of the series equal the first in merit, the "Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century" will become one of those works "without which no gentleman's library is complete."

THE BEGINNINGS OF THE UNIVERSITIES.—II.

The Universities of Europe in the Middle Ages. By Hastings Rashdall, M.A., Fellow and Lecturer of Hertford College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 2 vols., 8vo, 560, 832 pp.

Much of Mr. Rashdall's space is very naturally devoted to the earliest typical universities, Salerno, Bologna, and Paris. Concerning the study of medicine at Salerno, the facts regarding which are very uncertain and the legends numerous, Mr. Rashdall is extremely cautious. He ascribes its origin jointly to the survival of Græco-Roman medicine in Southern Italy and to the fact that Salerno itself was a health-resort, sought because of the mildness of the climate and the neighboring mineral springs. Its importance continued for only two centuries, although its final suppression was effected by Napoleon as late as 1811. Mr. Rashdall takes pains to emphasize the fact that women were prominent as teachers and writers at Salerno when that institution was at the height of its prosperity.

The story of the universities at Bologna and at Paris is intensely interesting, for those institutions not only have maintained a continuous existence to this day, but are the veritable parents of universities. The existence of a university at Bologna is explained primarily by the uninterrupted existence of the Roman law and its continued study and exposition, despite invasion, decadence, and change, social and political. The Seven Liberal Arts included the study of law, which was made a part of rhetoric, sometimes of grammar as well. Mr. Rashdall plays havoc with the time-honored superstition that Irnerius was the first teacher of Roman law in mediæval Italy. He is able to prove not only that Roman law was studied at Pavia from at least the beginning of the 11th century, but also that the School of Law at Ravenna had kept alive the old traditions of Roman jurisprudence from a still earlier date. Irnerius, therefore, revived and forwarded legal studies, but did not found them. He did this at Bologna, whose earliest reputation as a School of Arts is put in the background by its later preëminence as a School of Law. Why Bologna was the seat of this revival, Mr. Rashdall explains thus:

> "At Bologna—the point of junction between the Exarchate and the Lombard territory—these traditions [of Roman jurisprudence] came into contact with the new-born political life of the Lombard cities, and with that development both of professional and of scholastic law-studies which was one of the outcomes of the Lombard political activity. To a large extent the revival of legal science was common to all parts of Northern Italy. But in the Lombard cities the Roman law had to contend for supremacy in the schools as well as in the courts with a rival Lombard jurisprudence: it was not unnatural that the Roman law should achieve its decisive victory in the most Roman of the Lombard towns" (i.,108).

It is not possible to trace in detail Mr. Rashdall's thoroughly sane and well-balanced account of the University of Paris, the *alma mater* of the universities of Germany, and perhaps the most potent influence in building up a university out of the schools at Oxford. The key to the difference between the universities at Paris and at Bologna, and the explanation of the survival of the type of the former, are to be found in the power of the Chancellor and the right of the competent teacher to a license. The licensed teachers became, guild-fashion, the controlling power, and were the forerunners of all modern faculties and aca-

demic boards. The subordinate facts connected with these fundamental principles Mr. Rashdall works out in great detail, and he throws abundant light on many problems hitherto dark. The famous Bull of Honorius III., which in 1219 prohibited the study of the civil law at the University of Paris, is explained by Mr. Rashdall as due, not to a dislike for legal studies, and a desire to suppress or limit them, but to an attempt to protect the faculty of theology, at one centre at least, from the ruinous competition of the popular and well-rewarded study of the law.

The story of the "Great Dispersion" of 1228–29 is capitally told, and is built up in part from documents that have not hitherto been used. It is plain that the smaller universities of France, especially those at Rheims, Angers, and Toulouse, as well as Oxford and Cambridge, received a marked stimulus from the advent of wandering masters and scholars who left Paris at this time. But, as Mr. Rashdall says, the University of Paris lived upon its misfortunes, and out of the disturbances created by the town-and-gown riot that led to the Great Dispersion came positive proof that a new force had arisen in Europe; for after two years the court and the citizens were glad enough to urge the return of the teachers and scholars, at any price, in order to check the failing prestige and to restore the commercial prosperity of Paris. From that time on, the development of the university was more orderly and less troubled.

As an Englishman, Mr. Rashdall is justified in giving more attention to the history of Oxford and Cambridge than is usual in the writings of Continental historians of education. To American students also these details are of much interest. The time-honored legend that Oxford owes its origin to Alfred the Great not only is dismissed as a myth (following Mr. James Parker), but is asserted to be an imaginary creation that first appeared in Camden's 'Britannia' in 1600, and was transferred from this, three years later, to Camden's edition of Asser's 'Annals.' The whole story—beginnings of which are found in Higden's 'Polychronicon'—with all its numerous and detailed appendages, "may now be abandoned," says Mr. Rashdall, "to students of comparative mythology and of the pathology of the human mind." Similarly, the "cobwebs with which academic patriotism has surrounded the growth of the University of Cambridge" are swept away, and the first appearance of that institution on the pages of history is traced to "the dispersion which followed upon the Oxford *suspendium clericorum* of 1209." But, the true beginnings being established, the story of the subsequent history of the great English universities is admirably told. It includes not only their constitutional development, but their relation to the church and to the public, their student life, and their academic customs. Many of these details, especially where they tend to explain existing survivals of older customs, are intensely interesting. For example, it will surprise many, even well-informed university men, to be told that until 1884 Cambridge University had on its statute-book a *jus natalium* that excused sons of noblemen from an examination and a year's residence.

In reference to the number of students enrolled at the mediæval universities Mr. Rashdall is very conservative. He points to the fact that at the larger universities of northern Europe no official record of students' names was kept, that matriculation books are available only for some of the smaller universities and for the later part of the period which is under examination, and that the estimates of university attendance which we possess rest exclusively upon a few *obiter dicta* of mediæval writers. Some of these large estimates are traced to the mediæval habit of exaggeration, and some to a direct attempt to support one side of some pending controversy. For example, the statement of Fitz Ralph, Bishop of Armagh, that there had once been 30,000 students at Oxford, is ascribed by Mr. Rashdall to the Bishop's anxiety to prove that the university was being depopulated in consequence of the kidnappings of the Friars, which made parents afraid to send their sons to Oxford. By examining a variety of evidence, Mr. Rashdall reaches the conclusion that the student population at Oxford could at no time have exceeded 3,000, and was probably always much below that figure. For Paris the highest possible attendance is put at 10,000, and probably no other university, except perhaps Bologna in the course of the thirteenth century, ever reached an attendance of 5,000.

It may perhaps be said, in criticism of Mr. Rashdall's work, that the reader would like to be given more generalizations, deductions, and applications of and from the immense collection of facts here recorded and sustained. The chapters on "The Place of the University of Paris in European History," "The Intellectual Revolution," "The Place of Oxford in Mediæval Thought," and "Student Life in the Middle Ages" are of this character, and well illustrate how interesting the whole subject may be made to the general reader. But we should be profoundly thankful to have put before us, in the English language, such a systematic presentation of the history and bibliography of the early universities as Mr. Rashdall has worked out. His collected and annotated material on all the universities, great and small, is a perfect mine of facts for the student of education and of mediæval history.

One of the main results of Mr. Rashdall's survey is, as he himself points out, to shatter a good many popular university traditions.

> "The University of London, after being empowered by Royal Charter to do all things that could be done by any university, was legally advised that it could not grant degrees to women without a fresh charter, because no university had ever granted such degrees: we have seen that there were women doctors at Salerno. We have been told that the Mediæval University gave a religious education: we have seen that to the majority of the students it gave none. We have been told that a university must embrace all faculties: we have seen that many very famous mediæval universities did nothing of the kind. . . . We have been told that the collegiate system is peculiar to England: we have seen that colleges were found in nearly all universities, and that over a great part of Europe university teaching was more or less superseded by college teaching before the close of the mediæval period. We have been told that the great business of a university was considered to be liberal as distinct from professional education: we have seen that many universities were almost exclusively occupied with professional education. We have been assured, on the other hand, that the course in Arts was looked upon as a mere preparatory discipline for the higher faculties: we have seen that in the universities of northern Europe a majority of students never entered a higher faculty at all" (ii., 712, 713).

Another result is to make it clear that all these institutions were not cast in a common mould, but conformed to the national and social environments in which they sprang up. Yet amid all these differences the early universities had a common ideal, and that the highest educational ideal of the time. To degrade the term "university," therefore, as we do in the United States with our "Normal Universities," our "Business Universities," and our "Universities" that are but half-equipped secondary schools, is, as Mr. Rashdall justly says, to abuse the highest educational ideal that we find recorded in history.

It is impossible, within the limits of this review, to do more than touch upon the chief points of general interest in Mr. Rashdall's remarkable book. To say that it is indispensable to students of education and of the Middle Ages and a splendid example of scholarship and learning, is in no sense an over-statement.

Public Speaking and Debate: A Manual for Advocates and Agitators. By George Jacob Holyoake. Putnams.

MANY years ago Mr. Holyoake wrote a practical handbook on speaking and debate which had the success of being not only reprinted but pirated. This volume he has now rewritten, and in doing so has produced a manual which writers as well as speakers will find useful. It is not a systematic treatise—indeed, it is marked by a want of system—but is full of useful suggestion, illustration, and advice such as is often not to be met with in systematic treatises. No doubt the fundamental principles of the art of persuasion are the same to-day as in the time of Quintilian, but the materials with which the art deals and the weapons in its armory are by no means precisely the same. Pulpit eloquence, for instance, could not be practised until there were pulpits and congregations and a Christian faith. Had Massillon preached in the Coliseum to the Roman Senate, he would probably not have moved his audience either to repentance or to tears. If Antony were to endeavor to-day to rouse his auditors to avenge the assassination of Cæsar, he would need to remember that they had all read extras giving full details of the event. Public speakers go back to Cicero and Demosthenes for the great fundamental principles of rhetoric, as military men go back to Napoleon and Hannibal for those of strategy, not forgetting that neither Cicero nor Demosthenes ever spoke in the dread of the daily press, nor that Hannibal was unacquainted with transportation by rail, nor that Napoleon never saw a Maxim gun. For these reasons formal and systematic works on rhetoric need to be supplemented from time to time by manuals such as Mr. Holyoake's, designed to bring forcibly before the mind the practical questions which confront the speaker or debater of to-day.

At the same time a little more system would have been to the advantage even of such a volume. The reader is not made clearly to understand, for instance, that sharp lines of division separate the field, differentiating rhetoric which attempts persuasion simply from rhetoric which aims at victory, as in parliamentary debate; or from exhortation, the object of which is to arouse to action of some kind. A fervent sermon to the heathen, preached with genuine unction, has a different object in view from one on the coast defences, or one placing in nomination a Favorite Son; the failure of a speaker to notice such differences may empty the house for him.

Again, we miss a systematic analysis of the modes and figures of speech. While it is true that the rules of rhetoric teach us, as Butler says, only how to name our tools, a careful examination of the tools of the trade, and of the uses to which they can be put, will surely enable us to begin work with less risk of cutting our fingers. Irony is not by any means the only dangerous implement in the box. All

figures of speech are edged tools, and accidents will happen to the beginner even if he merely mistakes an analogy for a resemblance, as the author seems to do (p. 209). The chapter on Figures of Speech is really confined to Metaphor and Simile, but, after all, we forgive its inadequacy in gratitude for having recalled to us the story of the young preacher who, having described a man without faith or hope as "the captain of a crewless vessel, upon a shoreless sea," exclaimed, almost inevitably, by way of peroration, "Happy would such a man be to bring his men to land."

The value of this book lies in its practical advice, a good deal of which will not be found anywhere else. "Writing for the Press" has nothing to do directly with speaking or debate, but every speaker or debater sooner or later has to make use of the press as a medium for communication with the public, and in this chapter he will find some golden rules, accompanied by perfectly clear explanation of the grounds on which they rest. It is the first impulse of any one who is misrepresented to resent, to deny, and to attack the person misrepresenting. The readiest means are furnished by the newspapers, which are only too glad, if the persons concerned are at all well known, to print communications on such subjects. But how few persons remember that the editor will also print the reply, and that he too has the final power of deciding when the controversy shall stop, and what view as to its merits the newspaper which has made it public shall express.

A controversy of this kind has usually an effect not dreamed of by the person who begins it—that of hugely delighting the editor who "opens his columns" to it, the people who read it, and especially the friends and acquaintances of the parties. So full of peril is this species of self-vindication that some eminent men think it best never to reply to any attack—but this course is not open to every one. If a public reply must be made, the golden rule for the person who desires to vindicate himself is to avoid doing what he is most strongly tempted to do—impute an evil motive of some sort to the person written about. "Even if he thinks he has been wilfully misrepresented by an adversary, a reporter, or by the editor, he had better not say so," first, because he can hardly ever be sure of it; second, because he can hardly ever prove it. The capacity for honest misapprehension and perversion is so diffused among mankind that there can hardly ever be any certainty that misrepresentation is wilful, and we may add as a final reason that an antagonist will have no difficulty in making the same charge in reply, while, owing to a universal human instinct unnecessary to analyze, there is nothing in the world that mankind at large enjoys so much as hearing persons of note call each other names and make mutual charges of villany.

In the same way the chapter on the "Theory of Epithets" contains much valuable advice, and brings out strongly the underlying principle of modern parliamentary debate—the assumption that all antagonism springs from honest difference of opinion, and therefore can be removed by argument. This assumption is not necessarily true. Interest, prejudice, passion, hatred, envy, and malice are often at the root of differences even with regard to points of constitutional law, and many an opinion is not founded on conviction, but is used as a mere weapon of attack. Nevertheless, it is the boast at once of the most civilized and the most successful forensic art to treat an adversary's opinions as error and not as produced by original sin. Mr. Holyoake points out that the best practical test of what are allowable epithets or imputations in debate is to ask, Should we consider this fair debate if applied to ourselves?—a test which is at once good morals and good sense.

In conclusion, it may comfort the few readers who do not feel themselves to be already accomplished orators, to find that Mr. Holyoake's study of the subject confirms the view, so often repeated and so often forgotten, that, no matter what the natural gifts of a speaker, the greatest oratory has been always the product of unflagging industry and laborious preparation.

Feudal England: Historical Studies of the XIth and XIIth Centuries. By J. H. Round. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

THIS book—in part reprinted from the *English Historical Review*, but in the main new—is one of the most important contributions to the knowledge of mediæval English conditions that have appeared of late years. For a decade or more after the appearance of Professor (now Bishop) Stubbs's first volume of 'Constitutional History,' the movement of thought in that field took the direction chiefly of the appropriation and popularization of his conclusions: but during the last ten years or so there has been a fresh impulse towards further investigation; and this further investigation has had the result, partly of securing greater precision, partly of undermining some not unimportant positions even of the great Bishop himself. In this work four scholars have preeminently distinguished themselves, and stand head and shoulders above all others—Mr. Seebohm, Prof. Vinogradoff, Prof. Maitland, and Mr. Round.

Mr. Round remarks, in more than one place, that while the task of the last generation of scholars was to interpret the "chroniclers," the task of the present is to supplement and correct that evidence by recourse to the "records"; and the remark is just. Not that the "records" were never consulted before: it was Palgrave who did most to make them accessible; and even Freeman made a good deal of use of the Domesday Book. But what is new is the effort, not to pick out mere illustrations or proofs for opinions otherwise formed, but to master the records as wholes, to determine their exact relations *inter se*, to analyze their contents, and to let the facts themselves spontaneously fall into significant order. And this result is what, in the volume before us, Mr. Round has gone far towards bringing about with the record of the great survey of William the Conqueror and the documents that cluster around it.

Setting out from the *Inquisitio Comitatus Cantabrigiensis*, and comparing it on the one side with the *Inquisitio Eliensis* and on the other with the Domesday Book itself, Mr. Round first reaches the important discovery that among the "socmen" there were two kinds of tenure, "thegnland" and "sokeland," distinguished by important differences. He then produces some new and quite conclusive evidence in support of Mr. Seebohm's contentions that the *caruca* of Domesday always meant a plough team of *eight* oxen, that the *hide* contained four *virgates*, and that each *virgate* contained thirty acres—though he guards himself by inserting *geld* before each of the terms *hide*, *virgate*, and *acre*. His conclusions, that is to say, are limited to the assessment of land for the purpose of taxation, and the relation of this assessment to agricultural management is left undetermined. Next comes the most exciting discovery of all, viz., that in the "hidated" portions of England, the "hidation" was evidently arranged in multiples of a five-hide unit. In a large number of cases the "Hundred" itself was reckoned at a hundred hides—a fact that clearly has a direct bearing on the origin of that territorial division. Nor is this all; there is much to make it seem probable that "it was the Hundred itself which was assessed for geld, and which was held responsible for its payment." Moreover, it is clear that "the part which is played in the hidated district of England by the five-hide unit is played in the Danish districts by a unit of six carucates." In the Danish districts there were probably some other peculiarities; chief of them a small "Hundred," usually composed of 12 carucates, and forming a subdivision of the Wapentake. But the broad distinction between the five-hide-unit area and the six-carucate-unit area is beyond doubt, and indeed lies on the surface of the evidence, when once it has been pointed out; and it will have to be taken into account by all future writers.

The other main theme of the book is the origin of knight's fees. Here Mr. Round's view is not quite so novel, for he has already presented it in the pages of the *English Historical Review*. Taking for his point of departure the returns made to the Exchequer in 1166, to which hitherto but scant attention has been paid, Mr. Round argues convincingly that the view generally accepted, on Dr. Stubbs's authority, is altogether mistaken; that instead of the Norman Conquest making no change save in the direction of greater definiteness in the obligations resting on the landholders, and these obligations continuing to be determined by the hidage or value of the holding, the tenants-in-chief received their fiefs from the Conqueror to hold of the Crown by a definite quota, fixed more or less arbitrarily, of military service. Strictly speaking, this is but "a theory," for no contemporary account of an enfeoffment on such terms has hitherto been found: but Mr. Round's argument backward from the known to the unknown makes it difficult to escape some such conclusion.

To these epoch-making papers on Domesday and knight-service, Mr. Round adds a number of articles of less moment, though those on "The Alleged Debate on Danegeld in 1163," and "The Oxford Debate on Foreign Service in 1197," are not to be overlooked in any consideration of the constitutional position of the Church. He adds, also, and here we cannot but think him not altogether well advised, a selection from his *Quarterly* and other papers on Mr. Freeman's account of the battle of Hastings. The quantity of argumentative writing on the two sides is so great, Mr. Round and Mr. Archer are both such good mediævalists and such honest scholars, the question as to the "palisade" has been so confused by the introduction of the side issue of the "shield-wall," that a reviewer will hesitate long before he commits himself to a positive conclusion. After all, there are many other points wherein Mr. Freeman's incomplete information and over-hasty judgment can be shown with far less question. Moreover, the current of historical thought is rapidly turning away from the sort of anticipatory democratic enthusiasm which colored all Freeman's judgment of past institutions. Very soon Freeman's work will come to be estimated aright, both in its strength and its weakness; and meanwhile we grudge time and energy spent

on the "palisade," which Mr. Round, we feel sure, could turn to better account.

It is curious to contrast Mr. Round's outspoken and not over-sympathetic criticism of Freeman with his carefully reverential attitude towards Dr. Stubbs. Doubtless Freeman was less adequately equipped for writing the history of the eleventh and twelfth centuries; doubtless his more positive temperament led him to more definite statements, while his friend avoided committing himself; but we cannot help asking ourselves what Mr. Round would have said if Dr. Stubbs had been, let us say, a German scholar, and not an English Conservative. For, in spite of Freeman's extravagances and Dr. Stubbs's moderation, the underlying conceptions of both were substantially the same —just as the Radical theory and the Whig theory of government are at bottom identical. Both, like Waitz, their German exemplar, seem to have carried back to the past the ideas of equality and self-government which have characterized our own age. The destructive process which Mr. Round has set going will not, it may be anticipated, stop with Mr. Freeman.

The time has certainly come for constitutional history to be written by Conservatives. And yet the presence in this admirable volume of a few pages (394–398), rather more in place in the *Quarterly Review*, suggests the reflection that if Liberal spectacles are not altogether satisfactory for looking at the past, Conservative spectacles are not to be altogether trusted for a complete view of the present.

Memoirs of Frederick A. P. Barnard, D.D., LL.D., L.H.D., D.C. L., Tenth President of Columbia College in the City of New York. By John Fulton. Columbia University Press (Macmillan & Co.). 1896.

WHOEVER expects to find in these memoirs a complete disclosure of those qualities of Dr. Barnard's personality which invested it with a certain halo in the popular imagination, will be disappointed. Something is here to account for that halo—his enthusiasm, his progressive spirit, an undying boyishness in him, responding to the boyishness of his students in one college after another, and securing for their offences generous consideration; but there are other things set down as frankly which make the halo dimmer for our instructed mind than it was when we set out.

Born in Sheffield, Mass., in the year of many great ones, 1809, at the tender age of four he was being schooled by Orville Dewey, the distinguished Unitarian preacher. But, though his education began so early, it was throughout extremely imperfect, and he did not consider that he was ever really educated at all. It is an interesting circumstance that, in the Stockbridge Academy, Mark Hopkins, afterwards the President of Williams College, was continually pitted against Barnard in all sorts of generous intellectual rivalries. Barnard's admission to Yale and his experience there repeat in a general way many other accounts that we have had of the feebleness and slackness of the college at and about the time of his attendance (1824-28). Not having studied arithmetic at all since his childhood, he devoted a few weeks to cramming it, and so discovered the beginning of an aptitude which afterward grew steadily with his growth and strengthened with his strength. At his graduation he was next upon the honor list to Horace Binney, jr., who excelled him in his classics. Barnard was the youngest student in his class.

His predilection was for the law; but inherited, incurable, and increasing deafness compelled a different course. The chapter on his life in Hartford, whither he went directly from college, with glimpses of Catherine and Harriet Beecher, George D. Prentice, Whittier, Park Benjamin, and Fanny Fern, is the most entertaining in the book. He was a man of orations, and his first one was prepared for a Fourth of July celebration at Sheffield in 1829. It was a plea for the Colonization Society's plan of negro deportation. But even this was too radical, the village Elders thought, for popular approval, and he substituted for it one of the regulation sort. His deafness carried him back to Hartford, after a year's tutorship at Yale, to teach in Gallaudet's Deaf and Dumb Asylum, from which Gallaudet had just retired. Similar work followed in New York, whence in 1838 he went to Alabama and remained there until 1854, as professor of mathematics in the infant State University, which on his arrival had just been completely broken up by the insubordination of the students and the resignation of the faculty. Politics as well as education interested him, and an oration which he gave at Tuskaloosa, July 4, 1851, is here reproduced entire. It did not go very near the heart of the matter. The connection of involuntary labor and respectable idleness as cause and effect was the most vigorous thrust. With a mental reservation in favor of slavery, he was eloquent for the Union as "a peaceful asylum of the oppressed"—"the fettered thousands of other lands." As time went on, Dr. Barnard's complicity with the industrial system of the South became much more pronounced. Going to Oxford, Mississippi, as Chancellor of the State University, he ultimately became subdued to what he worked in to a remarkable degree for a New Englander of education and character. As his biographer says:

> "He accepted slavery as an unwelcome fact; he acquiesced in it as an established fact; he defended it as a fact that could not, in his opinion, be annulled or eliminated from the social state of the South; and finally he participated in it by becoming, of his own will, a slaveholder."

Subjected to suspicion, he replied: "I was born at the North; that I cannot help. . . . I am a slaveholder, and, if I know myself, I am 'sound on the slavery question.'"

As the catastrophe drew near, "he was equally indignant at the Northern agitators who were ready to imperil the Union for the sake of hastening emancipation, and at the Southern agitators whom he believed to be plotting the disruption of the Union." "There is not," says his biographer, "the slightest doubt that in his heart of hearts he was a Union man; but he behaved with such consistent prudence that his sentiments exposed him to no danger." Here, and in this connection, it is impossible to avoid a sense of something unsympathetic and sarcastic in the tone of the biographer. Leaving Mississippi, Dr. Barnard remained quietly at Norfolk for some time, and on the fall of that place in May, 1862, he passed within the Northern lines. His doubts were now completely dissipated, and in a little while he was a flaming Unionist, publishing in 1863 a "Letter to the President of the United States by a Refugee" in which slavery was denounced as something worse than "the sum of all villanies." His biographer comments severely on this letter, going so far as to deny that he was a "refugee" in any proper sense of the word. There is something of the manner of Purcell's Life of Manning in the remark that, as a consequence of this letter, "his appointment to some permanent position of honor and usefulness at the North was assured; and, on the resignation of President King, he was elected as President of Columbia College."

The longest chapter in the book gives a brief history of the College, and in the four succeeding chapters the salient points of Dr. Barnard's administration are clearly brought out —his sympathy with scientific studies, with an elective course of study, and with the higher education of women. It is not without good reason that Columbia's College for Women bears his name, although its success may be regarded as an injurious criticism on the method of coeducation for which Dr. Barnard strove, but which he was unable to secure.

Algebra und Logik der Relative, der Vorlesungen über die Algebra der Logik. Von Dr. Ernst Schroeder. Leipzig: Teubner. 1895. Vol. I., Part I. 8vo, pp. 649.

SCHRÖDER'S great treatise on deductive logic, the most extensive that has ever been written, cannot well be neglected in Germany; and it is hard to imagine how any person who has been through the work can ever be again guilty of such logical absurdities as have been scattered hitherto through the very best of German text-books. Everything, or almost everything, so far written about the logic of relatives has made use of some kind of technical algebra. The result has been to convey the idea that the logic of relations is an exceedingly specialized branch of logic. This is not true. At least, those who cultivate it maintain that it is much more general than ordinary logic. They hold, too, that our ordinary reasonings, so far as they are deductive, are not, in the main, such syllogisms as the books have taught, but are just such inferences as are particularly dealt with in this new branch of logic.

To make this plain, they point to the fact that the old syllogistic inference can be worked by machinery, but characteristic relative inferences cannot be performed by any mere mechanical rule whatever. Alike in the forms of inference which they have added to logic, and in the old syllogism, the relativists trace the following steps: first, the choice of premises, and second, the bringing together, or colligation, of the premises chosen, and the union of them in one conjunctive proposition. They show that, even in non-relative logic, there are occasional cases in which there are different ways of connecting premises: and, in the logic of relatives, the ways are simply innumerable, for it makes a difference *how often one and the same proposition is taken as a premise*. This being the case, it is plain that a machine cannot indicate *the* conclusion from given premises, since the number of such conclusions is endless. The different premises having been united into one, this one is subjected to certain inferential transformations, which in the case of ordinary syllogism can be analyzed into two steps. Following upon these, there is a substitution of a "term of second intention," or logical conception, for an ordinary conception of experience; and, finally, this logical term is removed. At every step of this there are different courses which reason may pursue; so that the conduct of the reasoning far transcends the powers of any machine. Nor can our ordinary procedure in thinking possibly be mapped out in advance by turning the crank of a machine.

We will not find fault with Dr. Schröder for devoting his own researches to the solution of problems which American thinkers had put

aside as of inferior interest, on account of their special and technical character; for every inquirer should follow his own bent. Besides, it is extremely useful to place within reach of German philosophers a work which may train them to a really precise logic. We repeat that it would be needless to fear that the work will be passed over in neglect and silence. To affect to treat such a treatise with contempt would, in Germany, expose any man who might attempt it to severe blame. It cannot, therefore, but prove a useful book. Another "Abteilung" of it still remains to appear, although nearly 2,000 large octavo pages are already before the public; and we may hope that, in that concluding part, Dr. Schröder may yet show how some of those who have laid the foundations of this method of studying logic, conceive that it ought to modify those general notions about reasoning and other mental processes which are expressed or implied in the hurried talk of the street, and leave their traces upon all our thought, and also how it ought to modify our general philosophical conceptions—conceptions based far more upon logical analysis than upon anything else.

As this is a branch of study in which American students have done more than their share of the work, our readers may like a slight hint of what the nature of the new light is supposed to be. First, what is the Logic of Relatives? It is a subject treated in all the more complete mediæval handbooks, and hinted at by Aristotle. But it was Robert Leslie Ellis, the editor of Bacon's philosophical works, who first got some idea of how it ought to appear in a modern shape. Namely, instead of analyzing a proposition into subject and predicate, it analyzes it into subject, predicate, and objects—which last it conceives as so many additional subjects. In 1858 Augustus De Morgan published a long memoir on the subject, in which, besides establishing many important truths, he clearly showed that, instead of being a special branch of logic, it is, in fact, a great generalization of the old conceptions. In 1870 appeared the first of a series of contributions by an American writer, Mr. C. S. Peirce, one of which forms the acknowledged basis of the present volume by Dr. Schröder, who, however, has remodelled the whole and made extensive additions. Other Americans have materially advanced the subject, especially Prof. O. C. Mitchell of Marietta, to whose work both Dr. Schröder and Mr. Peirce attach a high value. Students all over Europe have done good work, most of them following more or less closely the methods of Peirce. Mr. A. B. Kempe, however, formerly President of the London Mathematical Society, in an important memoir in the Philosophical Transactions, has struck out an original path.

The first general notion of logic which becomes profoundly modified by the study of relatives, is that of deductive reasoning itself, which the old logic represents to be something purely abstract, intellectual, and virtually mechanical. The new school not only declare that deduction is regulated by choice and a deliberate plan, but, further, that it reaches its conclusions by observation; in fact, they hold that it differs from inductive reasoning mainly in this, that it observes objects of our own creation—imaginary or graphical—instead of objects over which we have relatively little control. This doctrine is not unlike Mill's analysis of the "pons asinorum." It is a two-edged weapon, cutting both of the great philosophical doctrines pretty seriously.

Another common notion of a logical kind which is strangely transformed by the new views is that of generalization. The generalization of the books is, for the Relativists, merely the simplest and least important variety of a process which we will refrain from defining, but of which an example is the passage of thought of the geometer by which he comes to conceive that a straight line returns into itself.

Le Tartuffe des Comédiens. Par P. Régnier. Paris: Ollendorff. 1896.

THIS is a really fine and instructive piece of work. M. Régnier's intention had been to publish an edition of Molière from the actor's point of view, and probably no man is better qualified for the task; but advancing years have circumscribed his ambition, and the present volume is the only one he expects to bring out. This is a disappointment, for "L'Avare," "Les Femmes Savantes," "Le Misanthrope," "Le Malade Imaginaire," annotated and accompanied by studies such as these in "Le Tartuffe," would be of the highest value to students of Molière and of literature in general. The actor who has, to use the French expression, to get into the skin of the character he is to play, must of necessity study that character in its every aspect and in its relation to every other character in the play, to the tone and to the purpose of the play. That is, he must do precisely the sort of work that any genuine student of literature must do in order thoroughly to understand the author and his productions. Every line, every word then becomes important; nothing must be slighted, still less overlooked. The analysis must be exact and it must be comprehensive. And these words fitly characterize the studies and notes of M. Régnier. It is quite safe to say that every lover of Molière, every investigator of the character of *Tartuffe*, will find in this book some new point or some new light upon certain parts of the complex characters of *Tartuffe* and *Elmire*.

M. Régnier discusses the question of the real character of the impostor as a necessary preliminary to the indication of the manner in which it is to be played, and he comes to the conclusion that, to make even a partial buffoon of him, to exaggerate the possibly comic side, is to err gravely. In other words, without naming Coquelin the elder, he condemns the travesty of *Tartuffe* which that commercial actor presented to American audiences after having inflicted it on French ones. The play is a comedy, no doubt, and contains scenes of the highest style of purely comic art, but it goes far beyond that: it is a powerful drama, in which terror thrills the spectator. *Tartuffe* is not only a hypocrite whose sanctified tone and upturned eyes disgust, but a formidable scoundrel, utterly unscrupulous and deadly in his vengeance. These points are admirably brought out by M. Régnier, who has not failed to perceive in the depth and power of Molière's genius, as exhibited in his celebrated play, a kinship to Shakspere's philosophy and profound insight into human nature. Molière's "Tartuffe" stands among the great masterpieces of the French drama, alongside of Corneille's "Polyeucte" and Racine's "Phèdre."

The modest manner in which M. Régnier urges his points and indicates interpretations is very winning, and lends a singular charm to the numerous notes and explanations. Especially worthy of close attention and sure to yield much food for profitable study are his comments on *Elmire*, on the famous "pauvre homme" scene, on the great scene of the unmasking of the hypocrite, and on the final catastrophe. A series of volumes of this description, taking up the masterpieces of French classical tragedy and comedy, would be of incalculable help to teachers and students of literature.

The Silva of North America. By C. S. Sargent, Director of the Arnold Arboretum of Harvard University. Illustrated with figures and analyses drawn from nature by Charles Edward Faxon. Vol. IX. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896. 4to, pp. 190, plates 57.

THE ninth volume of Prof. Sargent's 'Silva contains descriptions of the arborescent species of *Cupuliferæ* which remain after the oaks are disposed of. The latter were brought into volume 8. First come the chestnuts and their nearest allies; then follow in succession the birches, alders, and myricas, and lastly, the willows and poplars. Illustration and treatment continue substantially unchanged. The beautiful plates are full of instructive detail, and exhibit the artistic feeling which has characterized all those which Mr. Faxon has given us before. He is particularly successful in imparting spirit to his larger figures, giving to them an air of freshness and elasticity which is as far removed as possible from the conventional drawings of plants found in many treatises. There is not, at any point, the slightest sacrifice of accuracy for the sake of securing this spirited effect: Mr. Faxon is too profound and true a botanist to permit this; therefore his figures and analytical sketches possess the highest degree of permanent value.

In the present volume the chestnuts are introduced by the great golden-leaved chinquapin of the northwest coast, a tree sometimes reaching the height of one hundred and fifty feet, with a trunk clear of any branches for more than a third of this distance, and ten feet through at the base. It is a member of an interesting genus, *Castanopsis*, which may be fairly recognized as a connecting link between the oaks and the true chestnuts, and is most fully represented in southeastern Asia. Of the true chestnuts we have two within the limits of the area of the 'Silva,' the chinquapin, *Castanea pumila*, and the large chestnut so widely known to all our readers. The latter species masquerades in the present volume under the specific name *dentata*, having had to resign the name it was known by in Prof. Sargent's work on the 'Forest Trees of the United States,' for the tenth census; but it is in good company, since its near relative, the beech, has had to take the name *Fagus Americana* in place of the one used before by Prof. Sargent, *ferruginea*, as well as of the one which has been adopted by a late catalogue, to wit, *atropunicea*. These serious triflings over names are not rendering the study of botany very attractive nowadays. Out of the confusion which precedes a rearrangement there comes a good deal of annoying dust which may be even blinding. It seems, as we have said before, in noticing previous volumes of this work, a pity that the 'Silva' should share in the confusion incident to the times. Many of the names adopted in the 'Silva' cannot satisfy those who are thoroughgoing in their reform; for instance, they cannot be attached to the trees in the proposed New York Botanical Garden, and they do not satisfy the conservatives who have asked that changes should be made only where they are absolutely necessary.

After this comment has freed the mind of the reviewer from all sense of complicity, no-

thing but praise remains for the text. Prof. Sargent and his associates have done all of their work well, and have cast most of it into convenient form. Six species of birch are treated of, five alders, and three myricas, one of the latter being the wax-myrtle, or bayberry. This last is known on the northern Atlantic coast as a pleasant, sweet-smelling shrub, but along the Gulf it becomes a tree forty feet in height, and claims a place in the 'Silva.' The willows, always a difficult group, because they intergrade so freely and are separated from each other only by characters which depend on flowers, and leaves which have to be collected at different times, have been well elaborated in this work. The resources of the Arnold Arboretum have placed at the disposal of the author and artist a wealth of material for description and delineation which is virtually without a rival. The fresh material could be examined at the most favorable times, and the results are apparent in the excellent discriminations. The same may be said of the treatment of the poplars, with which the volume ends.

The Structure and Life of Birds. By F. W. Headley, M.A., F.Z.S., etc. With 78 Illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. xx, 412.

"THE aim of this book is an ambitious one. It attempts to give good evidence of the development of birds from reptilian ancestors, to show what modifications in their anatomy have accompanied their advance to a more vigorous life, and, after explaining, as far as possible, their physiology, to make clear the main principles of their noble accomplishment, flight, the visible proof and expression of their high vitality. After this it deals, principally, with the subjects of color and song, instinct and reason, migration, and the principles of classification, and lastly gives some hints as to the best methods of studying birds."

Our author seems to have lectured on ornithology to his classes and others, and very probably his book represents a syllabus of such discourses. It is largely a treatise on anatomy, with special reference to the evolution of the flying organism and to the physiological mechanism of flight. This is his main insistence, where he is at his best; the "after this" of the above quotation brings the programme to its conclusion at an accelerated pace. The leading facts of avian structure are concisely set forth in the simplest possible terms; the evolutionary features of the case, which no one has doubted since Huxley coined such words as *Sauropsida* and *Ornithoscelida*, are clearly traced. At the same time, we fear that the author brings the pterodactyls into too clear a light, so to speak. All he says is true enough, properly interpreted; but a reader might easily get an impression, not intended to be conveyed, of closer relationships between pterodactyls and birds than actually exist. This old reptilian mechanism for flight was a side-issue, like the present chiropteran modification among mammals to the same volant ends, and not in the direct line of avian descent from dinosaurian ancestry. The author ought not to be misunderstood in this matter, but he is likely to be, on the part of a good many readers. This portion of the work is the best illustrated of any, with numerous clear cuts of the somewhat diagrammatic sort, which are practically more helpful in anatomy than a more perfect representation of the actual intricacies would be. The diction is equally clear; it is crisp, with use of short words instead of long ones as far as possible, showing that the writer is no novice in his craft, though we note a number of misstatements of facts which he could easily have avoided with more care and less haste in making printer's copy.

Whether all that Mr. Headley says of flight will be found agreeable with the consensus of expert opinion on that subject, can be better foretold after the event—namely, when experts shall have come to any considerable agreement among themselves. The author has evidently been a close observer of the facts in the case; he handles them well and comes to some definite conclusions. He also has due regard to the results of others, such as Marey, Alix, Gadow, Fürbringer, Pettigrew, Muybridge, and many more; he is quite competent to discuss the mechanical principles involved, as well as anatomical structure and physiological action; he inclines to credit some of Gätke's views regarding great heights and velocities; altogether, he is well equipped for the aerial expedition—even for the soaring crux of the problem. Yet after all comes this warning, not to say wailing, note in conclusion:

"This ends my account of flight. Much, I hope, has been made clear, but much remains that is inexplicable. Mathematicians will, no doubt, some day arrive at a formula of flight that will claim to be a complete solution of the problem. Nevertheless, birds will still excite the wonder of men. Even those who can quote the formula at a moment's notice will, when they look at a swift doing his sixty miles an hour for mere play, or if they happen to see a soaring adjutant, relapse for a moment into blank astonishment, the mental state of the Pacific islander when a steamship first invades his lonely seas and claims a place in his philosophy. It will always be difficult to forget for long together that, however much is learnt on such a subject as flight, a great deal more remains to be learnt."

Gätke might have written that, and it is always the same when an able, honest observer lays down his quill, and feels how blunt the nib has worn after all he has done. As to swifts doing sixty miles an hour for play, the present reviewer has seen one of them, *Aëronautes melanoleucus* (after Baird, or *saxatilis*, after Woodhouse), doing nearer 260 miles an hour with perfect ease; and a relative of the adjutant-bird, our wood-ibis, *Tantalus loculator*, soaring on motionless pinions a mile or more high, thermometer 115° in the shade, air dead calm (at least where he stood), giving some color to the suggestion that has been made that such birds go aloft to enjoy a nap on the wing in some cooler upper air.

The rest of the book need not detain us much further than to mildly criticise the chapter on principles of classification, which hardly seems up to the mark. Perhaps, however, the author meant to be taken literally, and did not meditate the desirable application of those principles to any extent; for his principles are sound enough. His refutation of the supposed function of chalazæ in making the yolk stay right side up when the egg is rolled over, will worry those who have written in the wake of Owen on that subject. The hoatzin article is a good one—few realize that all such lizard-like birds did not leave the world's stage with the archæopteryx. The book is indexed, if hardly with the minuteness which would have been desirable, and its excellence of manufacture is up to the standard which Messrs. Macmillan have taught us to expect in the issues of their house.

Campaigning in South Africa and Egypt. By Major-General W. C. F. Molyneux. Macmillan. 1896. Pp. viii, 287, 8vo.

THE larger part of this volume is devoted to an account, by an English staff-officer, of the Kaffir and Zulu wars of 1878 and the following year. To the non-professional reader its chief interest lies in the personal incidents, which are well told, and the pen portraits of well-known characters, as Sir Bartle Frere, the Prince Imperial, and Lord Wolseley. Regarded as a history, Gen. Molyneux's narrative is somewhat obscure and hard to follow, even with the aid of his sketch-maps, and is overloaded with technical details. Two facts, however, are very clearly shown: the great difficulty of the country for carrying on military operations, and the valor and extraordinary discipline of the Zulus. From an incident in the closing days of the war, it is evident that they had also a high sense of honor. In this they stand out in sharp contrast to the Boers, judging from the manner in which these treated a comrade of the author's who was so unfortunate as to fall into their hands during the war for the independence of the Transvaal. A most graphic description is given of some of the circumstances connected with the death of the Prince Imperial. The anecdotes related confirm the common impression of him as an impulsive, high-spirited youth, impatient of restraint and burning with a desire to distinguish himself.

There is little that is noteworthy in the General's account of the campaign against Arabi Pasha in 1882. The principal point emphasized is the extraordinary secrecy which Sir Garnet Wolseley kept in regard to his plans—the late Sir Edward Hamley, then commanding the second division, not being informed of them till the army and fleet were in motion. Gen. Molyneux, in describing his life in the desert during the days preceding the battle of Tel el-Kebir, calls attention to a fact, which we do not remember to have seen mentioned before, "That horses do not seem to be deceived by mirage. No matter how thirsty they may be, they never rush wildly to what you imagine to be a lake; and if you know your horse well, after a time in the desert you can always tell by his behavior whether the four-legged dancing thing you are approaching is a horse or a camel."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Broken Links. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
As You Like It. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Barnes, Willis. Dame Fortune Smiled. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Corelli, Marie. Cameos. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
De Medici, Chas. The A B C of Geometry. 25c. Object-Lessons in Geometry. 50c. Study of Geometry. 75c. A. Lovell & Co.
Fowler, A. Popular Telescopic Astronomy. Whittaker. 60c.
Gollancz, Israel. Romeo and Juliet. Titus Andronicus. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 45c.
Hart, Dr. Ernest. Hypnotism, Mesmerism, and the New Witchcraft. New ed., enlarged. Appletons. $1.50.
Johnston's Electrical and Street Railway Directory for 1896. W. J. Johnston Co.
King, Rev. James. Jameson's Raid: Its Causes and Consequences. George Routledge & Sons.
Logan, Edgar. Gerard on Titles to Real Estate. 4th ed, Baker, Voorhis & Co. $7.
Lough, Thomas. England's Wealth Ireland's Poverty. London: Unwin; New York: Putnams. $2.50.
Lowell, F. C. Joan of Arc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Mairet, Jeanne. La Tâche du Petit Pierre. American Book Co. 35c.
Mason, Prof. W. P. Water-Supply. John Wiley & Sons. $5.
McConnell, Rev. S. D. A Year's Sermons. Whittaker. $1.25.
Moore, C. L. Odes. Philadelphia: The Author.
Prescott, E. L. A Mask and a Martyr. Edward Arnold.
Rees, Dr. Thomas. Reminiscences of Literary London. 1779-1853. F. P. Harper. $1.
Sergeant, Adeline. Marjory Moore. New York: A. E. Cluett & Co. $1.
Setoun, Gabriel. Robert Urquhart. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
The Works of Edgar Allan Poe. 8 vols. London: J. Shiells & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $8.
Tuttle, Prof. Herbert. History of Prussia under Frederick the Great. 1756-1757. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Tyndall, John. The Glaciers of the Alps. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Amiel's Journal. II. Macmillan. 25c.
White, Prof. A. D. A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology. 2 vols. Appletons. $5.
Wiggin, Kate D., and Smith, Nora A. Froebel's Occupations. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 30, 1896.

The Week.

THE platform of the Massachusetts Democrats is, as regards the currency, as good as any platform yet made. It adheres to the gold standard; denounces free coinage of silver and purchases of silver; demands the withdrawal of the greenbacks; denounces the legislation of 1878 for their reissue; calls for an elastic "banking currency," and praises civil-service reform. But the best thing it does is presenting the name of William E. Russell as a candidate for the Presidency. No candidate as yet spoken of has as much claim to fill Mr. Cleveland's place. Mr. Russell has already for three terms filled the governorship of a Republican State to the eminent satisfaction of both parties. He is still young and vigorous. He belongs to the new school of politicians who are to save this country from the old ones, if saved it can be. He is the only candidate yet spoken of, of whom no criticism can be made except that he is too good for his party, and that it is not capable of electing him, though it has twice elected Mr. Cleveland. He is one of the few men whom it would honor itself by electing. After what happened to Mr. Cleveland in 1884, and above all in 1892, we shall not say that Mr. Russell has no chance; but both his nomination and election seem too good to be likely. Of all the men who have been yet spoken of for the place, he is the one of whom it can be said that, not only on the currency, but on every matter which concerns the national fame and prosperity, he is himself a platform. We should not need to ask him what he thought about this or that or the other thing, but simply: "Are you the William E. Russell who was Governor of Massachusetts from 1890 to 1893?"

The Republican party of Pennsylvania touched the lowest level of political degradation when, in convention assembled, on Thursday, it declared unanimously in favor of Matt Quay as its candidate for the Republican Presidential nomination, calling him "wise in counsel and brilliant and able in action—at once the type of the American citizen, scholar, soldier, and statesman." Who would suppose, from this description, that the object of it was exposed only a few years ago as a defaulter and embezzler of public funds, placed in his charge as a State official, and that the full evidence of his guilt had been published in newspapers and pamphlets and circulated widely over the country? Had not his political friends made good the loss to save their party from scandal, he would have been sent to the penitentiary for his crimes. Yet now the Republican party in the strongest Republican State in the Union puts him forward as the "type of the American citizen, scholar, soldier, and statesman," and the chief Republican organ of the State has nothing more severe to say of it than this: "The general feeling was in favor of giving the Senator the prestige and position which come from such an expression, and, so far as his own candidacy is concerned, he will stand before the country with the State convention and a large portion of the delegation at his back." Yet this is the same newspaper which said in 1885, when Quay proposed to nominate himself for State Treasurer, that his nomination "would take the lid from off the Treasury and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb." Nothing seems to stand so dumb now in the Republican party of Pennsylvania as its moral sense.

Grosvenor and Manley put out their customary Monday-morning claims for McKinley and Reed, respectively, and are still able to do it without a smile. Each has accurate information, based not on press reports or general rumor, but upon exact telegraphic data derived at first hand from the delegates-elect themselves. Grosvenor's figures, on this irrefragable basis, are 444 for McKinley up to date, and the rest really not worth counting. Manley, on the same basis and with an equally earnest air of being careful to keep well within the truth, reckons McKinley 250, Reed 161, all others 217, and 83 doubtful or contested. The discrepancy argues many more "doubtful" delegates than Manley gives; many delegates must have telegraphed both managers that they were his, heart and soul. Mysterious "changes" are reported in the Oklahoma delegation: all six of them were at first conceded to Reed by the McKinley arithmeticians; now they claim four, on what grounds does not appear—perhaps Reed's belated gold-bug views have given the McKinley bankers a chance to effect a sound conversion. Manley throws out one hint, however, which is enough to chill the most Napoleonic. He intimates that he and his allies control the national committee, and so the temporary roll of the convention; that they will also control the committee on credentials, with all that the name implies. This suggests, no doubt, the true anti-McKinley strategy. Quay long ago gave it to be understood that something like one hundred so-called McKinley delegates would be "fired through the roof of the wigwam" when the convention got down to business.

This is a great year for veteran politicians in the Presidential race. Senator Allison, the Favorite Son of the Iowa Republicans, will be sixty-eight years old when the next President is inaugurated; and ex-Gov. Boies of the same State, whom many Democrats want to enter in the contest, is some months older. Senator Cullom of Illinois is less than a year the junior of Allison. Mr. Morrison of Illinois is already well along in his seventy-first year, and Gov. Morton of New York is sixteen months older. Here are five men who either are septuagenarians already or will become such during the term of the next Presidency, and yet not one of them sees any ground of objection to his candidacy on this account. However, we have one youngster in the race, ex-Gov. Russell of Massachusetts being yet more than a year short of forty.

Speaker Reed has, barring his surrender to the Jingo crazes, kept the House firmly under bit and bridle. For speed and for reasonable economy in appropriating public money, the session has no doubt made an admirable record. But as adjournment draws in sight the wild horses begin to plunge and snort, and the Speaker apparently begins to cave in. The fact that his do-nothing policy has not seemed to mean delegates in his pocket may have something to do with it. The other fact, that his chosen lieutenants in the House, men like Cannon and Hitt, have made so spiritless a fight in their own districts against the McKinley boomers, may also have something to do with it. At any rate, he has felt compelled to do something, or pretend to do something, for the "old-soldier vote," and hence the general pension bill which the naughty Republican House is at last allowed to vote upon. When the pension bill itself was up earlier in the session, Mr. Reed saw to it that all the vicious amendments intended to let the Boys right into the Treasury were ruled out on points of order, despite the wrath of the true lovers of the veterans. But now he has given his consent to a general bill, weakening the defences of the Treasury here and there against the pension raiders, and doing as much mischief as can be done short of going the whole figure of a service pension. A wicked Democrat offered on Monday a substitute providing for a service pension, but this was indignantly denounced as an "attempt to put the Republicans in a hole." They insist upon doing all the putting in a hole themselves, the President's veto being what they aim at and hope for.

The success of the International Arbitration Congress at Washington, which adjourned on Thursday evening, was assured in advance, and the distinguished jurists, educators, and clergy, both Catholic and Protestant, who attended, lent the

weight of high character and great influence, as well as of sound reason, to the resolutions adopted. These recite the uncertain and oppressive nature of war as a means of settling international disputes, to say nothing of its immense evils, and affirm the superiority of arbitration, as well on grounds of material interests and permanency as because of the demands of religion, humanity, and justice. A settled system of arbitration established by treaty is urged as an immediate duty on the governments of the United States and Great Britain, and the extension of arbitration to all civilized nations at the earliest possible day demanded. Thus this congress has proved a fitting climax to the series of local congresses with the same object, and has given expression to the deliberate and intelligent opposition of the men of light and leading in this country to the whole Jingo madness that has been raging in press and Congress for four months past. A noticeable thing about the Washington gathering was the absence of Congressmen, even as spectators. They could not allow it to be supposed for a moment that they had aught in common with the most learned, intelligent, and philanthropic citizens of this country. As if sharply to emphasize their dissent from the congress, two of them chose the occasion for passing the lie in the capitol, and for throwing inkstands and everything movable at each other, while reaching for their knives. A Senator-elect covered with blood by the ferocious assault of a fellow-Representative is the appropriate answer of a Jingo Congress to an Arbitration Congress.

Louisiana's quadrennial election last week resulted in the defeat of a constitutional amendment by which it was proposed virtually to eliminate the negro vote, as was done six years ago in the neighboring State of Mississippi. This amendment proposed to require citizenship, involving a five years' residence, of the foreigner before he could vote, instead of giving him the suffrage upon his announcing an intention to become naturalized; and to require that a man, whether of native or of foreign birth, "shall be able to read the Constitution of the State in his mother tongue, or shall be a bona-fide owner of property, real or personal, located in the State and assessed to him at a cash valuation of not less than $200." This was framed with the intention of being so interpreted and applied as to keep out nearly all the negroes and let in about all the whites. In order to provide for such whites as could meet neither the educational nor the property qualification, the amendment further proposed that the next Legislature should have power, by a vote of two-thirds of all the members elected to each house, and with the approval of the Governor, to modify, change, or amend this article of the Constitution, and that such modifications, changes, or amendments, when so adopted and approved, should become a part of the Constitution without submission to the popular vote. This was the most extraordinary way of changing a constitution ever proposed, and it seemed so dangerous a method to many of the whites that they helped the negroes to defeat the whole amendment.

The Massachusetts Supreme Court has finally got at the latest attempt to "beat" the civil-service laws in that State, and has made as thorough work of it as our own Court of Appeals did of similar trickery. It decided on Saturday that the veterans'-preference law of 1895, which the late Gov. Greenhalge bravely vetoed, but which was noisily passed over his veto by the Republican Legislature, is unconstitutional. "Public offices," declares the full bench of the court, are not created for "the profit, honor, or private interest of any one man, family, or class of men," and "it is inconsistent with the nature of our government that the appointing power should be compelled by legislation to appoint to certain public offices persons of a certain class in preference to all others." Pensions may be voted to veteran soldiers and sailors, on the ground of services to the commonwealth, but it is not within the constitutional power of the Legislature to "give to veterans particular and exclusive privileges distinct from those of the community in obtaining public office." The mandamus prayed for is therefore issued to the Civil-Service Commissioners, the result of which will be to make all examinations hereafter truly competitive, and to compel those already appointed to office, under the law now pronounced null and void, to undergo an examination in order to retain their places. The decision comes as one more tribute to the courts and constitutions as our chief remaining bulwark against the spoilsmen. It will also serve to heighten the reputation of Gov. Greenhalge for sagacity as well as courage in withstanding the raging of the partisan mob.

Mr. Aldridge, the Platt Commissioner of Public Works, has been compelled to yield to the civil-service law, after a year of struggle against it, and has asked the Civil-Service Commission to hold competitive examinations for clerks in the canal department. Last year he defied the commission and the law, and appointed his own clerks, appealing to the courts to sustain him. The recent decision of the Court of Appeals has convinced him that the law is a real one, and is so strong that even the Platt machine cannot break it without suffering the consequences. He finds that if he appoints his subordinates in defiance of the law, he must pay their salaries himself, and this part of the business he does not enjoy. He will obey the law henceforth, expressing freely his contemptuous opinion of civil-service humbug and of the Comptroller of the State in the meantime, by way of solace. The Comptroller is the chief object of his wrath, for if he had consented to violate his oath of office and pay the salaries of Aldridge's illegal employees, there would have been no trouble. We commend Aldridge's fate to Commissioner Lyman of the Excise Department, for sooner or later he will find that he must surrender to the law in regard to his employees.

The *Evening Post* publishes some extremely interesting information about the special "confidential" agents whom Commissioner Lyman has selected to execute the Raines liquor-tax law in this city and in Brooklyn. Great difficulty was experienced in collecting this information because of the obscure life which many of the seventeen special agents for this city lead. Their names are not to be found in the directory, and their addresses were not given at the time of their appointment, for reasons best known to their backers. Three days' search by the reporters failed in some instances to find any one who had ever heard of the appointee. The reason why such secrecy is desirable about careers of this kind is revealed in the brief sketches published. Only a very small proportion of the seventeen men selected for this city have ever followed any reputable business. Their records read like those of Tammany men which the *Evening Post* has published so frequently. Nearly all of them belong to the Boy class in politics, having spent their lives in "dealing" and dickering with Tammany, holding now and then some small political office, and spending most of their time in and around the saloon. In Brooklyn a respectable Special Deputy Commissioner, Col. Michell, was appointed for Kings County. He concluded that he would be allowed to select his special agents, who were to act under him, and he did select them. They were, as a rule, very good men, and went, accordingly, as a mere matter of form, for approval to the head office, where they were all dismissed and a set of Mr. Lyman's own, selected by Jake Worth, the Brooklyn Boss, appointed in their place. They are on the whole a better lot than the New York ones, the Republican party being in Brooklyn rather more respectable than in New York, but they belong to the office-seeking class, and it is fair to presume would eschew competitive examinations, and are distinctly worse than Mr. Michell's appointees. Mr. Lyman's object in refusing to make his appointments through competitive examinations, and his pretence that the positions are in any sense confidential, and that it was want of time which prevented his obeying the Constitution, are thus shown to be on their face dishonest.

The Mayor's approval of the bill forbidding the erection of advertising fences and boards within 350 feet of park entrances,

and along the sides of the parks, makes that most timely and desirable measure a law, probably, for there is no reason to doubt the Governor's approval. Under the law, the Park Commissioners will have power to order the removal of all present eyesores of this most offensive variety, including the monstrosity which has been erected at the head of the Riverside Drive during the past few weeks. Unless a law of this nature had been passed, we should very soon have been forced to ride, along many of our park approaches, through a double wall of garish bill-boards, decorated with all the horror of a sign-painter's skill. The Riverside Drive, with its many vacant adjoining lots, furnishes an exceptional field for this new system of torture, and it was being improved with an appalling recklessness and rapidity. The desecration will have to stop now, and all traces of it will be abolished without delay, for we cannot conceive of the Park Commissioners hesitating for a moment, after the law is signed, in the execution of what must be to them a pleasurable duty.

We do not see how the London *Times* can allow even its "own correspondent" in New York to go on insisting upon having a war over the Venezuela squabble, after Mr. Balfour's statements in the House of Commons on Monday. In fact, the news from both Washington and London gives the lie flatly to the *Times* despatches of last week. The Venezuela Commission give it out that a decision is not to be looked for from them for a long time to come. They also intimate, most unpleasantly, that they are far, as yet, from having any "unimpeachable evidence" that Venezuela ever owned a foot of land east of the Orinoco. This is strange. The Venezuelan case, we understood, was simply overwhelming. As for the British case, we saw that thoroughly "riddled" as lately as Monday in the *Tribune*. These Commissioners are evidently inflated by their own importance, and are ridiculously demanding proof better than that which satisfied the whole of Congress, the Secretary of State, and every well-equipped journalist in the country. No wonder Comptroller Bowler refuses to pay their rent.

If Mr. Chamberlain could have ridden through London in an open barouche with Oom Paul by his side as the captive of his diplomacy, it would have been a great triumph for him. But Paul is too sharp for him. He will not come to London. He will settle in South Africa British interference with the internal affairs of the Transvaal, and there is ugly talk of a racial war, and much fear that the present compliance, in spite of Krüger's prudence, may end in increased hatred and possible hostilities between the English and the Dutch in Africa, which would throw the country back fifty years or more. Mr. Chamberlain's tone has been prematurely topping, and his advice to the Transvaal too patronizing. There is some reason to fear that things can go no further for the present in Africa, and that Mr. Chamberlain may have to carry out his scheme of a zollverein between England and the colonies. The day he is compelled to bring that about will be one of the saddest days in his history.

The French Senate had peculiar provocation, aside from its constitutional conflict with the cabinet, to make a stand for its rights on the vote for the expenses of the occupation of Madagascar. It was only on March 30 that the Government asked money on this account, it having been decided that the existing appropriation would expire on April 30. The Chamber hastened to vote the credit asked, and then adjourned till May 19. This made it necessary for the Senate to accept the bill precisely as it came from the Chamber, without the alteration of an item or a word, or else cause the whole to fail. The danger of thus limiting the Senate's right to amend money bills was pointed out in the Chamber, and that body was asked to adjourn only to a date when the Senate's amendments might still be considered before April 30. But this suggestion was promptly voted down (it is said, under direct prompting from M. Bourgeois), and so the Senate was put in the contemptible position of being dictated to by the Prime Minister. Its response was a flat refusal to vote the money at all until the ministry should recognize its constitutional responsibility to both houses of the National Legislature. On April 2 M. Bourgeois told the Senate that it might vote no confidence as often as it pleased, but that he would not resign. If, however, it dared to oppose him on a question of foreign policy, he would withdraw. He thought he could safely fall back on French Jingoism, but the Senate squarely met him, and resign he did, albeit with much backbiting and grumbling. The passive attitude of the President in all these cabinet squabbles is exciting more and more impatience among men anxious to see every reserve power of the Constitution put in play against headlong democracy and anarchy.

The outcries in France against the Senate are made suspicious by their origin. They speak mainly for the ardent wish of the Socialists and more reckless Radicals to get rid of about the last conservative barrier that stands between them and supreme control over legislation and government. It is not merely a nice question of constitutional interpretation or even of constitutional revision. A radical and socialistic democracy is fighting for a free hand. The Chamber's vote, by a large majority, that it must be preponderant in all conflicts over questions of right, because it represents the principle of universal suffrage, shows the drift. So does the frenzy of the Socialists against the Senate. This existed and was expressed long before the present crisis. On April 12 the famous Bourse du Travail was thrown open again to the labor organizations. This public home of "labor," it will be remembered, had to be closed in 1893 by the Government, on account of the political agitation of which it had become a centre. M. Bourgeois, in keeping with his general radical policy, decided to open it again, stipulating that it should be used purely in the interests of "labor," not of politics. What the unions thought of the stipulation may be inferred from the opening ceremonies. Their spokesman declared that they had come back to their own, and would make the Bourse, as before, the home of a revolutionary propaganda. Cries of "Down with the Senate!" were heard on all sides, the band played "La Carmagnole," and a red scarf was thrown over the statue of the republic. All this was ominous, as were also the shouting mobs that have gathered to hear the Socialist orators.

For some months a violent agitation has been kept up by the medical students in Paris and Montpellier against the practice of admitting foreigners to the medical courses of the universities. They maintain that the influx of foreign students is reaching "disquieting proportions." In 1884 the number entered at Paris was 127; in 1894 it had risen to 169. This does not seem so disquieting a proportion in the total of 6,000. In the German medical schools there were, in 1892, no less than 4,077 foreign students out of a total of some 8,000. But, say the ardent medical protectionists in France, Germany does not allow one of these foreign students to practise medicine in the empire. We, on the contrary, are seeing our great winter resorts in the south of France gradually filling up with a motley array of German, Swiss, Russian, English, and even American doctors. This should be stopped. With the number of good native physicians increasing every year in disquieting proportions, how is the struggle for existence to be supported if the best part of the practice is turned over to interloping foreigners? But the hotel proprietors in the south of France reply that the prejudices of their foreign patrons must be consulted. The English, in particular, simply insist upon being drugged, embalmed, and buried by the loving hands of fellow-countrymen. Some unpatriotic physicians have also mildly objected that it is a good thing to encourage foreign medical students to come to France; that it spreads abroad the fame of French medicine; that it has actually increased the prestige and the fees of the leaders of the profession. The logic of protection is fairly lodged in the student mind, and we all know what terrible fellows the French are in proceeding to logical results.

GOVERNOR MORTON'S POSITION.

THE bill known as the Consolidation bill for the creation of "Greater New York" has passed both houses of the State Legislature over the veto of the Mayors of New York and Brooklyn, and now awaits the signature of the Governor. We have commented already on the methods used in its passage, on the contempt displayed by its promoters for local opinion, on the reliance, in the last resort, on Tammany for the necessary majority, as well as on the extreme smallness of that majority. Should Gov. Morton now sign it, he will, in the eyes of the great body even of his admirers and supporters, have completed the proof that he is in close alliance with Platt. The first instalment was his appointment of Aldridge last year; the second was his appointment of Lord on the Civil-Service Commission, and his removal of McKinstry without reason assigned; the third was his appointment of Lyman, and his uniting with him in an attempt to nullify the State Constitution in the matter of competitive examinations; the fourth will be his approval of the Consolidation bill.

These things suggest several observations, which we make with entire respect for Gov. Morton, but with little hope that they will produce any impression on him. There is no case on record of the nomination for President of a man suspected of being in league with a boss of Platt's description, or who had approved of a boss's methods in his own State. Two men, and two only, in the history of the United States, Blaine and Hill, have sought a nomination largely on the strength of their possession of the kind of skill in "getting delegates" which Platt displays. They both failed miserably. Blaine got a nomination, but it did him no good, for reasons a large portion of which will apply to Gov. Morton's case. In both instances, the voters dreaded to see transferred to Washington the arts and influences which had been successful in the locality from which the candidate came, or for which he was distinguished. Moreover, whatever the local boss may do, conventions nominate with a view to election. They nominate only men whom there is a fair chance of electing, and such chance it is not in Platt's power to give. He is a great man in Albany, but, in so far as his fame has spread beyond the borders of the State, it is malodorous. Outside the State, even among Republicans, he is an odious man. Any one who comes into the convention leaning on his arm will come heavily weighted. The convention will not be affected by the unanimity of the New York delegation, because they will not believe in its sincerity. Of all this, and a great deal more like it, Mr. Cleveland is a striking illustration. In 1892 he had to all outward appearance got no delegates, and was more hated by men of the Platt type in his own State than any one in the party. He had, in their estimation, no chance whatever of either nomination or election. He was both nominated and elected, and carried his own State, with every jobber in his party hostile to him, by a plurality of 45,000. If Mr. Morton's reliance on Platt be justifiable, Hill ought to have been nominated and elected, and Croker ought to be Secretary of the Treasury or Secretary of State.

This State is carried at every election if not by the Independents, at least by persons of an independent way of thinking. We do not need to argue this point. We need only point to the election returns showing the way in which the majority shifts from side to side. It is this class, therefore, which any man who thinks he has a political future needs to cultivate. It is in this class that the bulk of Gov. Morton's friends are to be found. The only sincere rejoicing over his election in 1894 came from this class. It contains a large part of the intelligent, industrious, and thinking population of the State. It desires good government under the laws. It is hostile to bossism, to corruption, and to Cæsarism in every form. For it, the Constitution of the State of New York and the Constitution of the United States are good enough. It desires to stand on the ancient ways, and earn its bread in thankfulness and honesty. It has seen with sorrow and apprehension the growth, in this State, of a system which leaves in neither State nor city a trace of American polity, and substitutes therefor the barbarous, secret, and venal ways of Oriental despots. It was glad of Governor Morton's election because he had filled several other places with honor and efficiency; because he was a gentleman, a man of means and integrity, who, it was believed, would neither countenance nor participate in "ways that were dark or tricks that were vain." That election was considered a protest not only against the financial heresies that were threatening the public credit in the nation at large, but against the process which was, in this State, gradually effacing party lines, and making the Republican leader not only an autocrat like the Democratic boss, but also a partner in Democratic villanies, and setting up a new sort of government, which completely deprived the people of their ancient remedy—the substitution of one party for another in the administration of affairs.

The qualities which, as has been shown in the past, conventions are most apt to honor, are courage and purity of character. For whatever purpose conventions may assemble, this is apt to be the outcome of them. It is not at all likely that Gov. Morton will receive the nomination in return for supporting Platt's schemes. Whatever this may do for him with the New York delegation, the supposition that he has hand, act, or part in Platt's form of government is likely to be fatal to his Presidential aspirations. Much as people have gone through, they are not yet prepared to make the White House a Platt headquarters. If Gov. Morton wishes to succeed, he must keep clear of imputations of this sort, and, above all things, he must look after the reputation he will leave behind, whether he gets the nomination or not. This for him, at his time of life, is the main thing. The wretched creature who is trying to "run" and degrade him for his own purposes will soon pass into the same tomb as Tweed and Croker and Kelly, and, like them, be forgotten and despised. Gov. Morton expects better things of posterity. He wishes to live in men's memories as a gentleman at least, "whose armor was his honest thought, and simple truth his utmost skill."

ASSURANCE OF THE GOLD STANDARD.

THE tide now sets strongly, in the Republican party, toward the adoption in the national convention at St. Louis next June of a platform which will drop the nonsense about "bimetallism" and a "double standard," and declare as clearly and boldly against the silver heresy and for the gold standard as the plank adopted by the Connecticut Republicans last week, which reads as follows:

> "We are unalterably opposed to the issue of unsecured paper currency, either by the Government or the banks, or the free coinage of silver, at any ratio, and favor a single standard of value, and that standard gold."

The only thing needed to convert hesitating politicians to this policy is a demonstration that the adoption of such a platform would insure victory in the election. Happily such a demonstration can easily be made.

The admission of Utah to the Union swells the number of votes in the Electoral College to 447, and makes 224 necessary to a majority. Utah's admission, although the new State has but three electoral votes, emphasizes the changes in the distribution of political power produced during the last few years by the incoming of six other Territories and the new apportionment of Representatives. Cleveland's overwhelming majority in 1892 blinded politicians to the difference between the conditions in case of a close contest now and such elections as those of 1876 and 1888. From the readmission of the Southern States to the Union after the civil war down to the election of 1892, the "solid South"—meaning thereby the sixteen States in which slavery had existed—needed to be reinforced only by the small group of New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey in the North to constitute a majority of the Electoral College. In 1876, if South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana had been counted for Tilden, he would have had 203 electoral votes out of 369, and might have spared Indiana's fifteen and still have had three more than a majority. In 1884, Cleveland had Indiana, New York, and her two neighbors, making with the South 219 out of 401 votes, but he could have surrendered Indiana to Harrison in 1888 and still have

had 204, or three more than a majority, if New York had kept company with Connecticut and New Jersey.

But the sixteen ex-slave States have now only 159 votes out of 447, instead of 138 out of 369 under the apportionment based on the census of 1870, and 153 out of 401 under the 1880 apportionment—but little more than 35 per cent. now, against about 38 per cent. in both of the previous decades. The addition of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut makes only 211 out of 447, or thirteen short of a majority. With Indiana also the Democratic candidate under the old combination of 1884 would have but two more than a majority, instead of eighteen more.

The silverites in the South who talk so glibly about "sweeping the country on a free-coinage platform" evidently know no more about the existing conditions in the Electoral College than they do about the monetary standards of the world. "What do we care if we lose New York," some of them say, "or Connecticut and New Jersey, besides? We can make it up in the rest of the country." They do not realize that, even if they could keep the South solid for a free-coinage platform, they would still need sixty-five electoral votes in the North, not one of which would come from any State in the East. Where would they look for them in the West? Leaving out of account the exceptional conditions in 1892, when Illinois, Wisconsin, and California were carried for Cleveland, there is only one State west of the Alleghanies which the party has carried since 1856—Indiana; and no intelligent observer believes that Indiana could be carried for free coinage this year.

But the mining States? They cut a great figure in the Senate, where the nine States among the Rockies and west of that range have one-fifth of the members, but they cast less than one-twelfth of the electoral votes. If the whole nine went for a free-coinage Democrat, he would have but thirty-six votes from that immense section of the country, and would still be twenty-nine short of a majority; and nobody can study the political record of those States without seeing the absurdity of supposing that they would go solidly for the Democracy on any platform.

The truth is, that the right sort of a Republican candidate, standing on a gold platform, would be sure to carry the country over any Democrat standing on a free-coinage platform. Indeed, one can count up almost votes enough to elect him between the Atlantic and the Mississippi, north of the old Mason and Dixon's line, as will be seen by this summary:

Number of Electoral votes			447
Majority			224
New England	39	Illinois	24
New York	36	Michigan	14
New Jersey	10	Wisconsin	12
Pennsylvania	32	Minnesota	9
Ohio	23		
Indiana	15	Total	214

It will be seen that only 10 more votes are needed, and Iowa, which is as surely Republican as Illinois or Michigan, would furnish these, and three to spare. Kansas with 10, Nebraska with 8, and the two Dakotas with 7 between them, cannot possibly be carried by the Democracy this year. There remain excellent chances for more than one State further West, while in the South, Delaware and Maryland will repudiate free coinage, and West Virginia and Missouri could be hopefully contested by the Republicans.

There is no possible way for the most ingenious Democratic arithmetician to figure out a majority for his party next fall if it shall stand for free coinage. On the other hand, the Republicans can insure victory in November by adopting a gold-standard platform in June.

NEW MEXICO TWENTY-TWO YEARS AGO.

THE proposition to admit into the Union as States New Mexico, Arizona, and Oklahoma renders timely a revival of the now generally forgotten fact that a bill for the admission of the first of these Territories was passed by the lower branch of Congress twenty-two years ago, and that only a happy chance saved the nation from having had another unfit State during the long period since 1874. On the 9th of March in that year a bill was introduced in the House "to enable the people of New Mexico to form a constitution and State government, and for the admission of said State into the Union." The bill was referred to the committee on Territories, which in a few weeks reported it back favorably, and on the 21st of May it was passed by the overwhelming vote of 160 yeas to 54 nays.

Then, as now, the House was Republican by more than a two-thirds vote. Stephen B. Elkins, who had gone West to "grow up with the country," had returned as a Delegate in the lower branch of Congress from New Mexico, and aspired to be one of the first Senators from the new State—failing in which ambition at the West, he later sought a residence in a community nearer the Atlantic, and is now Senator from West Virginia. Mr. Elkins urged the admission of the Territory twenty-two years ago, on the ground that its population then was large enough to justify such action, his estimate being 135,000 souls, and that the lines of railway then under construction or projected through that region would cause a rapid and great growth in the early future. He concluded with this tremendous tribute to King Coal, whose dominion covered the territory from which he hoped soon to become a Senator:

"By an unnatural usurpation Cotton was once called and believed by some to be king; but time and the natural laws of commerce have served to dispel this delusion, and Coal, with his ebon brow, has come to the front, and by unanimous consent has been crowned king for ever, and from his dark throne, with his brother Iron, wields the sceptre of empire over all human industries, his realms being measured only by man's ingenuity. In the United States, the home and throne of this king is in the Rocky Mountains; his children live and rule in the Alleghanies and the Mississippi Valley. The Rocky Mountains will play no ordinary or secondary part in the future of this country. So long unknown, light is beginning to dawn; we are but catching glimpses of the future grandeur and glory of this great empire. In New Mexico the time is not far distant when a thousand furnaces for the reduction of ores will light up the sides of her vast mountains, and this ore, drawn by a thousand engines busy by day and by night, will be poured into the lap of the Mississippi Valley, and millions of sheep, cattle, and horses will feed on her boundless plateaus."

Another argument which Mr. Elkins did not mention was even more potent with most of the Representatives whom he addressed—the belief that New Mexico would strengthen the Republican side of the Senate by two votes, and furnish three Republican votes in the Electoral College. Nevertheless, there were Republicans, especially from New England, who were not prepared to throw away all the principles which they had always professed regarding the danger to the nation of illiterate States. Mr. George F. Hoar, then a Representative from Massachusetts, made some remarks which were exceedingly creditable to the first State that ever imposed an educational qualification for the suffrage. He pointed out that, not many years before, the people of New Mexico had rejected by a large majority a proposition to establish a public-school system; that no such system had been established until 1871; that by the census of 1870 no fewer than 52,220 of the 66,464 persons over ten years of age, or about five-sixths, could not read or write; and that a very large proportion of the people could not speak the English language. He said further:

"Now, while it is true that no man should be debarred from the privileges of citizenship because he speaks Spanish only, or because he cannot read or write (and to the number thus returned in that Territory we may safely add a large percentage, because people frequently say they can write when they can only write a word or two, their own names perhaps), yet it seems to me that when Congress is considering the question whether the people of a Territory shall be formed into a State of the Union, the fact that they cannot perform the duties of American citizenship by voting intelligently on public questions, the fact that the great body of them cannot understand the laws of the country, cannot read the discussion of political questions, cannot obtain information about their interests from newspapers or magazines, constitutes a strong reason why we should require such a community to wait for admission until they are better prepared."

Clarkson N. Potter was then a Democratic Representative from this city, and he made an able argument against the scheme. He rose immediately after Mr. Elkins had paid his glowing tribute to King Coal, and remarked that it was "a thankless task to resist such an earnest and eloquent appeal to the House as the one just now addressed to it," and that gentlemen of his temperament "would find legislation much more agreeable if they could carry it on upon the principle recommended by Mr. Tittlebat Titmouse, who proposed a general bill for giving everybody everything." This being impracticable, measures must be treated with reference to those general public

considerations which ought alone to govern Congressmen, and Mr. Potter proceeded to take up various such considerations. One, upon which he laid much stress, was the influence which the admission of unfit States would have in disturbing the proper relations between the commonwealths in the Senate. Some of his utterances on this point have proved prophetic.

Mr. Potter pointed out that, even twenty-two years ago, sixteen Senators from eight States having a contiguous territory (Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, and Kentucky) represented a majority of the people of the Union. "It is the most absurd thing possible," he said, "to call such a government a popular government." On the contrary, it was in this respect one of the most absurd governments on the face of the earth, and yet it was proposed to make it more absurd by introducing Territories with a mere handful of people, and giving them the right to send two representatives each into the Senate of the United States. Mr. Potter continued:

"I understand that, with the great physical prosperity of the country, such gradual changes are not observed. The attention of men in these hurried days is but too rarely given to the fundamental principles of government. But the time will come when this thing will not be longer tolerated. Every new State forced into the Union with its two members in the Senate of the United States will be a reason for coercing attention to this matter by the great States. What is the inevitable result of the further introduction of small States but to unduly reduce the influence of the older and larger States? Besides this, do not gentlemen know that the inevitable result of giving to the people in those small Territories—I mean Territories with but a small population—representation in the Senate of the United States must be that they will be controlled by influences exercised by men of wealth? I heard it stated not long ago that one of the Senators of a certain State had not been in the State in two years before he was elected. Who are the men elected to the Senate from these small Western States? Are they men who control the railways and mines and wealth of the States or not? Do we desire to repeat the experiment of Nevada, when, after all the years that have followed her admission, there is still a population not half so great as in some agricultural counties in my State?"

Happily for the country, the slow-going Senate did not act upon this matter until near the end of the next short session, when it made some amendments in the bill which the House did not have time to consider, and the measure failed. What we escaped by this lucky chance can be appreciated only when we reflect that the population of the Territory was but about 18,000 larger by the last census than Mr. Elkins claimed in 1874, and that the percentage of illiteracy is still almost 45 per cent., and when we recall our bitter experience since Mr. Potter's day with Montana, Idaho, and other Territories equally unfit for statehood.

ENGLAND'S REVENUE AND AMERICAN TRADE.

Ever since the remarkable statement of the British Exchequer for the fiscal year ending March 31 was published a fortnight ago, the enemies of free trade and sound currency have kept the silence of dismay. When complaint of dull trade and paralyzed industry was loud on every side in our own country, here came the statement of a nation, living under unrestricted trade and a gold currency standard, showing an increase, over the preceding fiscal year, of £7,290,000 in Government revenue, leaving an almost unprecedented annual surplus of £4,208,000, or $21,040,000. This increase was all the more striking and significant in that tax levies, under the British budget-estimate for an approaching fiscal year, are commonly based on the expectation that revenue will hardly exceed expenditures. The extraordinary gain of the past year, therefore, simply means that the trade from which the revenue is derived has expanded far more rapidly than the estimates had anticipated. Nor is it least significant that all this happened with our own national revenue still falling short, by millions, of official expectations.

It was not in reason, however, to suppose that friends of fettered trade and debased currency would rest idle under so startling an object-lesson. We understand that the critics of that school, having now recovered from their first shock of astonishment and dismay, are about to enter on their own explanations of the phenomenon. It is maintained already, by some of these oracles, that the expansion in Great Britain's revenue is distinctly a result of its heavier exports to the United States under the Wilson tariff. Prior to August, 1894, it seems, the profits of British industry were curtailed by the exclusion of their merchandise from our markets. Now, with the bars let down, they are "flooding" our entire market, and heaping up such profits that Great Britain's tax receipts have bounded up along with them. The bearing of this argument, as an authority of similar acumen once observed, lies in the application thereof.

But we greatly fear that the argument of a lower American tariff as the chief factor in British trade and revenue expansion will find some trouble with the figures. During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1895, the United States imported merchandise from Great Britain valued at $159,083,243. This was a large and natural increase over the year of panic and trade stagnation which preceded it. But the fiscal year 1894 was not the "banner year" of the McKinley tariff. It is the year beginning July 1, 1892, and ending June 30, 1893, in which, as protectionists are wont to boast, the McKinley act had its full influence on trade. In those twelve months the United States imported from Great Britain merchandise valued at $182,859,769. That is to say, if the Wilson act has been the only factor in the international trade movement, it has cut down our British imports 15 per cent. since the days of the McKinley law.

We do not suppose that serious and intelligent economists will found on such comparison of the figures any final conclusions regarding the operation of the tariff. The prostration of American industries, through the currency experiments of 1890, has had vastly more to do with the decline of our foreign trade since 1892 than did any change in the customs legislation. The figures do, however, amply demonstrate that the lower duties under the Wilson act have had little or nothing to do with the expanding British trade. A very noteworthy revival in foreign commerce has been going on in parts of the world quite unconnected with American financiering. While annual exports from England to the United States, since the fiscal year 1892-3, have decreased $23,770,000, Great Britain's total exports to all foreign countries have increased $45,000,000.

The London *Economist*, in its comment on the latest trade statement for the United Kingdom, has analyzed this remarkable export movement, which has extended further in the current quarter. The increase, it appears, was largest in the case of textile and metal goods. Of the textile fabrics, China, India, Japan, and Germany contributed virtually all the increase over the preceding year. Worsted goods, however, one of the largest textile commodities of export, "exhibit a falling off in consequence of a check in the trade with the United States." In the metal exports, during the month of March alone, "India took quite nine times the weight of railroad material that was shipped in March last year," while in other metals "South Africa, India, and Australasia are largely increasing their demand." But in shipments to America "there is again a serious falling off." These citations, taken quite at random, are amply corroborated by the figures and illustrate the general tendency. They simply signify that while our nation's enterprise and industry have been lying prostrate under chronic assaults on the standard of the currency and chronic tinkering with the import duties, Great Britain, with its laws fixed for all time in both particulars, has been reaching out after the expanding foreign trade of other nations. While the United States has been wondering vaguely whether it could or could not suppress its trade with Europe, England has been absorbing the new and growing markets of Africa, Australasia, and Japan. It is hardly a matter for surprise that, with this rapid extension of Great Britain's foreign trade, the annual revenue should rise to the index-mark of real prosperity.

This is the truth, looked upon from a commercial point of view. There remains, of course, the vantage-ground of Jingo criticism. We do not doubt that when these indisputable commercial facts have penetrated the thick skulls of our protectionists and inflationists, we shall hear denunciations of England's greedy snatching at the foreign trade of nations. Lodge would punish the grabber, we

imagine, by adopting an unsound currency in the United States. McKinley would get his revenge by putting up absolutely prohibitory bars against our own foreign trade. As for American industries, they have grown used to the Lodges and McKinleys since the triumphs of 1890, and might be expected to take their dose in silence.

THE NEW NATIONAL PORTRAIT GALLERY.

LONDON, April 1, 1896.

M. ALFRED STEVENS is not the only artist who has said boldly that, in painting, subjects may be dispensed with (*en peinture on peut se passer de sujet*). But this is not quite true when it is a portrait that is to be painted. The great artist may, or indeed will, make a sitter merely the motive for a beautiful arrangement of color or of lines; for that reason, however, he does not disdain the lesser task of producing a likeness. On the other hand, there are portraits, quite feeble and incompetent as paintings, that have enormous value historically. Certainly, a national portrait gallery may depend for its interest more upon its subjects than upon the artistic merit of its pictures, as a visit to the new building in St. Martin's Place will prove.

For at last the English collection of historical portraits is hung in a manner befitting its importance. The National Portrait Gallery was founded as far back as 1856, when, it is worth noting, the stately portrait of Sir Walter Raleigh, by Zuccaro, was the first purchase of the Trustees, the famous Chandos Shakspere, presented by the Earl of Ellesmere, the first donation they received. But for many years the pictures were hustled about unceremoniously, finding temporary refuge now in Westminster, now in South Kensington, where a shabby shed gave them shelter, and again in the Bethnal Green Museum, for all practical purposes as remote from the centre of London as the Louvre or the Prado. At the best their hanging in these places was a makeshift. Sir George Scharf, the late Director, might do all that was possible to increase the educational usefulness of the collection, but it is doubtful if any one journeyed to see it except the conscientious tourist and the student of more than average enthusiasm. At Bethnal Green, however, as likely as not, the portraits would have remained indefinitely had it not been for the generosity of Mr. Alexander, who provided for them the permanent home which the richest country in the world was still too poor to furnish at the public expense. The new building adjoins the National Gallery, though altogether separate from it, so that for position no better site could have been found in London. Architecturally, the gallery is not all that could be desired—the rooms are over-small, and in many the light is not so good as it might be. But on the whole it is satisfactory enough, and of course the greatest improvement upon the temporary asylums that preceded it. Besides, Mr. Lionel Cust, the new Director, has hung the pictures to such advantage, with so genuine a respect for chronological continuity, so right a feeling for decorative effect, that the defects of the building are the more easily overlooked and forgotten.

As for the collection itself, now that it is displayed as it deserves (the pictures cleaned and put in good order), no one can exaggerate its interest. Those who agree with Carlyle that, in historical investigations, one of the most primary wants is to procure a bodily likeness of the personage inquired after, will here be enabled to study and master the history of England as they never could in books alone. From Edward III. even to Queen Victoria, the country's sovereigns can be passed in review: Plantagenets, Tudors, Stuarts, Hanoverians—in all their might or weakness, beauty or coarseness; attended by the long train of courtiers, warriors, and statesmen, poets, artists, and scientists, frail ladies and gay gallants, who have made or marred the strength, the greatness, the romance of England. Whatever else these portraits may leave in doubt, one truth is established beyond dispute: not until recent generations has royalty thought so ill of itself as to commission the least accomplished artists to paint the royal portraits. From Holbein and Zuccaro to Winterhalter and Angeli is a far cry; and late Hanoverian rooms must inevitably dwindle into dulness and insignificance after the splendor of the early Tudor and Stuart series. Once, in England, it was the pride of kings to play the patron of art with some discretion and to their own greater glory. They may have appreciated the quality of the work as little as their degenerate successors, but, in justice to themselves, they sought their portrait-painters always among the most distinguished artists of the day; and their court, dutifully, as a court should, followed suit.

This is the reason why, from the æsthetic standpoint, the earlier rooms in the Portrait Gallery are the most delightful. Trustees and directors, of course, have not enjoyed unlimited freedom in their selection; often enough, being obliged to take what they could get—at times, the copy instead of the original, at others relying upon the follower if the master was beyond reach. But when all artists of a school accepted the fine convention of its leaders, even lesser achievements, even copies, were not without style and distinction. There are finer Holbeins in the National Gallery; the one beautiful Antonio More (a Sir Thomas Gresham, simple, severe, stately), and the two or three Zuccaros (Elizabeth, queenly and imperious, beruffled and bejewelled; Raleigh, with pearls in his ears), are outnumbered by the works of unknown artists. But, for all that, the room in which the Tudor portraits hang has a splendor of decoration not to be surpassed in any other section of the Gallery. The traditions of these men were not dishonored by Geeraerts—it was he who painted Mary Sidney, Countess of Pembroke, "subject of all verse"; by Mierevelt—and the rich harmonious Sir Horace Vere, a landscape in the Low Countries, then a battleground for English soldiers, painted beneath, may be counted his masterpieces; by Van Dyck—not so well represented, however, save in his dignified portrait of Sir Kenelm Digby; the plain, homely features of that "prodigy of learning, credulity, valour, and romance," made familiar to the fortunate possessors of his 'Receipts in Chirurgery and Cookery,' by the engraving therein published as frontispiece.

A special interest is given to this period by the appearance on the walls of the first two English painters of note, William Dobson and Robert Walker, neither as famous to-day as he should be. Dobson was called by Charles I. "The English Tintoret," and, now and then, in the winter shows of Old Masters at the Royal Academy, there is to be seen a canvas by him which proves that King Charles was not far wrong as a critic. But here, though his several paintings give some idea of the breadth and elegance of his style, none is so worthy of him as his own portrait, an arrangement in brown, with not a little of the swagger with which Velasquez loved to paint himself. Walker threw in his fortunes with the Parliament rather than with the Court, and Cromwell sat to him more than once. His "Cromwell," included in the national collection, is less plain of feature, less stern of aspect, than some other of the Protector's portraits, and an unexpected touch of jauntyism—"dandiacal," it should have seemed surely to Teufelsdröckh—is lent to it by the obsequious attentions of a youth in red who ties a scarf upon his hip over his armor.

With the second Charles we come to a lavish array of Lelys and Knellers—a series of portraits as gay and extravagant, as sumptuous and amusing, as the court life of the times. To look at all their splendid courtiers, in flowing curls and dainty velvets and silks, at all their lovely women arrayed like courtesans and posing as shepherdesses, is to read with new understanding the plays of Congreve, the memoirs of Gramont. The Gallery is very rich in examples of these two men: almost all, portraits to be remembered with pleasure for their beauty no less than their associations; a few, perhaps, leaving a stronger impression than the others—the Sir William Temple, by Lely, for instance, because of the charm of his face, that one likes to fancy with the gardens and groves of Moor Park for its background; the Buckingham, by the same painter, because of the cynical wickedness stamped upon every feature; the Congreve, by Kneller, resplendent as the mere "gentleman" whom Voltaire would never have travelled to see. Standing out with distinction, holding their own in the midst of the gorgeous flamboyancy of Lely and Kneller, are three small portraits by Hogarth: one of himself, a grotesque little figure at his easel in a room wonderfully full of atmosphere and light; another of Lord Lovat, awkward and big, and somehow suggesting the lumbering form of Dr. Johnson.

The generation of painters that could boast the names of Reynolds and Gainsborough and Romney follows next in order, but hitherto their masterpieces have not come in the way of Trustees and Directors. The National Gallery can make a more brilliant showing; the Winter Academy serves as reminder of the treasures which could so appropriately find a place on national walls. Good portraits by them there are of course: Reynolds's well-known Goldsmith, with the humorous, ugly, attractive face; Romney's masterly sketch of himself; Gainsborough's General Lawrence in scarlet coat—to mention but three. Still, in this period there are great gaps which, it is hoped, will gradually be filled; for, assuredly, now that Englishmen have learned the value and importance of their national portraits, they will be eager to make the collection as perfect as possible. Opie, Hoppner, Lawrence, Raeburn, Beechey, do their utmost to maintain the beauty and stateliness of the walls, until these are given over to the commonplace of the quite modern pictures. Not even Mr. Watts's generous gifts of portrait of famous men, painted by himself, can relieve the dull Victorian dreariness, to which Winterhalter's "Prince Consort" and the copy of Von Angeli's "Queen Victoria" seem to set the standard. As far as the artist is concerned, the latest rooms of all might as well have remained closed for ever. But, in a portrait gallery, as I have said, there are other interests to be considered.

It is when one studies the collection for its associations, personal or romantic, that it is found most inexhaustible. Not more than the slightest hint of its wealth, in this respect, is possible in the space at my disposal. If it is the history of literature that appeals to you most keenly, you may here come face to face with almost all your literary heroes, beginning with the primitive Chaucer—the Chandos Shakspere, rings twinkling in his ears; a Ben Jonson, red and coarse, the bricklayer rather than the poet's rare Ben; a Drayton all too self-conscious in his laurel wreath, down to the sketch of Stevenson by Mr. Richmond, the portraits of Browning and Tennyson and Rossetti by Mr. Watts, added but yesterday. And, as a rule, they are grouped on the walls as they were in life: there is a Queen Anne room full of poets and essayists, in turbans—Pope, unexpectedly discovered with a blue eye in one portrait, with a brown in a second, hanging by its side. And again you meet in company Byron (in an Albanian costume), and Keats and Leigh Hunt, Coleridge and Southey and Lamb—Lamb attired by Hazlitt in a Velasquez dress for the occasion, looking very old-masterish and impressive. And there is a little corner where Mrs. Browning in ringlets, and George Eliot with hair drawn primly down over her ears, and Christina Rossetti as her brother drew her, and Miss Strickland in velvet and pearls, as were proper for a "high-priestess," as Mrs. Carlyle called her, and a round, cheery little Miss Mitford, and a matronly Hannah More hang in company—with the women writers; sex rather than time being the bond of relation.

The history of artists is as amply illustrated; many following the example of Dobson and Walker and Hogarth, and painting their own portraits. Among them you may see Reynolds, an ugly youth, shading his eyes with his hand; and Benjamin West, as handsome as Gilbert Stuart could make him; and Barry, inspired by his own face as he never was by his allegorical and symbolical flights; and Blake, his simplicity of character apparently incomprehensible to Phillips, the Academician; and Bonington, in high stock, the typical youth of 1830, as Delacroix must have known him in the days when they shared their studio. But how go through the list? Or how, without making a new catalogue, record the names of all the actors and actresses whose familiar faces look down from these enchanted walls? How record the endless succession of soldiers and sailors and statesmen who have been the very backbone of England's power and might? They are almost all here—only a very few missing. And there is not a portrait that is not labelled, names and dates carefully given; sometimes, as well, a quotation, or a line, of one kind or another, to jog the sluggish memory. "It has always struck me that historical portrait galleries far transcend in worth all other kinds of national collections of pictures whatever," Carlyle told Earl Stanhope in the first embryonic days of the Gallery. Could he see it now, he would be but strengthened in his opinion. London possesses no more interesting national institution than the Portrait Gallery which has just been opened. N. N.

THE COMPLETE "FAUST" ON THE GERMAN STAGE.

WEIMAR, April 7, 1896.

"Oft wenn es erst durch Jahre durchgedrungen,
Erscheint es in vollendeter Gestalt."

SLOWLY but surely the great dramatic poem in which the genius of Goethe found its fullest expression is emerging into view for the Germans in its "finished form"; and this progress is due not so much to scholars and teachers, though these have their modest share in the work, as to the theatres, which are always the most potent agency for the popularization of the classics. It would be too much to say, no doubt, that the Second Part of "Faust" is likely to become truly popular even with the help of the stage, but people are at any rate becoming accustomed to it. Some of the best theatres, notably that of Leipzig, have dropped on principle the practice of giving the First Part alone. The rendition of the complete "Faust" at Weimar has become a regular annual festival. The Vienna performances have long been famous, and now, since last year, Munich has a new adaptation of its own. In short, the work has been played so often, in so many places, and with such success, that its dramatic availability, within the limits imposed by time and space and human powers of endurance (behind the curtain and in front of it), must now count as an established fact. The interesting question is no longer, Whether? but, How?

In thus doing its part to make the real "Faust" known the stage is atoning for its own sins and for sins not its own. For many years after the death of Goethe the Second Part was pretty generally held to be poetically worthless. The idea prevailed that the poet had written in his prime a sufficiently complete tragedy, of wonderful depth and power, ending with the death of *Gretchen;* and that then, in his old age, when his poetic powers had failed, he had unluckily tacked on the Second Part as an after-thought, making of it a repository of allegories, crotchets, and mysticism such as could only torment the real lover of poetry. It was not very surprising, therefore, that the First Part, which had not only become a literary classic, but had begun to be played with success before the completion of the entire work, should go on its course as a successful stage-play in serene disregard of its late-born complement. To play it alone seemed not only permissible, but actually like coming to the rescue of the real Goethe, the great Goethe, against his own senile aberrations. And then the composers came in with their work. Berlioz did not scruple to appropriate Goethe's lines for a radical perversion of Goethe's purpose—an artistic *lèse-majesté* which musicians sometimes still try to condone. Gounod wrote his famous opera, which has familiarized myriads in all parts of the world with a portion of Goethe's plot, but is nevertheless a mere travesty of Goethe, though matters are mended somewhat if it is given, as it really ought to be, under the name of "Marguerite." Thus the whole influence of the stage made for the dissemination not only of imperfect but of wrong impressions concerning Goethe's masterpiece.

For the inevitable effect of giving the First Part alone, whether as play or opera, is to focus attention upon the love-story. *Gretchen* becomes the real centre of interest; and as for *Faust*, one hardly knows what to make of him. His character appears detestable in spite of the Devil, and the naïve mind has no further use for him. Perdition seems the right fate for him if for anybody. One is driven to surmise that the poet must really have intended a tragedy of sin and damnation on the lines of the old legend. And when reminded that the Prologue cannot possibly be read on any such supposition, one is tempted to take refuge in the theory of a change of plan; the theory that the poet actually started his hero for hell, and then, midway in his course, decided (so to speak) to reverse engines and make for Paradise under the flag of Pelagian universalism. But this theory, though it still finds occasional defenders, is to my mind untenable in the light of present knowledge. No one can tell definitely and positively just how the young Goethe conceived the moral of the tragedy which he was destined to finish after a lapse of sixty years; but it is very certain that there was no damnation in his programme. Perhaps there was no salvation either; for he had invented a mythology of his own which took no account of the traditionary heaven and hell. *Faust* was thought of as a soaring idealist driven to desperation by much brooding over human limitations and the general badness of life. The Devil was to be a tormentor who should recommend the pleasures of time and sense as an antidote for intellectual troubles, knowing full well, however, that his victim would never be satisfied. Very likely there was no question of a mortgaged soul; the Devil was to get his reward as he went along. *Faust's* tragedy, possibly, was to be the universal tragedy of death, following upon a particularly energetic quest for the greatest possible fulness of life. He was to go down before a stronger power—the Power that had decreed man's finiteness and mortality. But that he was to go down morally, turn traitor to his better nature, and fall at last into the clutches of the mediæval Devil—of such a purpose there is no clear indication from first to last.

In the middle portion of his life, without needing to modify his youthful plan radically, Gothe determined to convert the old theological legend of sin and damnation into a drama of mental clearing-up, of reconciliation to life through life, and to "save" his hero in the traditional sense. The *Faust* of the First Part was now conceived as a wanderer in the dark who was to be led out into the light. This meant a Second Part, an ascent following the descent. We know now, too, that the idea of this Second Part, and to a great extent also its details of plot, were distinctly present to Goethe's mind during the years in which the First Part was receiving the form in which the world knows it. This being so, one sees at once that any representation of the story which ends with the death of *Gretchen* is not really Goethe's "Faust." It leaves a false impression, except, indeed, as the spectator mentally corrects what he sees from what he knows.

But this consideration would have to count for little if the Second Part were highly abstruse or dramatically weak. As a matter of fact it is neither. One can easily find fault with its occasional long-windedness, its mannerisms of style, its now and then tantalizing symbolism. Still, the great fact remains that, speaking broadly, the matter of the poem was seen with wonderful vividness and described with superb art. Signs of decadent power are obvious only in a portion of the fourth act, which was the very last to be completed; elsewhere there is not a weak line to be found, though there *is* some curious diction. As for the abstruseness, that has for the most part been read into it. And it is all dramatic, too. The feasibility of playing the "Helena" was discussed by Goethe in 1827 with Eckermann, who had remarked that the piece made severe demands upon the reader. "But it is all sensuous," Goethe answered, "and if you think of it as acted it will strike the eye favorably. More I have not intended. Enough if the general mass of spectators find pleasure in what

they see; the higher import will not escape the initiated." What Goethe here says is vastly important and applies equally to the other portions. It is all sensuous, meant to be seen and heard; and the reader who has no chance to see and hear must visualize as best he can. The symbolism will take care of itself according to the degree of his general culture. Thus the stage is the best corrective (next to common sense) for those vagaries of allegorical and metaphysical interpretation which gave the poem in an early day such a dubious repute.

It was perhaps a consequence of the words just quoted that Eckermann, shortly after Goethe's death, undertook to prepare a stage-adaptation of the Second Part alone. Wishing to save the entire seventy-five hundred lines, he decided, with more piety than practical judgment, to distribute them over three evenings. In due time he sent his first "evening," with music by Eberwein, to several prominent theatres, all of which declined it. It was finally played at Weimar in 1856, but once was enough. Previous to this, however, namely in 1849, a portion of the Second Part was produced successfully at Dresden under the name of "The Rape of Helena." The piece was the work of Karl Gutzkow, who put together parts of the first, second, and third acts and made up a kind of semi-independent "phantasmagory," such as Goethe himself had at one time thought of. This was not "Faust," but it was a beginning which showed that Goethe had been quite right in supposing that his work would "please the eye." About the middle of the fifties, accordingly, the Second Part was laid hold of by a Hamburg man, Wollheim da Fonseca, with a view to exploiting it for stage-effects. He not only cut the text unmercifully, which is allowable and even necessary, but he added much matter of his own, amalgamated the characters of *Homunculus* and *Euphorion*, made *Helena* the ghost of *Gretchen*, et cetera. In short, like the recent London ballet of "Faust," this adaptation made no pretence of fidelity to Goethe; but it was given with success at Hamburg, independently of the First Part, and was afterwards repeated in several other places.

The first attempt to play the whole "Faust" in a spirit of decent loyalty to Goethe's plan was made at Weimar in 1875 by the late Otto Devrient, who arranged the poem as a mediæval "mystery in two days' works." The first performance was a great success, and Devrient's adaptation has since been given in many places. It is still regularly used at Leipzig and Weimar, though with many deviations from the printed book. The three-storied mystery-stage never really existed, but was invented by the elder Devrient to obviate the evil of frequent and tedious changes of scene behind the curtain. In the middle of the stage and somewhat back, one sees a raised arch with a hole underneath. This hole is "hell," its character being suggested by a series of black dragons and chimeras drawn against a fiery background and revolving for a while in an endless chain. On either side is a low flight of steps leading to a second story, which is "earth," while a third story farther back represents "heaven." In the Prologue, *Mephistopheles* emerges from the hole and lounges on the steps while talking in presence of the angels with the Lord in "heaven." In the performances I have seen, the Lord was invisible behind "clouds," but on the mystery-stage, at any rate, he should appear to the eye in the guise of an old man—the Ancient of Days. So, too, the archangels' parts were sung by women, but they ought to be spoken by men. In the further course of the action, where no heaven or hell, but very much earth, is required, Devrient's three stories are utilized in various ways—conveniently for the stage-director, but in a manner destructive of all illusion. In view of recent progress in the art of "open transformation," as the Germans call it, the mystery-stage seems hardly worth keeping. It costs more than it comes to, and Goethe, at any rate, had nothing of the kind in view.

Devrient's version gives the First Part very completely, cutting judiciously here and there, but omitting nothing except the irrelevant Intermezzo. This makes a performance more than five hours' long, which is rather too much of a good thing. At Leipzig this time was shortened a little by omitting the Walpurgis-Night, but it would be much better to sacrifice the Prelude, which has nothing to do with the play and sounds like a school exercise in declamation. On the other hand, the Second Part is reduced by free cutting to about four hours and a half. The superb opening scene—sunrise in the Alps—produces a fine effect on the stage, though not so fine as one might be led to expect from its matchless literary charm. The fairy-choruses become, of course, a ballet. The *terza rima* does not declaim easily, and the deep pregnancy of the lines is easily marred by an inadequate *Faust*. The first scene at the Emperor's court takes but moderately well. The masquerade becomes a short, bizarre spectacle, with much pantomime, leading up quickly to the Emperor's signature of the wonder-working greenback. The paper-money scene, to the reader a priceless bit of satire, is distinctly weak on the stage, but *Faust's* descent to the realm of the Mothers and the subsequent evocation of *Paris* and *Helena* call out strong applause. The Baccalaureus scene is a little less effective than its pendant in the First Part, but the scene in *Wagner's* laboratory quickly restores interest. *Homunculus* comes into being, under *Mephisto's* passes, as a tiny human figure in a large glass jar which is carried about the stage by the Devil. The figure is made luminous by a fine electric wire, and its voice proceeds from an invisible Fräulein. The motley army of classical spooks which Goethe conjures up for the Walpurgis-Night is reduced to a matter of Sphinxes, Griffins, Sirens, and Phorkyads; these last being conveniently housed in "hell." The festival in the Aegean Sea is omitted. *Faust* gets quickly to the temple of Manto without the aid of a visible Centaur, *Mephistopheles* borrows the guise of a Phorkyad, and a sudden open transformation brings on *Helena* and her Trojan maidens. The classical portion of the third act is greatly condensed, but, after the magic shifting of the scene to *Faust's* castle, the text is given much more fully. The love-idyl in Arcadia is picturesque rather than dramatic, but the *Euphorion* scene is both in a high degree, and, when well given, takes the house by storm. In the fourth act we are brought very soon to *Faust's* grand scheme of dyke-building. The battle is quickly disposed of, and we see the formal bestowal upon *Faust* of his swampy fief by the sea. The fifth act easily surpasses all that precedes in dramatic interest. The warder's song from his tower, the burning cottage, *Faust's* defiance of Dame Care, his final burst of energy, his death, the digging of his grave by the Lemurs, the battle of the devils and the angels for the possession of his soul—all these form a series of pictures which any lover of the poem may well wish to see with the bodily eye. Once seen they are not soon forgotten. On the other hand, the final apotheosis presents a problem which the stage can solve at best but very imperfectly. The sacred mount and the holy anchorites are omitted, and we are brought directly to "heaven," with the Mater Gloriosa on the throne. But the play ends weakly in comparison with the book. The modern adult finds it hard to take a stage heaven naïvely.

The success of the first Weimar performances was such that the staging of the complete "Faust" at once became a practical problem for the managers. Some of them, averse to the mystery-stage, went back for the Second Part to the Hamburg adaptation of Fonseca. This was revived in various cities, notably in Dresden, where, in a greatly improved form, it is still made use of at the Court Theatre. In other places experiments were made on the line of maximum fidelity to Goethe's text. This principle was carried farthest at Hanover, where the play was spread over four evenings; and at Mannheim, where the performance lasted until two o'clock in the morning. These experiments proved ephemeral. Quite different was the case, however, with the new adaptation brought out by Adolf Wilbrandt in 1883 at the Burgtheater in Vienna. This achieved a memorable success, maintained itself in popular favor, and has lately appeared in book form with an excellent preface by the "author," himself a well-known dramatic poet. Aside from his discarding of the mystery-stage, Wilbrandt differs most radically from Devrient in that he takes three evenings for the play. The first ends with the rejuvenation of *Faust*, the second comprises the love tragedy, and the third is devoted to the Second Part. In this arrangement the First Part is given very fully, even the lyrical dedication being included; but the Second Part is reduced very much as by Devrient, though with manifold differences in scenic details. But, in spite of Wilbrandt's undeniable success, there are serious objections to the bisection of the First Part. "Faust" is not a trilogy, and ought to be played in two evenings. Experience has shown, moreover, that it *can* be played in two evenings of tolerable length without sacrificing anything really essential to Goethe's plot. It is not a case for worship of the letter. This view, which seems to be taken by most of the German critics, has lately been carried into effect at Munich in a new adaptation by Possart. This was produced about a year ago and received with prodigious enthusiasm. It has since been repeated, and bids fair to become a permanent attraction of the Munich Court Theatre.

This review will suffice, though I might offer more evidence of a similar character, to justify the statement with which I set out. There are no longer people who think that the complete "Faust" cannot be played, though there are those who think it ought not to be played. These delight in raising the cynical query how far, after all, that "higher import" of which Goethe speaks really comes home to an average audience in the theatre. All one can say on this subject is that everything depends on the preparation the spectator brings with him. No doubt many of Goethe's lines are too subtle, too deeply charged with experience, with history, with criticism of life, to be instantly grasped by the casual playgoer. The ideas, and the connection of ideas, will often be Greek to him because they correspond to nothing within his range of experience. But then that is true of all great plays. The theatre does enough, and does much, if it provides for people of some refinement a steady and elevating enjoyment of what they see and hear. And this is possible if the general drift of the

play is clear as it proceeds. He who would understand the great poets thoroughly must e'en study and grow older.

CALVIN THOMAS.

Correspondence.

"NAKED BED."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This expression, which was common, for centuries, in seemingly hypallatic constructions, which occurs in Shakespeare, and which is abundantly illustrated by glossarists, I adverted to, incidentally, in your 1,508th number. From my store of quotations for it I select, as follows, a few that are, comparatively, of late date:

"My love . . . suddenly leapt out of his *naked bed*." Anon., *Cloria and Narcissus* (1653), Vol. I., p. 174.

"In the Interim he was forced to support his Weak Body with a Stick; Or else he would sit in a Chair, but very rarely come into his *Naked Bed:* Only he kept himself in his Cloths, with his Head upright." Sir Roger L'Estrange, *Twenty Select Colloquies of Erasmus* (1680), p. 178.

"Yet she never scrupled to oblige him so far as to undress and go even into the *naked Bed* with him once every week." Anon., *The Adventures of Rivella* (1714), p. 49.

"This young lady went into *naked bed* in her cabbin." "She protested she would never go into *naked bed*, on board ship, again." Thomas Amory, *Life of John Buncle* (1756–66), Vol. I., pp. 94, 95 (ed. 1770).

To come into naked bed, for instance, denotes, as all students of English should be aware, "to come naked into bed"; it having formerly been long the custom, more or less, to sleep without a night-dress. And even now this way of speaking survives in Scotland, if not likewise in Yorkshire. Aged people about me, here in Suffolk, all remember it as having been current in their younger days.

One cannot but suppose that *in naked bed* must have been understood, at any time in a good number of bygone generations, in a sense different from that which it bore when first introduced. Unquestionably it was owing to mere thoughtless parrotry that it was retained, after the fashion of sleeping nude was given up, to mean, with reference to the wearer of a night dress, simply "in bed." Such being the case, it furnishes an example, in linguistics, of a tradition whose origin and import have been forgotten. Its use on Cape Cod, mentioned by your correspondent "P.," in restricted connection with a person confined to his bed by illness, as in "he is sick in his *naked bed*," is a noteworthy and interesting local Americanism.

"His coward lips did from their colour fly." Here Shakespeare hypallagizes. Only when inspected superficially, however, is there hypallage in the phrases spoken of above. *Naked bed* is there really a compound, and of the same class as *sick-bed, sick-room, blind-asylum, mad-doctor, poor-house.* In technical language, it is a combination expressing attributive relation, and should, for distinction, be changed to *naked-bed.*

Tempest, which, also, according to "P.," is synonymous, on Cape Cod, with "thunder-storm," has the same signification throughout East Anglia. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, April 15, 1896.

Notes.

THE following are among the most recent announcements of Macmillan & Co.: 'Women in English Life, from Mediæval to Modern Times,' by Georgiana Hill; 'The Education of Children at Rome,' by George Clarke, Ph.D.; and 'Outlines of Economic Theory,' by Herbert J. Davenport.

An active lieutenant of O'Connell's is commemorated in a work which T. Fisher Unwin, London, has in press: 'A Life Spent for Ireland: Leaves from the Diary of W. J. O'Neill Daunt,' edited by his daughter, with a preface by Mr. Lecky. Mr. Unwin will further bring out 'Bohemia,' by C. E. Maurice, in the "Story of the Nations" series; 'The Africander,' by E. Clairmonte; and Gaston Boissier's 'The Country of Horace and Virgil,' translated by D. Havelock Fisher.

A fresh batch of reprints may fitly lead off with the Murray-Putnam edition of George Borrow's 'Bible in Spain,' in two volumes of liberal typography, which follow close in time upon Macmillan's reissue of 'Lavengro.' The title fairly masks a stirring tale of travel and adventure which must ever interest the reading public in the eccentric author. A late historian of Spain, Ulick Ralph Burke, supplied for this edition what he did not live to see in type, viz., a very useful sketch of the political evolution of Spain after the Napoleonic wars and down to the time of Borrow's first visit in 1835, together with abundant notes, historical, geographical, and illustrative—the last much needed for an allusive writer. An itinerary, maps, and several photogravures and etchings of landscape and architecture complete the thoroughly good workmanship of this edition.

More showy than the foregoing are volumes iii. and iv. of the translation of Barras's 'Memoirs' (Harpers), of which we need say nothing except that they contain an index to the entire work. After making acquaintance with this writer in the first two volumes, one has little disposition either to trust or to read him further. The translator cannot be accused of making him attractive by a readable, idiomatic version. He slavishly follows the French even to the habit of the tenses, and is quite devoid of ease or skill. But whoever owns the first half of this work will want the conclusion.

The translation of the correspondence between Renan and his sister Henriette, of which our readers have already had an account, has fallen to Lady Mary Loyd ('Brother and Sister,' Macmillan). It may be read with pleasure. The print is excellent, and there are portraits of the author and of the subject of the Memoir which precedes the letters.

From the same house we have the third volume of Björnson's novels, 'A Happy Boy,' and a charming little volume composed of 'Sir Thomas Browne's Hydriotaphia and the Garden of Cyprus.' The editor in this case is the late W. A. Greenhill, M.D., whose conscientious labor on behalf of a brother physician has established an improved text, while supplying notes, indexes, glossary, and bibliography. A plate of burial urns and two title-page facsimiles are among the ornaments of this classical pocket companion.

The widow of Prof. Tyndall has very advisedly consented to a reissue of 'The Glaciers of the Alps,' which is still in request after thirty-six years, though long out of print. It is handsomely presented by the Longmans.

A fresh lease has just been given to Prof. Barrett Wendell's novels 'The Duchess Emilia' and 'Rankell's Remains,' by Charles Scribner's Sons, who have succeeded to the Boston publishers of a decade ago.

There is some invention in Albert Lee's 'Tommy Toddles' (Harpers), in the vein of 'Alice in Wonderland,' but the punning is flat and meant for the gallery of elders, the verse intolerable; and the misuse of *shall* and *will* alone should rule the book out for children. So we have praise only for Mr. Peter Newell's illustrations, at once original and humorous, with here and there a decorative stroke of no mean quality. Collectors have long since marked this artist's productions for preservation.

Brief genealogies of three related families of Hassam, Hilton, and Cheever have been bound together for private distribution by the author, Mr. John T. Hassam of Boston. In an earlier monograph on 'Ezekiel Cheever and Some of his Descendants,' Mr. Hassam had proved that this famous old master of the Boston Latin School was not the author of portions, at least, of a MS. book of Latin and Greek verse deposited as his composition, by one of his uncritical descendants, in the Boston Athenæum. He now reverts to the subject in the present volume, reprinting the MS., and adducing other sources from which the collection was derived. Moreover, the handwriting is not Cheever's. Probably no item of the contents proceeded from his muse.

Burdett's 'Official Intelligence' for 1896 (London: Spottiswoode & Co.), a stout volume of 2,130 pages, contains a mass of thoroughly compiled and arranged information on all securities dealt in upon the London Stock Exchange, including Government stocks, home, colonial, European and American enterprises of all kinds, and notably mining, prospecting, industrial, and general promoting companies. Its notices comprise the history, capitalization, revenue statements, and lists of directors of the several concerns. The whole is arranged in proper alphabetical order. As usual, Mr. Henry C. Burdett, Secretary to the share and loan committee of the London Stock Exchange, has had the oversight of this laborious publication, which is issued under the official sanction of the Stock Exchange committee. We can but announce its appearance: the fact that it is now in its fourteenth year shows the estimation in which it is held in all financial circles.

Velhagen & Klassig (Leipzig), whose excellent popular yet scholarly books have done so much towards making the German people acquainted with what is best in literature, history, and art, have now begun a general history of art. It is to be published under the direction of Dr. H. Knackfuss, author of their widely circulated 'Deutsche Kunstgeschichte,' and editor of their series of "Künstlermonographien." The first volume, however, has been prepared by Prof. Max Georg Zimmermann, and is devoted to the art of antiquity and of the middle ages. After some introductory chapters on art in the Eastern countries and on the beginnings in Southern Europe, there is presented a brief and clear history of Greek and Roman art in all departments. In describing the art of the middle ages, the discussion is confined to the architecture, sculpture, and painting of the countries of Western Europe. The second volume will be devoted to Gothic and Renaissance art, and the third to the late Renaissance, Rococo, and Modern art. The numerous illustrations of the parts already published (in *Lieferung* fashion) are for the most part half-tone cuts from photographs of originals, and are in every way as nearly perfect as it is possible to make them. In the complete work there will be about 900 illustrations. The price, twenty-four marks,

will doubtless allow the book to find its way into large numbers of cultured homes.

Kürschner's 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender' for 1896 is some four weeks later than usual. It still continues to grow, this volume containing 100 more pages than the one for 1894. Two good portraits serve as frontispieces: Gerhard Hauptmann, whose production of 1895, "Florian Geyer," met with something of a fiasco when first presented in Berlin, but after revision and copious cutting down, has since won success; and Frau Sophie Junghans, whose contribution to the literature of 1895 is the novel 'Geschieden.' The first section, describing new laws, or changes in laws, relating to literary productions in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland, is very short and shows that few changes have been made. Section iv. gives a description of the Schiller, Grillparzer, and Bern prizes, and the conditions under which the prizes are awarded. After the alphabetical list of contemporary German writers come, as if appendices, a list of German publishers, with the kinds of work each one is best prepared for; a list of periodicals, with a description of each and the principal names on the editorial staff of each; a list of theatres, with the names and generally the addresses of the managers; a list of some of the leading firms engaged in the technical work of bookmaking, engraving, etc., etc.

A somewhat similar undertaking of Dr. Kürschner's, one upon which he has been working since 1888, and the first volume of which is now announced for the present year, is his 'Handbuch der Deutschen Presse.' His purpose is to make a reliable encyclopædia of German periodical literature, containing information about every German paper in the world and its personnel. The book is being prepared under five general divisions.

The sad and eventful career of a German patriot and poet of the eighteenth century has been recalled by the recent unveiling at Teplitz of a monument to Johann Gottfried Seume. The oration which was delivered on that occasion by Prof. Sauer of Prague, the editor of *Euphorion*, has just reached this country. A passionate lover of freedom, Seume was yet obliged to fight for two years in a Hessian regiment under English command against the armies of American independence; subsequently, in the Russian military service, he was present at the massacre in Warsaw in 1794; and finally he witnessed the complete degradation of his own native land. He died in 1810 before the beginning of the wars for freedom. In Seume's rugged character were combined ardent patriotism, religious atheism, ascetic morality, and healthy humor with the temperamental melancholy of Young and Gray, which, as Prof. Sauer points out, was very different from the blasé *Weltschmerz* of a later time. Deprecating the "century of paper," he nevertheless filled several volumes with his own writings. His graphic account of a nine months' tramp to Syracuse survives, and two lines from his poem, "Die Gesaenge," are familiar to thousands who never heard his name:

> "Wo man singet, lass dich ruhig nieder,
> Bösewichter haben keine Lieder."

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April, in addition to the regular reports of the excavations at Jerusalem, has an account of an interesting Latin inscription recently found in that city. As deciphered by Canon Dalton, it appears to be a votive inscription, set up about the year 117 A. D., by a *vexillarius*, or standard-bearer, of the 3d legion to Jupiter Serapis for the health or victory of the Emperor Trajan and the Roman people. There is also a short description of some Bible coins found in Palestine, and a plea for the exploration of the plateau of Et-Tih, to the north of the Sinaitic peninsula, with a view to establishing the route of the Exodus and the mountain from which the law was given. This, the writer suggests, was not the traditional Sinai, but may have been Jebel Meleg, a mountain of most impressive dimensions, lying half-way between Ismailia and Kadesh.

The opening article in the *Geographical Journal* for April is a plea, by Dr. R. H. Mill, for the preparation of a geographical description of the British Islands based on the Ordnance Survey. This is followed by a sober but encouraging account of the resources of British Central Africa, by Alfred Sharpe. He is especially hopeful in regard to the future of the negro. As the sale of "gin, guns, and gunpowder" is prohibited in the greater part of the territory, the negro has not deteriorated through his contact with the white man, and his condition has distinctly improved. The unskilled laborer in the coffee plantation soon learns skilled work, "such as carpentry, timber-sawing, brick-burning and moulding, bricklaying, overseeing, bullock-driving, etc." An African had the sole charge of the telegraph office at Blantyre, while others at this station owned land, paid their taxes in cash, and had bank accounts. Col. Holdich contributes some notes on the ancient and mediæval history and geography of Makran, the most southern district of southwestern Baluchistan, and Mr. J. Ainsworth describes a journey in British East Africa. Both these articles are accompanied by maps.

The industrial and commercial development of Japan is the subject of an interesting paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April, by Mr. J. Troup, British consul at Yokohama. Notwithstanding the extraordinary growth of her foreign commerce and of every kind of industry, shown by a mass of figures and facts, he does not fear Japan's competition with the West, as some writers have done. The great discrepancy between the rate of wages is already diminishing with the increased price of food, and the dearth of labor occasioned by the war is apparently "becoming accentuated by emigration to Formosa." The other articles are upon Venezuela and the "shotts" of northern Africa.

The disastrous ice-fall that occurred on the slopes of the Gemmi pass in Switzerland last September has lately been reported on in considerable detail by Heim of Zurich, who has made a special study of avalanches, landslides, and other catastrophes to which vigorous young mountain ranges are subject. In this instance, a great sheet of ice, detached from the lower end of an elevated glacier of the second order, rushed down the mountainside, sped across the valley at its foot, and in part swiftly flowed up the opposite slope, then falling back like a wave from a steep shore. A destructive blast of wind was produced by the air outrushing from beneath the falling mass; thus a considerable space was laid waste on all sides, and even large forest trees were overturned. The report is published as a New Year's issue by the Naturforschende Gesellschaft of Zurich, and is well illustrated.

No controversy in the history of art has recently been more bitter than that concerning Raphael's artistic origin. Those who upheld his derivation from Perugino have based themselves largely on the belief, hitherto unassailed, that Raphael's "Sposalizio," now in the Brera, was a close copy of a famous altar-piece once in the Cathedral of Perugia, but for the last eighty years the chief pride of Caen in Normandy — a work hitherto considered an undoubted Perugino, and, as such, held to be one of the important national possessions of France. In the April number of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*, Mr. Bernhard Berenson maintains that the Caen "Sposalizio" was not painted by Raphael at all, but that its real author was his second-rate fellow-pupil, Giovanni Lo Spagna, and that the Caen altar-piece, far from having served as a model for the gifted young Sanzio's masterpiece, is a mere imitation of that work.

The Phi Beta Kappa Society originated at William and Mary College, Va., in 1776. Much the larger part of the April number of the *College Quarterly* is given up to a reprint of the records from the Society's foundation to 1781 (when the advent of the British interrupted both meetings and records), and to illustrative biographical and other matter supplied by President Lyon G. Tyler. Here will be found the original charter granted to Harvard chapter. The editor also does something to elucidate the pedigree of President Monroe, in which a single link lacks positive evidence. The Monroes, while entirely respectable, "never held the same state in society as the Lees, Washingtons, Allertons, Ashtons, and a few other great families of Westmoreland and King George Counties," with which there were no intermarriages.

—The eighteenth century seems to be coming to its own at the end of the nineteenth; and in the flood of reprints none should be more welcome than a new edition of Johnson's best literary legacy, his 'Lives of the Poets.' Such an undertaking, in six volumes (the original edition was in four), under the editorial care of Mr. Arthur Waugh, is to be carried through—in this country—by the Scribners, who send us the first volume. The new 'Lives,' in handy and attractive form, is to be an exact reprint of the edition of 1783, in phrasing, punctuation, and spelling; and the editor has limited his functions to bibliographical and biographical notes. Johnson is a fit subject for such emendations, as even his enormous memory had its lapses, and he trusted to it too confidently or too indolently. He handed over the MS. of his Life of Rowe, with its many résumés, complacently remarking that the thing was pretty well done considering that he had not read one of Rowe's plays for thirty years. His reproach of Savage for having "a superstitious regard to the correction of his sheets," and his open scorn for Andrew Reid, who professed himself a "master of the secret of punctuation," have their implications concerning his own practice. More than once he openly repudiates painstaking, as when, referring to the praise bestowed on Congreve's "Incognita," he says, "I would rather praise it than read it"; or, impatiently turning away from Akenside's Odes, he observes: "To examine such compositions singly cannot be required; when they are once found to be generally dull, all further labor may be spared; for to what use can the work be criticised that will not be read?"

—Cowley, Denham, Milton, Butler, Rochester, and Roscommon are dispatched in this first volume, and portraits of the greater four adorn the page. Mr. Waugh's notes are based, as he tells us, upon the monographs on eighteenth-century writers by Leslie Stephen, Mr. Craik, Austin Dobson, and others, and especially upon the 'Dictionary of Na-

tional Biography.' One is surprised to find no allusion to Birkbeck Hill's Boswell, and to discover that Mr. Waugh prefers, apparently, another edition. A reissue of Johnson with no aid from the first of Johnsonians would be a curiosity—excusable, perhaps, on the ground that Mr. Waugh so rigidly confines himself to a sort of sublimated proof-reading, and waives all attempts at criticism, or at letting Johnson expound Johnson. The 'Lives' surely have a flavor of their own which many readers would, no doubt, be thankful to be left to themselves to enjoy; but it would seem as if the temptation would have been irresistible to illustrate the more formal Johnson of the 'Lives' by the undress Johnson of the Literary Club. Doubtless the criticism in both characters is at bottom one and the same; and even in the printed page we find much of the pungency, the vigor, the elephantine gambolling of the autocrat of the club. As to his critical standards they were, of course, those of his age. Milton and Shakspere were well enough for a barbarous period, but Dryden and Pope had made "English numbers" truly harmonious and perfect. Judged by Tennyson's saying, recorded by Fitz Gerald, that "Lycidas" is an infallible touchstone of poetical taste, Johnson had no taste at all. But a critic can, no more than a poet, be torn from the soil in which he grew; and in the formal landscape of the eighteenth century Johnson yields an impression of agreeable variety. In his 'Lives' we are but following Leslie Stephen when we say that he is seen at his best.

—Mr. Henry Bradley takes the floor in the current issue of the Oxford Dictionary—Field-Fish (Macmillan). His catholic vocabulary embraces the adjectival *fin-de-siècle*, "pertaining to, or characteristic of, the end of the (19th) century; characteristically 'advanced' or modern," with a first quotation from the London *Daily News* of December, 1890. We remark also the vocables *fine art*, *fine gentleman*, *fine lady*, without the hyphen. Orthographically, perhaps nothing is more curious than *filigrane*, whose present spelling is first recorded in 1794, for the substantive; and only in 1847 for the adjective, at the end of eleven quotations of which no two are spelt alike. The decline of the *fig* (including raisin) in special estimation is interestingly shown by a great number of obsolete forms, meanings, and expressions derived from that fruit. On the other hand, we miss the *fin* and *fin-keel* associated with the latest development of racing yachts and war-ships. Too recent, again, are quotations only of 1891 for "fifth wheel of a coach," and of 1883 for "figure-head" ("said deprecatingly of one who holds the position of head of a body of persons, a community, a society, etc., but possesses neither authority nor influence"). The transitive verb *finance* is shown to have been a neologism in 1866, but our "somewhat colloquial" substantive *find* ("that which is found") goes back to 1847 as a dictionary word, and to 1858 in literary use, in connection with gold. We hear much just now of "filled cheese," and this article has been known since 1890 at least, while the sense 'adulterated' applied to cottons is three years older. "First come, first served" is met with in 1545. The topical *firstly* was unknown to Johnson, but was recognized by Smart in 1846; Mr. Bradley says that "many writers prefer *first*, even though closely followed by *secondly*, *thirdly*, etc." That *finality* with which we were repeatedly familiar in the days of pro-slavery compromise turns up in 1833 in connection with the Reform Bill. Mme. D'Arblay stands sponsor in 1778 for *fight shy* (with). It is common to speak of colors which "kill" each other by juxtaposition; Miss Yonge's reference to "tints that 'fight' with the fewest colors" harks back to Shakspere's "note the fighting conflict of her hue, how white and red each other did destroy." Among the indeterminate etymologies is that of *filch*, which, "like many other slang words, [is] first recorded in the 16th century." The substantive *firm* "first occurs in translations from Spanish writers," but, in the sense of 'style,' "was probably taken, like other commercial words, from Italian."

—Readers of Sir William Fraser's former books on Wellington and Disraeli know just what to expect in his 'Napoleon III.' (London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners). The volume is a farrago of anecdotes good, bad, and indifferent, jumbled together without any attempt at order or proportion. Sir William Fraser begins by stating that he had the honor of knowing two ladies to both of whom the Emperor Napoleon III., when an exile in London, proposed marriage, and on the strength of this acquaintanceship he seems to have been interested in the career of the imperial despot who ruined France by his corrupt government in time of peace as much as by his fatuous foreign policy. Perhaps the most interesting of Sir William Fraser's stories concerns a supposed project of the exile of Chiselhurst to regain his throne. "Not only was his return to Paris intended, but every detail had been arranged. A private yacht was to be used to land the Emperor at some port undetermined in the northern corner of France, or possibly in Belgium. I had this from the proprietor of the yacht, the late James Ashbury; he had more than once mentioned the circumstance to me, and he repeated it the evening before his death. Landing secretly, the arrangement was that the Emperor should proceed at once to the camp at Châlons, where forty or fifty thousand men were assembled for the purpose of manœuvre; declaring himself, he was to head this army and march at once upon Paris" (p. 244). An entertaining piece of information for most Americans about the personal appearance of the "father of his country" is contained in the following comparison: "Speaking with an American of some eminence, I described Napoleon III., with hesitation, as having the eyes of that most intelligent of animals, the pig. Gen. R. observed, 'That was the term applied to Washington, "the pig-eyed Washington."' After hearing this I do not hesitate to put it down" (p. 135). These are typical passages from the volume of the garrulous old dandy, whose birth and career in the Guards and in Parliament enabled him to see much not permitted to the vulgar gaze, but who seems to be chiefly proud of the smallness of his feet, to which delightful fact he more than once pointedly refers.

—Already plans for the total eclipse of the sun at about midnight, Eastern standard time, August 8-9, are fully matured. The first observers who may have an opportunity to catch the total eclipse will be several parties of English amateurs on the west coast of Norway near Bodö, where the sun will only just have risen. Farther to the northeast, in Finland, near the Varanger Fiord, at Vardö and Vadsö, the scientific astronomers will be out in full force, among them Mr. E. W. Maunder of the Royal Observatory, Mr. Albert Taylor of South Kensington, Sir Robert Ball of Cambridge, M. Deslandres of Paris, M. Tacchini of Rome, Mr. A. Lawrence Rotch of Boston, Mr. Taylor Reed of Princeton, and Prof. S. Glasenapp of the University of St. Petersburg, accompanied by Mr. Vutchikhovsky, together with some fifty amateur observers, chiefly English, for whose accommodation three tourist steamers will be run to the belt of the total eclipse. Going still further north, into latitude north 72°, the track of the shadow-path crosses Goose Land near Möller Bay, on the west coast of the southern island of Nova Zembla. Here will be stationed the representatives of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg and of the Kazan Society of Naturalists. At this point the eclipse-path begins to curve southeasterly, crossing the Lena near Olekminsk, whither the Imperial Geographical Society will send Mr. Voznesensky, Director of the Meteorological Observatory at Irkutsk. Five years ago was founded a Russian Astronomical Society which will ambitiously place in the field three parties on Russian soil, their chief station being on the Lena and the others on the Ob, and in the eastern parts of the Uleaborg province, to the north of Enontekis. At all these stations the corona will be the chief object of study by means of ordinary methods of photography. Still further to the southeast, on the lower Amur, will be an important expedition in charge of Mr. Wittram, sent out by the Imperial Russian Observatory at Pulkova.

—From there the moon's shadow traverses the earth still in a southeasterly direction, crossing the great northern island of the Japanese Empire known as Yezo, or the Hokkaido, from Soya, its most northern point, to Akeshi. On this island will be established not less than seven stations, three of them occupied by the Amherst eclipse expedition, headed by Prof. Todd of that institution, and equipped by the liberality of Mr. D. Willis James and his son Mr. Arthur Curtiss James, in whose private yacht, the *Coronet*, the Amherst expedition sailed from San Francisco last week, via Honolulu. Their main station will be in the neighborhood of Akeshi Bay, on the southeast coast of Yezo. A few miles southwest, at Kushiro, the Astronomer Royal of England, Mr. Christie, will establish himself, accompanied by Prof. Turner of Oxford, and Capt. Hills, R.E. Likewise on the island of Yezo will be two Japanese parties, sent out from the Government observatories of Tokyo; also the Lick Observatory expedition, led by Prof. Schaeberle, assisted by Mr. Buckbalter of the Chabot Observatory at Oakland, California. Not since the great eclipse of 1878 in our western country have so many eclipse observers been in the field, and clear skies will insure a rich harvest of results.

MARY ANDERSON'S MEMOIRS.

A Few Memories. By Mary Anderson (Mme. de Navarro). Harper & Brothers. 1896.

In her modest little preface to these "Few Memories," Mme. Navarro declares that she wrote them chiefly for young girls, "to show them that the glitter of the stage is not all gold, and thus to do a little towards making them realize how serious an undertaking it is to adopt a life so full of hardships, humiliations, and even dangers." It is doubtful whether her experience, as she relates it, will be regarded as a very terrible warning by such ambitious novices as may happen to turn to it for instruction. Most of them (for they are a

sanguine race) will find much more in it to encourage than to dispirit them. As a matter of fact, considering her opportunities and the limited amount of her artistic capital, Miss Anderson's stage career was extraordinarily smooth and prosperous, running a course of continuous and increasing popularity, and ending in fortune and present, if not permanent, renown, while she was still in the full bloom of youth. Of course she encountered occasional checks, the ordinary and inevitable difficulties caused by pecuniary straits, the fickleness of public taste and professional jealousies —trials which she endured with patience and good temper and overcame by determination; but, on the whole, she prospered beyond all reasonable expectation, and reaped, almost in the days of her raw novitiate, the rewards which most actors, even when far more richly equipped, dream of enjoying only after many long years of arduous labor.

No one familiar with her stage achievements and her imperfect training would expect to find in Mme. Navarro's book any new or valuable reflections on the art of acting or stage production, any subtle or illuminative analysis of plays or characters, any striking or original views on the responsibilities or privileges of management, or anything like an intelligent comparative study of the methods of famous actors. It is only fair to add that she expressly and very properly disclaims all pretensions to literary or critical ability. As a contribution to theatrical literature her volume is of very small importance, but as a bit of autobiography it is exceedingly interesting on account of its unconscious revelation, in a thousand unpremeditated simplicities, of the personality of the writer, which belongs to a very high type of womanhood, high-spirited, frank, joyous, tender, enthusiastic, innocent, religious without a taint of cant, and self-reliant without a trace of envy. Only a strong and healthful nature could breathe so long the infected atmosphere of the footlights without contamination. From first to last in her book there is not one note of affectation or insincerity. In the beginning she writes like a bright schoolgirl, with very little sense of cohesion or proportion. She chatters of dolls and other nursery matters, and of tom-boy freaks which are not uncommon or worthy of record except as indications of character.

The *Richelieu* of Edwin Booth, she says, first inspired her with a passion for the stage, and the fact is curious, for it seems to indicate an appreciation of the effect of that elaboration of detail to which she never paid much attention. This performance set her to practising on her own account, and, in the secrecy of a garret, she began to rehearse not only *Richelieu*, but *Richard* and *Hamlet*. At this time she was a great, gawky girl of sixteen, and the absurdity of her choice, apparently, never occurred to her. Possibly these early experiments may have helped to develop that wonderful voice which contributed so greatly to her later success. At all events, it was in these characters that she first acted in a private rehearsal before Charlotte Cushman, who promptly recognized her natural advantages, and sent her to George Vandenhoff for "trimming and clipping." This correct and intelligent but formal and unimaginative actor doubtless regulated many of her rough edges and gave her valuable hints, but it may be doubted whether the ten half-hours which she spent in his company were of much material benefit to her. She probably profited more from the friendly aid of John McCullough, who esteemed her abilities very highly, and devoted many of his leisure hours to rehearsing with her in scenes from various standard plays. It was to him that she owed the opportunity of making her first public appearance as *Juliet*, and she gives a naïve account of that, to her, memorable performance. A little later on she secured a week's engagement, during which she played *Bianca*, *Julia*, *Evadne*, and *Pauline*, as well as *Juliet*. Her first real popular success was won in New Orleans as *Meg Merrilies*, and she innocently dwells upon the effect which she created by her simulation of bent decrepitude, unconscious of the fact that Scott describes the old woman as being as tall and straight as a grenadier, and that she was abusing grossly the special qualifications with which beneficent nature had endowed her. To the end of her career she persisted in this misrepresentation, which is worthy of remark because it emphasizes the lack of true dramatic insight and adaptability more or less conspicuous in all her characterizations. A striking instance of this is afforded in her own confession that she was quite unable to adapt herself to W. S. Gilbert's conception of *Galatea*. Rightly or wrongly, he wished her to exhibit a little more consciousness of the comic or satiric value of some of her speeches, but she could not subdue her own personality to the suggested conditions, and in the end he was obliged to allow her to follow her own line. Possibly her way was the better, but that is not the question.

It was in Chicago that she met with her first serious professional reverse. In that city the critics attacked her savagely and her engagement was a failure. She faced the situation with courage and admirable temper, and it is much to her credit that she plainly was more concerned at the pecuniary loss sustained by her stanch friend John McCullough than at the temporary extinction of her own hopes. These were soon revived by successful engagements elsewhere, and were never dashed again. Her youth and beauty, the air of freshness and purity which she carried about with her, her nationality, and her fine flashes of declamatory power, made her a popular pet, and she had many powerful friends. One of them was Gen. Sherman, the most lenient of theatrical critics. It was at his suggestion that she played *Galatea* and *Lady Macbeth*, and he was courageous enough to declare that he preferred her in the latter character. But it is unnecessary to dwell upon Miss Anderson's stage career in detail. Everybody knows that it was prosperous, both here and in England, in an extraordinary degree, but her triumphs were personal rather than artistic, and she created no standard of excellence except possibly in *Galatea*, for which her classic face and figure preëminently fitted her, and in *Perdita*, which she played with an exquisite buoyancy, simplicity, and grace not easily to be forgotten.

The real interest and charm of her book lie in the story of her life outside the theatre, and especially that part of it which was passed in England, where her theatrical reputation and the kindly offices of influential friends secured her not merely the acquaintance but the friendship of many of the most distinguished men and women of the day; and she tells of these amicable relations with a delightful unconsciousness, which proves that her nature was entirely unspoiled by the flattering attentions bestowed upon her. She relates a most characteristic anecdote of James Russell Lowell. She had asked him whether he had seen Bernhardt in "La Tosca," and he replied sharply in the negative, adding, by way of explanation, "I refuse to have my mind dragged in the gutter"—a pungent sentence, which expresses in a breath the whole abominable tendency of the later Sardou drama, the deliberate prostitution of genius for the sake of gain. Lowell, of course, was a friend of the higher theatre, but Cardinal Manning regarded the stage as an unmitigated evil. He told Mme. Navarro that he had prayed for her retirement from the footlights. His main objection to the actor's life is worth quoting:

> "From our cradles," he said, "we all have a tendency to act. Small boys pretend to be men, soldiers, anything but what they are. Tiny girls play at being mothers, cradling their dolls. The so-called art of acting increases this tendency in those who witness it almost as much as in those who practise it. I cannot conceive how the latter can escape being led in time to an unconscious development of artificiality or exaggeration in their thoughts, and, as a natural result, in their speech and manner."

The fallacy of all this in general application is too obvious to need refutation, but the argument is curious as an illustration of the danger of studying a question from one point of view only.

With Tennyson Miss Anderson enjoyed uncommon intimacy, and she furnishes a fascinating glimpse of the poet in his inner home life, revelling in comic stories, of which he had a vast collection, contributed by Lowell and other friends, or plunging through rain and mire, in his great cloak and heavy boots, stopping at frequent intervals to descant upon the subtler beauties of nature or to point out some precious woodland shrub or flower. At other times she sat at his knee while he recited long passages from his own works in the deep rhythmical chant which was so strangely impressive. She was breakfasting with Mr. Gladstone in Downing Street when the party was startled by the crash of the dynamite explosion at the British Admiralty close by. The great statesman was chatting learnedly, eloquently, and gayly about old and modern toys, when the startling interruption came, and was the only one of the company who showed no sign of fear. He proceeded instantly to the scene of the outrage, and upon his return spoke briefly of the cowardice of the deed. A minute later he had dismissed the subject, and was joking about the intricacies of female cloaks and other garments.

Wilkie Collins, one of her warmest friends and admirers, confided to her the story of his torments from gout in the eyes, which wrung from him such cries of agony that he could scarcely find an amanuensis who could endure to listen to his dictation. As all the world knows, he sought relief in heroic doses of opium, and he declared to her that he dictated the finale of 'The Moonstone' while under the influence of the drug, and, afterwards, did not recognize it as his own composition. He told her how Charles Reade, at the funeral of Charles Dickens, leaned upon his shoulder and wept. She has fresh stories, too, of George F. Watts, who painted her portrait, of Browning, Newman, Longfellow, Lord Houghton, Helen Faucit, Alma-Tadema, Max Müller, Ruskin, and others, but space will not permit their reproduction. In Paris she was introduced to Hugo, and noted that in kissing a lady's hand he never bent his own head, but raised the hand to his lips, which is a happy bit of observation. She tells, with her wonted ingenuousness, an anecdote of Bernhardt, who imposed upon her credulity in characteristically theatrical fashion. "I will act specially for you to-night," quoth that guileless Frenchwoman,

"but it will be bad for me." And lo, at the end of the performance, Sarah lay prostrate on the stage, pressing to her lips a handkerchief on which, as she showed after her revival with champagne, there was an ominous spot of blood. This stroke of acting impressed Mme. Navarro greatly, and it must be admitted that Sarah kept her promise.

The latter half of the book, relating her professional and holiday experiences in England and Ireland, and her American farewell, is much better than the first, and is written in an agreeable, vivacious, simple style. The matter of it is not often of much importance either as information or instruction, but it is entertaining, and the manner is so simple and honest, so free from boastfulness or petty jealousy or pretension of any sort, that the sympathy of the reader is enlisted from beginning to end. If Cardinal Manning had lived to read it, he would have been forced to acknowledge that there is nothing inconceivable in the proposition that a pure and strong nature may enact a sham without becoming one.

BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY.

The Growth of British Policy: An Historical Essay. By Sir J. R. Seeley, Litt.D., K.C.M.G., formerly Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1895. 2 vols., pp. xxiv, 436, 403.

The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain. By Montagu Burrows, Chichele Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. London: W. Blackwood & Sons; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1895. Pp. xiv, 372.

THESE two books are alike in their treatment as well as in their subject. Neither of them is, in the strict sense of the word, a history; the authors do not profess to have made any elaborate study of sources; references, even to secondary authorities, are in both books few and far between; and the object aimed at is rather to stimulate interest in the long story of British foreign policy than to narrate its detailed history. Sir John Seeley, indeed, frankly terms his work an historical essay, by which he denotes its nature rather than its length, for it fills two closely printed volumes, while Prof. Burrows's book is in every way even more of an essay than Sir John Seeley's. The prevailing intention in both works is the same, namely, to outline the story of the way in which the insular state of Great Britain and Ireland has been drawn in self-defence at times into Continental politics, and to exhibit the reasons for which, at other times, it has withdrawn from its position, and has either deliberately avoided foreign complications or looked indifferently upon the events in the history of other European nations.

Sir John Seeley's 'Growth of British Policy' has a sympathetic interest in that it is the last work from the pen of a busy writer and stimulating thinker, which occupied him during the closing years of his useful life. The essay is appropriately preceded by a brief biography of Seeley by his friend Prof. Prothero of Edinburgh University, who was acknowledged, for many years before his promotion to the chair of history at Edinburgh, to be the leading spirit among historical workers at Cambridge. Prof. Prothero's work has been done with graceful skill. The life of Sir John Seeley, as he portrays it, was not eventful, and its epochs are marked by the publication of his different works. The son of a Fleet Street publisher, John Richard Seeley spent his youth and early days among books, and gave early evidence of literary capacity. He was born in London in 1834, educated at the City of London School, went up to Cambridge with a scholarship at Christ's College in 1852, was bracketed Senior Classic with two others in 1857, and afterwards obtained a fellowship at his college. In 1863 he succeeded F. W. Newman as Professor of Latin at University College, London, and in 1869 he succeeded Charles Kingsley as Regius Professor of Modern History at Cambridge, a post which he held until his death in January, 1895. Such an appointment as that of Seeley to the Cambridge chair would not be tolerated at the present time, for Seeley made no pretensions at that time to rank among English historical scholars. He had attained reputation rather as a religious thinker than as an historian, by the publication of his well-known book, 'Ecce Homo,' in 1865, in which he had laid weight on the human side of the life of Christ to the exclusion of the divine attributes, in a way that aroused the wrath of all the Christian churches in England. But Seeley's appointment by Mr. Gladstone was at least no worse than Lord Palmerston's appointment of Charles Kingsley to the same chair of history at Cambridge a few years previously, for Kingsley's only equipment for the teaching of history was the fact of his having written some historical novels.

After settling at Cambridge, Seeley devoted himself with enthusiasm to the work of instruction, and he became also a voluminous writer on historical subjects. He belonged, indeed, as an historian to the bygone school which looked upon the study of history merely as a useful guide and corrective in estimating current political forces, and he considered the work of the historian to be the inculcation of political lessons, and not simply the ascertainment of the truth with regard to the events of the past. Seeley, in short, was more of a politician than an historian. He had no inclination for the laborious work of research. He preferred to look upon history in the large rather than in detail. His imagination was stirred by great events and far-reaching issues, and his patriotism was ever aroused by the contemplation of the growth of the power of the British Empire. But these characteristics of his mind, joined to the possession of a singularly luminous and effective literary style, made him more of a power in his native land than a trained historian could possibly have been. A special merit of Seeley's books is their readableness. His 'Life of Stein,' for instance, is little better than a compilation from the great work of Pertz, but it is infinitely more readable than the work of the German biographer, and his 'Short History of Napoleon I.,' though a poor piece of work from the point of view of the historical student, has approved itself to the general reader more than many better books.

Seeley's last years were occupied in studying the earlier stages of the growth of England into an imperial Power, and the work we are considering may be regarded as an introduction to his 'Expansion of England.' But 'The Expansion of England,' though abounding in stimulating ideas, is, after all, only a brilliant essay. An indispensable preliminary to a more elaborate treatment of the growth of the empire was an introductory study of the development of the British policy which made the British Empire possible. This introductory study we have in the two volumes before us. Had Seeley lived, they would have been followed, doubtless, by the more extended examination of the growth of the empire in the eighteenth century which he had in mind. The period covered is from the reign of Elizabeth to the reign of William III., and a leading contention of our author is that for this period the English foreign policy is dominated by the fact that there is as yet no Great Britain, and that Ireland is neither a helpless dependency of the British crown nor an independent nation. As long as England and Scotland remained separate kingdoms, and Ireland was practically a half-settled, half-conquered alien country, it was impossible for a British policy to exist, with an empire of the seas and colonies and trading dependencies in distant continents in prospect. The keynote of English history up to the time of William III. is the relation between the different parts of what is now the United Kingdom; and the foreign policy of Elizabeth, of the Stuarts, of Cromwell, and of William III. is subordinated to or affected by the important question of building up an insular state which shall, when united, build up the British Empire. Seeley points out that what characterizes the Elizabethan age is not the period of the great war with Spain which is naturally associated with it, but the long period of peace which preceded the open outbreak of war, during which England, in happy contrast to the nations of the Continent, remained undisturbed by religious war at home, forgot the fires of Smithfield and the Marian persecution, and prepared for an era of naval adventure and commercial extension in Asia and America. The successful struggle with Spain in the later years of the Queen's reign was the revelation to the world of a new phase of existence. But the struggle with Spain could not be triumphantly waged by an isolated England, and therein lies the importance of the right understanding of Elizabeth's policy towards other anti-Spanish parties like the Dutch and the French Huguenots on the one hand, and towards Scotland and Ireland on the other.

After the long period of the Civil War, of which a side not less important than the constitutional struggle between King and Parliament—namely, the independent action of England, Scotland, and Ireland—is skilfully indicated by Sir John Seeley, came the brief period of Cromwell's ascendancy, when the insular state arrived at a brief and premature unity, and the imperial policy of future times was foreshadowed by the conquest of Jamaica and the triumphant intervention of the Lord Protector in the contest between Spain and France. The reigns of the last two Stuarts, like those of the first two, are signalized by a period of reaction. The constituent parts of the United Kingdom again separate, and foreign policy is guided, not by imperial considerations, but by the French tendencies of the Stuart kings and their voluntary, though sometimes interrupted, adherence to the schemes of their cousin, Louis XIV. The Revolution of 1688, which had its origin as much in the national feeling of repulsion towards the disgraceful foreign policy of the later Stuarts in subordinating English to French interests as in the desire to overthrow an unconstitutional monarch, bent on restoring the Catholic religion in both England and Scotland, brought about a revival of the imperial policy of Cromwell in insular, commercial, oceanic, and Continental policy. It was William III. who, more successful than Cromwell in that his power rested on a bloodless revolution instead of on military force, was enabled to point

out to the people of the United Kingdom the line of their destiny. In insular policy, indeed, it was reserved for the statesmen of Queen Anne to bring about the union between England and Scotland which put an end to the possibility of a separation between the two once hostile portions of the island of Great Britain, but it was William III. who made that union possible, and, with regard to Ireland, the fastening of the Protestant domination upon the necks of the Irish people, which rendered Ireland a helpless dependency of Great Britain, was deemed necessary, owing to the resistance the Catholic Irish had offered to the Revolution of 1688 and their adhesion to the Stuarts and to France. It was in the reign of William III., too, that England took up her position as a preëminently commercial state, at peace with her former commercial rivals, the Dutch, and ready to share her trade (since in no other way could political union be attained) with her old antagonists, the Scots, and established herself firmly on the road to commercial greatness which had been pointed out in the reign of Elizabeth and partly attained during the government of Cromwell.

But British commercial greatness could not be firmly founded unless supported by a strong oceanic power and such a Continental policy as should prevent the interference of European Powers to its detriment. It was during the reign of William III. that Britain learned her rôle upon the seas; and the series of naval victories which had commenced with the defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588, which had been illustrated in the days of Cromwell by the exploits of Blake, but which had recently been intermitted, began again with the victory of La Hogue in 1692. British commercial greatness, however, depended upon something more than naval power, and was based no less upon the maintenance and growth of her colonies across the Atlantic, and of her trading factories in India and the East, for the peaceful development of which Britain had not only to be supreme upon the seas, but to prevent the growth of any rival in Europe. The Continental policy of William III. is important both from an international point of view, in that he headed the league of Europe against Louis XIV., and commenced the work of restraining French ambition and aggression, which Marlborough carried to triumphant success, and also in its influence on British policy, which at the Treaty of Utrecht showed its commercial and colonial tendencies in the acquisition for the British crown of Gibraltar and Minorca and Nova Scotia and in the Asiento clause.

Although it suffers from publication at the same time with Sir John Seeley's masterpiece, 'The History of the Foreign Policy of Great Britain' by Prof. Montagu Burrows of Oxford has some merits of its own which should not be overlooked. His volume deals mainly with the eighteenth century, and therefore from one point of view rivals Seeley's 'Expansion of England,' and from another follows out in miniature the sequel of the story contained in Seeley's last book. Prof. Burrows has as clear a grasp of principles as Seeley, but he works upon a slighter scale, and does not attempt the examination of so many national and international forces as his Cambridge colleague. By far the most important part of his essay deals with the causes of the outbreak of war with Spain in 1739. It has been constantly the habit to regard the opposition to Sir Robert Walpole which led to this war as purely factious, and Prof. Burrows has done good service in pointing out the reality of the grievances under which English commerce suffered from the Spanish maritime policy, which, when exemplified in the story of Jenkins's ear, caused the explosion of national wrath that overthrew Walpole and opened a long era of naval and colonial war. Prof. Burrows, further, never forgets that he was once a captain in the royal navy, and, throughout his book, lays weight on the naval importance of the British wars of the eighteenth century. He refers most appreciatively to Capt. Mahan's famous work, but, long before Mahan had been heard of, Prof. Burrows had shown his sense of the importance of British naval history in his 'Life of Lord Hawke,' of which he announces a new and improved edition. In his later chapters, when dealing with the wars waged by Britain with the French Revolution and Napoleon, Prof. Burrows hardly handles his subject with equal felicity. He is blinded by his admiration for the younger Pitt and for Canning. He actually attributes to Canning the chief merit for the successful resistance to Napoleon, and barely mentions the name of Lord Castlereagh, the great statesman who guided the formation of the last European coalition, who directed the policy of Britain in the final struggle, and who shares with the Czar Alexander I. the glory of overthrowing the Corsican adventurer.

BOUGAINVILLE.

La Jeunesse de Bougainville et la Guerre de Sept Ans. [Les Français au Canada.] Paris: Daupeley-Gouverneur. 1896. Pp. 190.

THIS monograph is, in size, rather more than a *brochure* and rather less than a book. Its author, M. René de Kerallain, seeks to present a picture of the leading incidents of the Seven Years' War in Canada, as seen through the eyes of a gallant, active, and intelligent young Frenchman who was in the thick of the fray from the capture of Oswego to the fall of Quebec. Louis Antoine de Bougainville has other titles to fame than his career as first aide-de-camp to Montcalm from 1756 till 1759. He was the first French circumnavigator, he bore an honorable part in the battle between Rodney and De Grasse, he was chosen a member of the Institute at its formation, and, under the Napoleonic régime, he became Senator, Count of the Empire, and member of the Legion of Honor. He was also, through his work on Integral Calculus, a fellow of the Royal Society. When we add that he had his full share of pleasure—pleasure according to French and eighteenth-century definition—it will be seen that he was a many-sided man. But Bougainville has found a detractor in the Abbé Casgrain, professor of history at Laval University, and one of the most spirited *national* writers who have dealt with the wars of French Canada. The Abbé Casgrain is perhaps best known through his 'Pèlerinage au Pays d'Évangéline,' in which he exposed the garbled character of "Selections from the Public Documents of the Province of Nova Scotia," Parkman's chief source for the fourth and eighth chapters of 'Montcalm and Wolfe.' Above all things he is jealous for the reputation of his compatriots, the French Canadians, and is anxious to rehabilitate the *habitant* of the eighteenth century whenever hostile testimony is brought to light. Bougainville, in his Journal and in his letters, admits that the Canadian is a good woodsman, but in other respects sets him down a poor creature. He taxes him with cruelty, chicanery, and with the whole host of undesirable traits which a half civilized existence begets. The Abbé Casgrain is not the man to allow such a description to go unchallenged. In 'Montcalm et Lévis' he assails the quality of Bougainville's evidence by impeaching Bougainville himself. The essay under review is the rejoinder of one of Bougainville's descendants, an historical writer who is quite competent to meet the Abbé Casgrain on his own ground.

We have already called attention, in our review of 'Un Pèlerinage au Pays d'Évangéline,' to the Abbé Casgrain's comfortable eclecticism. M. de Kerallain takes up the charge, reiterates, and goes beyond it. Whereas we referred to nothing more than a convenient gift of shutting the eyes, this new critic ranges first among the counts of his indictment wilful *suppressio veri*: "Assurément, l'auteur canadien dont l'ouvrage nous a forcé de prendre la plume, ne méritait guère l'attention que nous avons dû lui prêter. Il ne lit point les textes qu'il a sous les yeux; quand il les lit, il ne les comprend point; quand il les comprend, il les fausse aussitôt qu'il y voit la moindre utilité." This is strong language. It is not diluted when M. de Kerallain explains that, in his contempt, he would have waited for the public to find out how it had been deceived, if the papers of Bougainville were accessible in their entirety

> "Si, pourtant, les textes dont il se sert avaient tous été mis par l'impression à la portée du public, nous aurions laissé probablement à la sagacité des historiens futurs le soin de faire justice de sa mauvaise foi. Mais le silence n'était point possible. Montcalm et Bougainville avaient protesté d'avance contre les interprétations perfides dont ils sentaient que leur mémoire, avec la fausseté de certains Canadiens, finirait par être l'objet. 'N'en croyez pas les Canadiens,' écrivait Bougainville à son frère comme s'il prévoyait son contradicteur; 'croyez toujours de préférence nos journaux. Les Canadiens se vantent et mentent. Nous autres ne savons dire que la vérité.'"

Various points in Canadian history have furnished matter for spirited discussion, but one does not often, nowadays, lay hands on a work which is so uncompromisingly polemical in tone. Last year the erection of a monument at Chateauguay gave rise to a controversy concerning the part of De Salaberry in that encounter, but personal bitterness was avoided. M. de Kerallain, on the contrary, does not willingly leave the Abbé Casgrain a single shred of reputation. He accuses him of pilfering from Parkman even when speaking words of disparagement, and he certainly produces some amusing cases of parallelism. The Abbé Casgrain is an editor as well as an historian. M. de Kerallain gives him no peace even here. His text is inaccurate, his arrangement bad, his notes either insignificant or incorrect. The Frenchman delivers his attack upon the Canadian all along the line. Montcalm and Vaudreuil could not have regarded each other with less cordiality of feeling.

For ourselves we accept as truthful the testimony of Bougainville to the maladministration of the colony and to the weaknesses of the French Canadians, so long as we are permitted to make one reservation. Bougainville did not think the game worth the candle, and, while ready to do his soldier's duty, was never in a mood to regard the colonists with sympathy. He appears to us in the light of a frank, honorable man. His family letters are models of affectionate solicitude. He has neither the arts nor the spirit of a vilifier. He strives to be scrupulously precise in his statement of facts. But a man so completely out of touch with colonial aspirations could not fail to see character, if not facts, through

a distorting medium. To take a single instance. At Carillon what he saw was the cantine of the engineer, De Lotbinière. "Il est de l'intérêt de ce Vauban que les ouvrages traînent en longueur. Il faut bien que la cantine ait du débit. Le vin y est à six livres le pot. Je marque ces variations de prix. C'est le thermomètre des concussions de ce pays." He saw, also, at the time of the massacre, what he considered to be connivance between the interpreters and the savages, but he did not see the gallant conduct of the Canadians, which has been signalized in Mr. William McLennan's stirring ballad. At the end of the campaign he summed up his impressions of war, people, and country in the following words: "Tout ce que je puis vous dire, c'est qu'en quittant ce pays nous chanterons de bon cœur l'*In Exitu Israël*."

Against M. de Kerallain, then, we contend that Bougainville, with all his honesty, was prevented by general prepossession from giving an adequate account of the events which he witnessed. Against the Abbé Casgrain we contend that Bougainville was truthful and desired to send home minutely exact reports. He conducted himself with distinction throughout, and, if we make a single exception, did whatever could have been reasonably expected of an officer in his position. The one exception was his failure to watch Holmes's vessels with unremitting care on the evening of September 13, 1759. Says Parkman: "When Bougainville saw Holmes's vessels drift down the stream, he did not tax his weary troops to follow them, thinking that they would return as usual with the flood tide." This was the off chance against which Bougainville failed to guard, and Wolfe gained the heights. M. de Kerallain objects to Kingsford's phrase, "Bougainville was simply *outgeneralled*," and suggests the substitution of *humbugged*. At the worst, Bougainville's lack of vigilance on this occasion was not the Nemesis of an habitual slackness. It was the "one dark hour which brings remorse," rather than "the sin that practice burns into the blood." On the whole, Bougainville was an excellent staff officer, and Montcalm's warm friendship through years of closest familiarity vouches for the honor of his character.

Two questions, however, which this essay of vindication involves are of an interest quite equal to that of the vindication. The first of these is the comparison inevitably suggested between the venality of French Canadians in the eighteenth century and the venality of French Canadians to-day; between the venality of those who formed the *entourage* of Vaudreuil and Bigot, and the venality of their descendants as one sees it revealed in the late Mercier administration and in the city government of Montreal. The second is purely personal, and relates to the credibility of the Abbé Casgrain. We cannot but believe that the perusal of M. de Kerallain's criticisms will give him more than one bad quarter of an hour.

A portion of this essay has been sent to the *Revue Historique*. In its complete form it is a bibliographical rarity. Only 150 copies were printed, and these are for private distribution. M. de Kerallain writes with much wit, force, and erudition. A few books like his own would go far to remove the indifference of French readers to the subject of the Canadian wars—an indifference which he expressly deplores. The French as a nation still appreciate liveliness, though they do date their vital historical interests from 1789. We will close with an example of M. de Kerallain's liveliness, his own parting quip: "Toutefois . . . nous dirons que la leçon doit nous servir à tous, et que, tous, étudiants ou écrivains, nous ne saurions trop appliquer le conseil où résumait son expérience un vieux théologien, après une vie quasi centenaire d'érudition polémique: 'Vérifiez toujours vos citations.'"

The Cities and Bishopries of Phrygia: Being an Essay of the Local History of Phrygia from the Earliest Times to the Turkish Conquest. By W. M. Ramsay, D.C.L., LL.D., etc., etc. Macmillan. 1895.

Some years ago, in his historical 'Geography of Asia Minor,' Mr. Ramsay announced his ambition to write a local history of the several countries of Asia Minor. That ambition promises now to be realized, for the volume before us is but the first of a series that is intended to collect all the information that can be gleaned from the authors, from inscriptions and monuments, from the survival of names and religious facts in modern times, and from other such scanty sources, and to interpret these in the light of the geographical and national conditions. No man is better qualified to undertake this task than Mr. Ramsay, who for the past sixteen years has busied himself by day and by night in investigating and pondering the problems connected with the history of Asia Minor. He first visited that country in 1880, in company with Sir Charles Wilson, one of Disraeli's travelling consuls who were spying out the land preparatory to its annexation to the British Empire. For the following eleven years the half of each year was spent in travel in Asia Minor, collecting inscriptions, mapping the country, locating the sites of ancient cities and towns, and studying the still existing monuments. He has thus come into possession of a mass of knowledge concerning Asia Minor such as no other man of this day and generation can pretend to. Indeed, there are only three or four men living who are in a position to check off Mr. Ramsay's statements, and no man may lightly dispute him. Whatever else may be said or thought of his work, it cannot be denied that he is a persistent searcher for truth. In fact, much of the time spent on his earlier journeys was wasted, and represented misdirected effort, owing in great measure to the necessity he was under of feeling his way darkly, for want of an instructor in the ways and means of archæological travel—for Sir Charles Wilson may not be reckoned as such. Accordingly, no small portion of the second, third, fourth, and fifth journeys was occupied in correcting the mistakes and blunders made on previous journeys. Nevertheless, the spirit of the man must be noted and praised.

Mr. Ramsay has written much. Before ever he essayed a book, his articles on the topography and archæology of Asia Minor were scattered in innumerable periodicals up and down the world. They were of value, though written in a style that sometimes baffled interpretation, and students along this line of antiquarian research longed to have Mr. Ramsay collect his results in the form of a book. But when, in deference to this demand, he produced his 'Historical Geography of Asia Minor,' his readers were greatly disappointed, for probably no worse made book exists. It was literally thrown together, and hurried off to the printer a year or so before it was ready for the press. The only redeeming feature was its soundness in matters of fact. It also gave offence for other reasons which need not be mentioned now. In his later books, which have followed in quick succession, Mr. Ramsay has steadily improved as a bookmaker, and has avoided the error of going to press before he was ready. This last but one and most ambitious of his books is the best made of the series.

What he now has in hand is the local history of Phrygia, the first volume treating of the cities of the Lycos and adjoining valleys. It is ambitious, too, for the title-page informs us that it is to deal with Phrygia's history "from the earliest times to the Turkish conquest." The knowledge and ability to cover so vast a field *ex cathedra* is given to but few men, but it must be confessed that Mr. Ramsay has acquitted himself most creditably, and the sections which deal with Byzantine or even Turkish matters will be most helpful to future travellers. The value of the book as a whole is extraordinary; it is a veritable mine of information in regard to Phrygia at all periods of its history. Not only does it throw important light upon profane history, but the student of the early history of the Christian Church will find it a valuable aid. The Lycos valley is precisely the part of Phrygia which possesses the deepest interest for the theologian, as being the scene of some of the labors of St. Paul, who left there the impress of his enthusiasm and his genius in the churches of Laodicea, Hierapolis, and Colossæ. Now that the railway can bring travellers to the very gates of these old cities, the book ought to be exceedingly useful to more thoughtful travellers.

The present volume is divided into nine chapters, of which the first describes the general features of the Lycos Valley; the second, Laodicea; the third, Hierapolis; the fourth, the Middle Mæander Valley; the fifth, the Lower Mæander Valley; the sixth, Colossæ; the seventh, Lounda, Peltæ, etc.; the eighth, the Valley of the Kazanes and Indos; the ninth, the Phrygian cities of the Pisidian frontier. Mr. Ramsay's treatment may best be understood by a synopsis of, say, chapter iii., on Hierapolis: The Holy City; its Situation and Origin; its Religious Character; Mother Leto; Leto and Kora; the God; the Matriarchal System; the Brotherhood; the Religion of Burial; the God as Ruler and Healer; the Trade-Guilds; its History; its Magistrates and Municipal Institutions; the Gerousia. Under each of these heads the reader will find matter that is new, instructive, and suggestive. We cannot go into details in this notice, but in illustration we may mention the discussion of the matriarchal system, which throws an interesting light upon the many inscriptions, found throughout Asia Minor, in which descent is reckoned apparently from the mother. It seems that children were born while the unwedded mother was living as a courtesan before the goddess, in accordance with a custom that had prevailed in the worship of the Great Mother Goddess of Asia from time immemorial. It was a religious rite, involving no infamy, but quite the reverse, and might even be recorded on the tombstone of the Parthenos (here, simply *unmarried woman*) as an especial claim upon the respect and reverence of her family and townsmen. It is a remnant of the pre-Greek social system that was never really abolished, but decayed slowly before the advance of the Græco-Roman civilization. It was the memory of this antiquated social system that led to the troubles of St. Thekla, about 50 A. D.

Each chapter is followed by an appendix, in which the author cites the inscriptions of which he has made use in supporting the views set forth in the text; or perhaps it would be

more exact to say that these inscriptions have created the author's views. On the other hand, the reader's task is made difficult by disjointedness, as, for example, Mr. Ramsay's last word on the matriarchal system cannot be found in the chapter on Hierapolis, to which we have referred above, but must be sought here and there throughout the book. We admit that this cannot wholly be avoided in a work like the present, but it makes us wish that Mr. Ramsay would treat of Asian manners and customs in a separate volume.

Venezuela: A Land where it's always Summer. By William Eleroy Curtis. With a map. Harper & Bros. 1896.

Mr. Curtis's account of Venezuela contains a good deal of useful information, put together in a second-rate way; it is marred by the fact that the author is not well equipped as an observer and is slovenly as a writer. He is not accurate, he is flippant, and he is not a man of the world. This last, we are aware, is a terrible accusation to bring against a gentleman who has been the director of the Bureau of American Republics, but it is nevertheless true. Mr. Curtis knows the United States, and he has seen a good deal of South America; but apparently the only standard he has to apply to South America is that furnished by the United States. Now this is all very well as far as it goes, but to understand any Spanish American state it is necessary to keep before the mind not the United States, but Europe. Venezuela is essentially European. The Andes are American; the Orinoco is American; so are the *llanos;* the race is mixed; but Venezuelan life, society, civilization, institutions, habits, and even government (they have tried to import the constitutional system of the United States, but have totally failed) are as European as those of the Venice after which the country was named. Leaving the peons and wandering Indians out of view, there is not an idea in a Venezuelan's head, nor a hope or fear in his heart, which does not derive its color and substance from Europe. His literature, his speech, his press, his religion, the house he lives in, the railway carriage he travels in, his cooking, the signs on his shops, his theatre, his ceremonial observances, the rocking-chair he takes his *siesta* in—everything in his existence is European. Venezuela belongs to the European world, and not to the Europe of great capitals either, but to a provincial Europe still more foreign and strange to us. For an American to attempt to describe the peculiarities of Venezuela by comparison with life as it is known in Maine or Illinois, is as if an Englishman should attempt to describe Algiers by comparing it with Yorkshire.

The result is inevitably to give an air of grotesqueness to description some of which is otherwise defective through its inaccuracy. One or two examples will show what we mean. In chapter xv. the author gives an account of Venezuelan fruits—the country produces every known tropical species—and sums up the subject by saying that "for every-day diet" there is nothing in the tropics "that will compare with the Concord grape or the russet apple." For every-day diet there is nothing in the tropics that will compare with a prime porter-house steak; but, after all, what of it? In the next chapter religion is discussed; Mr. Curtis describes the country as "a most inviting field" for Protestant missionary effort, and declares that "a dozen churches might be organized in Venezuela at once, and within a few years every one of them would be self-supporting." In another chapter, in the course of a very light-hearted description of the cemeteries, he warns the traveller not to imagine that "Ella Duerme" on a tomb is "the name of a girl." A Venezuelan courtship he declares to have become so informal that "a young man takes matters into his own hands nowadays, and 'sits up' with his sweetheart, just as they do in Massachusetts or Illinois." It is only fair to say that it is by no means for clergymen alone that Mr. Curtis sees a great opening. At Macuto, a little seaside place near La Guayra, he would have some one build a modern hotel of a hundred or a hundred and fifty rooms. It is true there are some difficulties about it, for not only the material and furniture, "but the builders and servants, must be imported"; but, once built, and conducted on the American plan, it "would be full of guests the whole year round" (p. 30). Another hotel is much needed at Carácas (p. 46). Why is it, one wonders, that capital and labor do not flow into Venezuela, as they have done into the northern half of the continent?

A tendency at every turn to looseness of statement is a marked feature of the book, and nowhere is this more dangerous for an observer than in the tropics. The atmosphere is one of fancy rather than fact, and it is unsafe to take anything for granted or by common report. In Venezuela there is a mental haze (not unlike that which hovers over the coast of the *tierra caliente*) which envelops all matters of distance, measure, weight, and number, and obscures the harsh outlines of fact; this haze it is, in part, which makes any agreement upon the Guiana boundary line so difficult. Mr. Curtis does little to dissipate it. He gives the area of Venezuela at 597,960 square miles (p. 7), without, however, mentioning the important fact that an enormous part of this is not actually administered by Venezuela at all; he declares the States to be "independent in the management of their local affairs" (p. 10), which is true only on paper; at p. 48 the population of Carácas is given at 70,000, yet at p. 168 the number of foreigners is said to be 7,000, and this is said to be *16 per cent.* of the population. The altitude of Carácas (a very important point in South America) is given at 3,900 feet (pp. 38, 43), though all the cyclopedias make it about 1,000 feet less; the number of English books about Venezuela is said (p. 52) to be three; the expenses of housekeeping are "about the same as in the United States" (p. 59), though the author himself points out that rent and service are much lower. Carácas he calls a "sort of one-story Paris" (p. 153), and declares social life there to be very much like what it is in "the Continental cities of Europe" (p. 168)—a sort of one-story Cosmopolis, perhaps. But the danger which lurks in generalizations has no terrors for this author. One singular remark about the habits of the Venezuelans is that there is little drunkenness among them, because they drink "light native liquors made of fruits and the juice of the sugar-cane," which "intoxicate easily," but "when the fumes of the alcohol have left the brain, there is no serious effect like that which follows brandies and other strong drinks." The native liquor of Venezuela is new rum, the properties of which every good New Englander knows. It does intoxicate easily, but the after-effects in Ciudad Bolivar or Maracaibo are substantially the same as in Chelsea or Salem.

The author seems to have taken up the study of Spanish, but he cannot be said to have attained a mastery of it. At page 121, he speaks of "pronunciamentos" (*sic*) as the Spanish word for "a revolutionary party." The word for melon he pronounces "malony," and, that there may be no mistake about it, declares that it recalls the name of a "numerous and highly respected Irish family"; a woman's bonnet, he says, is called a "begorra" (p. 187). The Spanish for "there is none" he converts into the two English words "no hay," over which he makes very merry. He gives (p. 181) what he calls a "unique" death notice, but the term is much more applicable to his translation of it, beginning, "Day before yesterday went down to the sepulchre the honest and laborious Mr. Paul Emilio Gomez." *Limonade* he pronounces "Leemonoddie." A town in Colombia he declares to be "famous only for its name." The name is St. Thomas; to distinguish it from another St. Thomas which threw off the Spanish yoke, it was called by the Spaniards, with "indignant irony," "*Santa Tomas de la Cabelleros.*" Such a name, if it can be imagined in existence, would certainly make a town well known in the Spanish-speaking world, and so would Mr. Curtis's strange equivalent of "St. Thomas the Gentleman."

The best thing in the book is the account of the rise, rule, and downfall—if it can be called downfall to be living in Paris in luxury on the fortune which he wrung out of his impoverished country—of Guzman Blanco. Tyrant for tyrant, his figure is as picturesque as any that South America has produced, and that is saying a good deal. Mr. Curtis gives one or two stories of him which illustrate his character very well, and are new to us. The best are the stories of the scientific anniversary at which Guzman, in reply to an invitation to preside, said he would do so if all the papers were submitted to him for revision (p. 101); of his proclamation of the independence of the Venezuelan church of "the Roman Episcopate," and of his decision to return to "the uses of the primitive church founded by Jesus Christ and his apostles," including the election of the Archbishops "by Congress" (p. 205), and of his securing a proper reception for the officers and sailors of our fleet by means of a decree forbidding any citizen to charge them anything for supplies of any kind while on shore (p. 175).

The Feasts of Autolycus. By Elizabeth Robins Pennell. London: John Lane; New York: The Merriam Co. 1896.

Mrs. Pennell in the preface to her book would make herself out a "greedy woman," and in the chapter on the Virtue of Gluttony she encourages the cultivation of that quality in her sex. This is only a *façon de parler*, for Mrs. Pennell, when she has occasion to mention special dishes, selects with refined, delicate, and discriminating taste, and essentially those which are wasted in the gratification of mere gluttony. She was evidently "chaffing" her English audience (for the various papers of which her volume is composed appeared originally as separate articles in the *Pall Mall Gazette*). Mrs. Pennell discourses pleasantly of breakfasts, dinners, and suppers; she eulogizes "the subtle sandwich," "the incomparable onion," "the most excellent oyster," "the magnificent mushroom," and "the triumphant tomato." Of them she tells us nothing new, although she proclaims that "there is no knowledge nobler than that of the 'gullet science,'" and, in quotation of another writer, that "the discovery of a new dish does more for the happiness of the human race than the discovery of a planet." The first of these

aphorisms may arouse the languid interest of the epicure; but the second will not discourage the astronomer in his search of the heavens.

All that Mrs. Pennell has to say may be condensed within very restricted limits; but she has elaborated her subject with such facile grace that, in those who are able to envelop eating with a poetic halo, her love of that function, whether real or simulated, will inspire appreciative recognition. To tourists from remote portions of the United States and the Dominion of Canada, equipped with well-lined wallets and unjaded palates, who are about to go abroad for the first time, Mrs. Pennell's book, in its accurate knowledge, acquired through experience, of special local dishes and of the places where they may be procured in the various towns of Europe, will prove of value. To the gourmand, however, it offers nothing in the way of culinary preparations with which he is not entirely familiar, and of which he is not perhaps long since weary. As a pessimistic Chicago poet says in an Ode to Spring :

> "Same old violets, same old blue;
> Same old grass-plot, same old hue;
> Same old look in everything;
> Same old season; same old spring."

So may it be said of cookery at the close of the nineteenth century: Same old soup, same old fish, same old sauce, with the same old dish.

Criminal Sociology. By Enrico Ferri. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THE very competent editor of the "Criminology Series," in which this volume appears, Mr. W. Douglas Morrison, remarks that the public is in danger of being deluded by misleading statistics concerning the diminution of crime. He is evidently incliued to the opinion that crime is either increasing or at least keeping pace with the increase of population. At the same time he thinks, as most do who investigate the subject, that no good results are to be expected from resorting to punishments of greater rigor and severity. It is generally admitted that our system of penal servitude not only fails to reform offenders, but, in the case of the less hardened criminals, and especially first offenders, produces a deteriorating effect. Evidently, under these circumstances, we need to inquire into the causes that produce criminals. Prof. Ferri's work is an essay in this direction, and perhaps the best of those which we have lately had from Italian investigators. Under the head of Criminal Anthropology he takes up the individual conditions which tend to produce criminal habits of mind and action. He then examines the adverse social conditions that tend to lead certain sections of the population into crime. While maintaining that the only way to diminish crime is to ameliorate these conditions, he admits that criminal codes are nevertheless necessary for the protection of society, and concludes by pointing out the importance of some practical reforms in criminal law and prison administration.

While Prof. Ferri's methods appear to us to be considerably in advance of those of Lombroso, we can hardly regard them as strictly scientific in character. He is too ready to accept statistical returns as evidence, without the laborious verification which almost all statistics require, and his reasoning is frequently confused and wandering. Many of his conclusions are of such extreme generality as to be of little practical value. We know that drunkenness and crimes of violence are connected, and that poverty is related to crimes against property. No doubt, if we can put a stop to drunkenness and eliminate poverty, we shall have done much to suppress crime; but there is nothing new in this. Still, it is well to look at the subject from various points of view, and many of Prof. Ferri's suggestions deserve attention. The Anglo-Saxon race, however, will hardly consider the proposition that the jury should be dispensed with in the trial of ordinary offenders, however it may commend itself to the theorists of Continental Europe.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bergen, Fanny D. Current Superstitions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.50.
Bok, E. W. The Young Man in Business. The Young Man and the Church. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. Each 30c.
Burdett, H. C. Burdett's Official Intelligence for 1896. London: Spottiswoode & Co.
Carus, Paul. The Religion of Science. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 50c.
Cawein, Madison. Undertones. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Comey, Prof. A. M. A Dictionary of Chemical Solubilities. Inorganic. Macmillan. $5.
Crawford, F. M. Adam Johnstone's Son. Macmillan. $1.50.
Field, Eugene. Writings in Prose and Verse. [Sabine Edition.] Vols. I.-V. Scribners.
Gras, Félix. The Reds of the Midi: An Episode of the French Revolution. Appletons. $1.50.
Hamlin, Prof. A. D. F. A Text-Book of the History of Architecture. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Harland, Marion. Mr. Wayt's Wife's Sister. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
Larison, Dr. C. W. Reminiscences of School Life. Ringoes, N. J.: Fonic Publishing House.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Retrospective Reviews: A Literary Log. London: John Lane; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.50.
Lillie, Lucy C. Ruth Endicott's Way. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Littell's Living Age. Jan.-March, 1896. Boston: Littell & Co.
Marchbank, Agnes. Ruth Farmer. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.
Mayes, Edward. Lucius Q. C. Lamar: His Life, Times, and Speeches. 1825-1893. Nashville, Tenn.: Methodist Episcopal Publishing House. $5.
Müller, Prof. F. M. Three Lectures on the Science of Language. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 75c.
North of Market Street: Being the Adventures of a New York Woman in Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Avil Printing Co.
Paradise Lost. Books I.-III. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Rameau, Jean. Le Cœur de Régine. Paris: Ollendorff; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Ribot, Prof. Th. The Psychology of Attention. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 75c.
Rod, Édouard. The White Rocks. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Ross, G. W. The School System of Ontario (Canada). Appletons. $1.
Simmons, Vesta S. A Village Drama. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
Smith, F. H. Tom Grogan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Smythe, E. Louise. A Primary Reader. Werner School Book Co.
Southworth, Mrs. A Beautiful Fiend. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Train, Elizabeth P. Doctor Lamar. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 50c.

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DISCUSSION.—Recommendations as to uniform college entrance requirements made by the Conferences held at Columbia University, February, 1896.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 7, 1896.

The Week.

THE walls of the anti-McKinley Jericho have been knocked too flat by the blast of the Illinois trumpet to be rebuilt. Quay and Platt and Manley make a dismal pretence at continued cheerfulness, but they see the fatal drift away from them, and know it cannot be checked. With the ablest, most prudent and far-sighted Republican leaders against him, or at least gravely doubtful of the wisdom of his nomination, with the most conservative elements of his party East and West desiring another type of man, McKinley is moving on triumphantly to an almost certain victory at St. Louis. What does it mean? It means the triumph of ignorant, one-idea extremists. It means that the currency may go hang, provided only we may have another high-tariff debauch. It means, moreover, a distinct threat that we shall get another high tariff, as we got the last one, only by a corrupt bargain, involving the debasement of the currency. Senator Teller was most explicit on this point, in his rôle of Republican *enfant terrible* the other day. He taunted the Republican tariff extremists with their inability to reënact the McKinley bill in the next Senate. It cannot be done without placating the eight or ten Republican silver Senators who will hold the balance of power. But will McKinley or his kind in the Senate hesitate to give them their pound of flesh in the shape of shattered national finances? Not for an instant. Congressman Draper of Massachusetts is already out for a currency of lead, or anything whatever, if necessary to get high duties again. This is the threat to business and finance involved in the McKinley boom. This will be the meaning of his success at St. Louis and at the polls, as interpreted by his own friends.

Senator-elect Foraker hastens to notify the Eastern Republicans that they will get neither candidate nor platform at St. Louis. In the name of McKinley himself, he asserts that the Republican national convention will declare not for the gold standard, but for bimetallism, and against free coinage of silver only temporarily and conditionally. This would fittingly make nominee and principles alike two-faced, and complete the serious threat to stability of business and finance involved in the McKinley candidacy. Foraker, of course, is bound to exalt the Ohio currency plank as the sum of financial wisdom, and expects the advocacy of bimetallism to carry another Ohio man, whom modesty does not forbid him to mention, into the White House in 1900. But there is every reason to believe that a determined effort to place the party squarely on the gold standard would be successful. Sentiment has changed greatly since the Ohio shuffle was adopted. A declaration for the gold standard is really about all that Eastern Republicans have left to fight for, and they may as well concentrate their energies on this important point. The platform has to be adopted before the candidate is nominated. No one doubts that McKinley would stand on any kind of a platform offered him. The despondent anti-McKinley leaders cannot do better than struggle to put him on a gold plank. He would look just as picturesque and be a good deal safer.

Vermont's unexpected declaration for McKinley is the severest blow Speaker Reed's candidacy has yet received. It is not simply a question of the delegates involved (they number only eight). Mr. Reed has all along confidently counted upon a solid New England vote behind him, but now the McKinley poachers have filled their bag from his own preserves. He is thus unable to pose any longer as even a sectional candidate. To be that is not of itself a great distinction or advantage in a canvass for the Presidential nomination, but it was the strongest rôle left the Speaker, and now that has been made impossible for him. His candidacy has never had a national character—some of his New England support has before looked dubious; and now one State has openly left him. It was a great stroke on the part of the McKinley managers, and it is not a little significant that their first undoubted success in breaking into New England should have been won in the most purely agricultural State. It is an indisputable, though very curious, fact, that the most genuine and unbought enthusiasm for McKinley is to be found among farmers—not, as one would have expected, among artisans and manufacturers. The only explanation is that the farming mind is peculiarly susceptible to the McKinley logic. We had good crops when we had a high tariff, and how are you going to get away from that? The bucolic mind in England during the Napoleonic wars was just as firmly convinced that there would never be another good harvest if peace were made. George Eliot's novels, with the insight they give into the mysterious operations of the agricultural intellect, are the political manual to which we should send any one asking for the reasons of McKinley's great popularity among American farmers. The proved venality of our "yeoman" voters should also be taken into account.

How shall we explain the enthusiasm for one who is neither a military hero, a leader in civil life, nor a "magnetic" man? It is the fact, which was itself a mere chance, that McKinley's name came to be associated with a tariff act, the passage of which was coincident with a period of prosperity, and the repassage of which is believed by the masses to be capable of immediately restoring that prosperity. A mere chance, we say. In the Republican caucus which nominated Reed for Speaker in 1889, McKinley stood second with 39 votes, and Cannon of Illinois third with 22. Custom virtually decrees the naming, by the successful candidate, of his chief rival as chairman of the ways and means committee, and so "leader of the House." If Cannon had received the 39 votes and McKinley the 22, it would have been the Cannon tariff act, and we should have had to-day, with precisely as much reason, unbounded enthusiasm for Cannon—a man, by the way, with quite as much claim to the Presidency, in point of ability, as McKinley—and Cannon's claim would seem too ridiculous for consideration. In other words, the enthusiasm for McKinley is a matter of neither brains nor heart. It is not based upon admiration of the man's ability or upon affection for one who makes tens of thousands regard him as a personal friend. It is purely a matter of the pocket. It is based upon the belief among the masses that McKinley's election in 1896—or, for that matter, Cannon's, if Cannon had been appointed chairman of the ways and means committee in 1889—will give them constant work with easy hours at high wages. In short, it rests upon the theory that the tariff is the most important thing in the country, and that the Government can mark wages up or down. It is due to the spreading among the ignorant of the idea that prosperity is to be determined by votes.

McKinley's defenders have "pointed with pride" to a stump speech in August, 1891, in which he condemned free coinage. One trouble about this speech is that, even though McKinley may have been right on the silver question in August, 1891, he did not stay so long. Only two years later, in September, 1893, the Ohio financier was making speeches on the same question again, and this was the way he talked:

> "The silver product of the country, one of the most important we have, should not be discriminated against, but some plan should be devised for its utilization as a money which will insure, not the displacement of gold, but the safe and full use of both, as exchanges among the people."

This speech was delivered at a most critical time. President Cleveland had called an extra session of Congress for the express purpose of repealing the silver-purchase act, and the House had promptly responded to his appeal. But the Senate

halted and hesitated for weeks, until the sound-money men of the country were almost in despair. It was in this gloomy period that McKinley raised his voice, not to help the men of both parties who were fighting for sound money against heavy odds, but to help the other side by protesting against any discrimination to the prejudice of silver, and demanding the use of silver as fully as of gold.

It is encouraging to find that Republican politicians and newspapers representing the business interests of the country are expressing the apprehension which prevails over the prospect of McKinley's nomination on a "straddling" platform. Mr. Depew says that the country has suffered for years because of the doubt about our currency, that this has been one of the causes of the financial and industrial depression from which we are still suffering, and that "the 'hold-up' in the Senate, by the silver Senators, of all measures for the relief of the Treasury, for the increase of its revenue, for the national defence, for the protection of American industries, unless coupled with the free coinage of silver upon an arbitrary ratio, has made the money question the leading and most important issue to be decided in this campaign." He adds that no party which fails emphatically to take the ground that the United States must be put permanently upon a gold basis "can carry New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, or Massachusetts. Upon any other basis Pennsylvania will be doubtful, as will also be Michigan, Minnesota, and Illinois. The question now can neither be sidetracked nor eliminated nor suppressed." The unanimity for protection, he declares, places that principle out of danger. Even more significant and encouraging is the similar attitude of the Philadelphia *Ledger*, published in the very stronghold of protection. The *Ledger* asserts that "the real issue of the campaign is the currency"; that "the tariff is an issue which need not be considered by either candidates, leaders, or organs"; that "the country could better do without any tariff than suffer the lowering of the currency to a silver basis"; and that "the Republican convention should nominate no man, the country vote for no man, who is not an open, manly, pronounced supporter of the gold standard of monetary value."

Senator Teller's blurting out of the truth on Wednesday week about the corrupt bargain by which the McKinley act was got in exchange for the silver-purchase act was a complete exposure, and stripped away the last rag with which Senator Sherman has attempted to cover his own shameful part in the transaction. He has asserted more than once, and specifically in his recent 'Recollections,' that Harrison would not have vetoed a free-coinage bill, and that the purchase act was devised as a means of heading off free coinage. Not at all, affirmed Teller, while not a Senator dared contradict him. Harrison would have vetoed a free-coinage bill. If we had, as we threatened, put a free-coinage rider on the McKinley bill, he would have vetoed both tariff and coinage. This was perfectly well known to Sherman and the other Republicans, and to save their tariff they bribed the silver Senators with the purchase act. This is the undoubted truth. Senator Teller relieves Mr. Harrison from Sherman's charge that he was friendly to free coinage, but does not relieve him from the odium of playing the part assigned him in the corrupt bargain.

The early Democratic convention in Missouri, with its silver-mad resolutions, appears to have roused sound-money Democrats to the need of making a fight. They have buckled on their armor, and have already won a great victory in Michigan, where they last week unhorsed the boasting silver-men, and elected the delegates-at-large to Chicago, with a majority of the district delegates, on a gold platform. The silverites went down shrieking, "We are beaten because we have been bought up!" But this cry is not a good one to base a contesting delegation upon. Nor has it a proud, defiant ring about it, calculated to strengthen the nerves of silver delegates in other State conventions. A suspicion that buying-up may be done is a deadly one to implant in a silver breast, and the main result will be, we fear, to send hundreds of silver champions to conventions anxiously inquiring when the process is to begin, and where the paymaster is to be found. The Michigan victory, with the strong and uncompromising plank adopted by the Pennsylvania Democrats, is of excellent omen.

The Senate on Friday varied the exchange of billingsgate between New York and South Carolina by striking out two of the four battle-ships provided for in the naval bill. This action was taken on the ground of economy, but the point made against it by Congressman Boutelle is perfectly fair. He justly says that the Senate has been the inflammatory, bullying body in this Congress. It has done its best to plunge the country into two foreign wars. Senator Sherman, as chairman of the committee on foreign relations, has been chief incendiary. Yet now, when it is a question of getting ready to make his brave words good, of preparing to fight with ships instead of resolutions, he is found voting against the ships. This new inconsistency will not trouble a veteran in inconsistency like Mr. Sherman, but it is highly significant of the headless course of the Senate all this session. It has advocated a domineering, aggressive policy towards other nations, which, if it was seriously intended, would require the building of a first-class navy at the earliest possible moment. It has derided the business aspect of a foreign war, delighting to call those who urged it cravens and traitors. Yet it weakly withdraws from even a moderate preparation for war, on the plea that there is no money available. It thus frankly confesses that its mouthing of last December and February was mere imbecile bluster.

The Platt-Tammany liquor combine, which has been suspected of being behind the Raines tax law, is very plainly revealed in the remarkable information published by the *Evening Post* concerning the surety company of which one of Platt's sons is the manager. There is no doubt about the accuracy of this information. It shows with startling plainness that Platt's son's company is openly giving bonds to liquor-dealers without requiring the usual oath or affidavit as to the truth of their statements, and is saying to them that this relieves them of all liability which might be incurred in case the statements which had been sworn to turned out to be false. In addition to this, the intimation is conveyed to all applicants that if they get their bonds from the Platt company they will be protected by the Platt "pull" with the confidential agents, and will not be disturbed if they violate the law. The consequence is that the Platt company, although its rates are higher and its financial standing is inferior to that of its rivals, is doing a roaring business, the great majority of liquor-dealers believing that the name of Platt is worth more than all other considerations combined.

The formal dedication on Saturday of the new site for Columbia College marked what is certain to be the beginning of a new era for this city. It is the first step towards the establishment in the heart of the city of a really good university, fully equipped with all the attributes and facilities of a modern institution of learning of the first rank. When the new buildings whose cornerstones were laid on Saturday shall have been completed, and the beautiful site upon which they are to stand shall have received its full allotment of structures, the old college will enter upon a new and larger life which cannot fail to exert an elevating and beneficent influence upon the city. It will become more than ever before the centre of the city's intellectual life, and will aid powerfully in the development of our greatest municipal need, a sensitive and active civic pride.

The Transvaal Calvinists are evidently as great sticklers for the doctrine of their own, as for that of divine, sovereignty. They want all sinners and filibusters to understand that it is a dangerous thing to trifle with either. It has been said of

Jonathan Edwards that he would condemn uncounted millions to hell without the flicker of an eyelash, though personally he would not harm a fly; the Boers, however, believe in punishment in both worlds. Yet no one supposed that their sentence of death on the Johannesburg revolutionists was anything more than a matter of form, to be hereafter graciously remitted or commuted by President Krüger. In fact, it is inconceivable that the accused persons should have pleaded guilty unless assured in advance of getting off on tolerable terms. But, though thus purely *pro forma*, their sentence will do a world of good to hotheads and adventurers in South Africa and elsewhere. The sovereignty of a weak power has come to mean, to far too many, a thing to sport with at will. Only one or two of the revolutionary missionaries' sons in Hawaii, for example, seemed to have the slightest idea that they were risking their necks. And the jaunty way in which Jameson and his gentleman raiders set out to overthrow the government of a friendly power, shows how vague were their ideas of law and international obligation. President Krüger has done well to magnify the terrors of outraged sovereignty, human as well as divine. He has also given Chamberlain a terrible lesson in diplomacy.

It begins to look as if Chamberlain's real reason for so anxiously desiring President Krüger to come to London was a hope that the simple-minded old Boer would bring the incriminating telegrams along with him in his grip-sack, *à la* Mulligan, and that they might be wormed out of him and suppressed. The Colonial Secretary must have learned of their existence from Jameson himself, or from Cecil Rhodes; and his feelings, with the certainty that they were hanging over his head all the while, we leave to those familiar with the villains on the Bowery stage to imagine. What was morally certain from the first is now put beyond serious question—namely, that Jameson was acting throughout with the cognizance, if not under the direct orders, of Cecil Rhodes, and that the whole raid, so bepraised in London music-halls and by the Poet Laureate, was simply a piratical expedition carefully planned by the leading officials of the Chartered Company. President Krüger has published the telegrams captured with Jameson at just the right dramatic moment, and we shall hear less about Boer bloodthirstiness and more about Boer astuteness. That there was treason at Johannesburg, and an attack on a friendly country plotted at Cape Town, is now clear; and the treason and the plot have not even the immoral justification of having been successful. Swift and complete disavowal by England, and stern measures with the implicated officials, are imperatively demanded. Chamberlain cannot be sure, either, that the innocent old Dutch farmer has not a lot more of mighty interesting telegrams up his sleeve.

Mr. Chamberlain, besides suffering from the recalcitrancy and shrewdness of the venerable Oom Paul, is beginning to suffer from the proposed remission of taxes on land. The deadly parallel has opened on him, and will probably play on him now steadily for weeks. The London *Daily News* has two terrible extracts from speeches made in 1885, when Mr. Chamberlain was a furious Radical, and compared Ireland to Poland. In one he warns the farmers, in almost savage terms, that no relief of local taxation will do much for them. "But," says the great man, "even if the farmer could get all he desired in those two respects [protection and reduction of local taxation], that would not benefit him one iota, though it might enable his landlord to extract a higher rent." The other, from a speech made in 1883, is still more dreadful, and deserves full quotation:

> "Lord Salisbury coolly proposes to hand it over indirectly, if not directly, to the landlords of the country in the shape of a contribution in aid of local taxes. I must say that I never recollect any public man propose in a franker—I might even say in a more audacious—manner to rob Peter in order to pay Paul. And what makes it worse is, that in this case Peter is represented by the landless millions who have no other wealth than their labor and their toil, while Paul is the great landlord, with 20,000 acres, who is seeking to relieve himself of his share of taxation by shifting it on to the shoulders of his less fortunate fellow-countrymen."

Mr. Chamberlain will probably say that a man has a right to change his mind in thirteen years, and so he has; but as long as the moral government of the world lasts, Providence will keep an eye on politicians of Mr. Chamberlain's stamp, through all their mutations. Mr. Chamberlain probably little thought, in the midst of the recent burst of popularity, that Oom Paul was getting ready the humble instrument of his humiliation.

The dissension in France between the Chamber and the Senate over the income-tax causes the London *Daily News* to remark:

> "Whether such a convenient and efficacious mode of raising revenue be desirable in France at the present moment is a point for Frenchmen, and not for foreigners, to decide. But to denounce it as robbery, or, except in the strictly technical sense of the term, confiscation, is ridiculous."

In a certain sense this is true, but Frenchmen who consider an income-tax "robbery" or "confiscation" are not wholly to blame, and are really no more ridiculous than the people who talk about it as "scientific." An income-tax would be the best of all taxes if it were levied off people who liked it and told the truth about their incomes. In England and Germany it does reasonably well because there it is simply a tax, and is not thought of as anything else. In this country or France it would not be a tax. It would be a means on the part of the poor or more numerous for punishing the rich or the minority for being well off. So that whether it is a tax or not a tax depends on the people who pay it. Considering the state of relations between the classes in France, it is not surprising that the class which has an income opposes, tooth and nail, the desire of the class which has none to make it pay the expenses of the Government, for to that it would come. The income-tax in such countries is the weapon through which the unsuccessful hope to make the successful smart. In this country the income-tax would have been, if leviable, a means by which the poor agricultural and silver States would make the rich or business States contribute most of the revenue, and the rate would have been increased in every Congress, and likewise the number of people who collect it. Salvation from it is one of the best pieces of work the Supreme Court ever did for us. For half a century in France the Socialists have been looking for it as a mode not of raising money for the Government so much as of carrying out their own views of state policy. The taxes of every country should be framed with reference to its social and political conditions. There is no more a science of taxation than a science of medicine. There is an art of taxation, which is an extremely interesting art, and consists mainly in finding out what kind of person the taxpayer is, and how he lives.

To people who ask what is the matter with Spain, why she fell from the primacy of Europe, why her government is so inefficient, and all that, a very good answer is furnished by the spectacle witnessed in Madrid on Monday. The bones of a thirteenth-century saint were carried through the streets in solemn procession by 800 priests, and nine-day services are now being held in the cathedral, with Queen and Ministry present, as a means of bringing to an end the prevailing drought and triumphantly concluding the Cuban war. Of the religious significance of all this we say nothing, but as a chunk of pure mediævalism it has the highest political significance. It shows how poor is the pretence that Spain is really a part of the modern world. Much as she has undeniably advanced since the revolution of 1868, many as are her partial adjustments to present-day conditions, it is evident that the political ideas of the great majority of her people remain those of the time of the Armada. Philip really relied upon San Lorenzo more than upon his ships, and Madrid clearly thinks better of the fighting qualities of San Isidro than of Gen. Weyler. What can the most enlightened Ministers do when they have to get on, under universal suffrage, with a people who put their political trust in a saint's relics? It seems idle to ask when Spain is going to reform and modernize her government of Cuba; she has first to accomplish the harder task of reforming and modernizing the Spanish mind.

THE DIVIDED SILVERITES.

THE letter which Senator Wolcott of Colorado wrote last week to the chairman of the Republican central committee for his State is a sign of the times. It is nothing less than an offer to surrender from the heart of the silver camp. Senator Wolcott says that the Colorado Republican State convention, which is to meet next week, may decline to be represented at the national convention of the party at St. Louis, or it may select delegates. If the latter course shall be adopted, as he impliedly advises, he holds that "the duty of the delegation will be to attend the convention, make the best fight possible for bimetallism in the committee on resolutions and on the floor of the convention if there shall be opportunity for discussion before the whole convention, and, after having insisted by every proper method upon the duty of the convention to declare in favor of the restoration of silver as a measure of value equally with gold, to accept the will of the majority of the convention, and endeavor to secure the nomination of the candidate most friendly to Western interests." While declaring himself ready to make any sacrifice to secure the remonetization of silver (in the interest of national prosperity), and counting party ties as nothing in comparison with that end, he sees that "both of the two great parties are apparently opposed to free coinage by the United States," while the Populist party advocates the policy only as a stepping-stone to other measures "which would be, if adopted, destructive of free institutions," and he knows of "no fourth party as yet entitled to our confidence and support." He proceeds:

> "Under these circumstances and conditions, therefore, I desire to be counted as a Republican, proud of the traditions of my party, glorying in its achievements, and still hopeful that the great party which has heretofore stood for the masses against the classes, may on this great economic question yet range itself on the side of humanity and of civilization."

Mr. Wolcott is the ablest among the younger members of the Senate, and the most independent, as was illustrated a few weeks ago by his leading the opposition in the upper branch to the Jingo craze that followed the President's Venezuelan message. He has great influence with his party in his State, having secured a reëlection without difficulty at the end of his first term last year. He is the strongest man among the Senators from the silver States. The sole hope of success for those States in making an impression upon the St. Louis convention was a "united front" among their Republicans. They must stand together in the policy of menacing the advocates of the gold standard with a bolt from that convention and a consequent loss of their States to the Republican ticket in November. Such a stand would arrest the attention of the whole country, and might frighten weak-kneed Republican politicians. Senator Wolcott's letter has rendered the adoption of this policy impossible. It furnishes a rallying-point for those partisans (and they are always a large element in every political organization) who have always voted the straight ticket for President, however much it went against the grain, and who are now ready to welcome a good argument for doing the same thing next fall.

The publication of it was followed by a speech from Mr. Wolcott's Colorado colleague, in which Mr. Teller announced that he would do his best to secure a declaration for free coinage at St. Louis, and would bolt the party if he should not succeed.

> "I am frequently asked," he said, "what I will do if the political party with which I am connected, and whose record I am proud of, adopts the gold standard and puts itself in line with those who are demanding that gold, and gold alone, shall measure the values of the world. I have no hesitation in saying here, as I have said before and shall say again, that, whenever the political party to which I belong ceases to represent my sentiments and my judgment, I will cease to act with it. When the Democratic party, in which I was brought up and educated, became the party of oppression and wickedness, I got out of it. I should despise myself if I should lift my hand to put in power any one who, in the executive chair, would use the slightest influence to maintain the present system of finance. I should despise myself, as you ought to despise me, if I did not lift my voice against it on every occasion; and if I lift my voice one way and vote another way, you would have a right to accuse me of hypocrisy. Mr. President, as I speak, so I will vote, in the interest, as I believe, of the great masses of men in this country, in the interest of the great masses of men throughout Christendom."

This declaration is to be welcomed by all people who hate compromise and would have no more shuffling on the issue of the day. Mr. Teller was a member of the committee on resolutions at the Republican national convention of 1892, which reported that extraordinary plank affirming that "the American people, from tradition and interest, favor bimetallism," and that "the Republican party demands the use of both gold and silver as standard money," etc. Four years ago the Colorado Senator was ready to accept a declaration facing both ways, and to go home and tell his constituents that it meant free coinage, while New Englanders interpreted it the other way. This year he insists upon a plank which will mean the same thing in Massachusetts as in Colorado, and he will leave the party unless he can get such a plank.

The two utterances of the Colorado Senators ought to settle the question of free coinage at St. Louis. Mr. Teller shows that there are silver-men in the Republican party who put silver above party fealty. Mr. Wolcott shows that there are Republicans among the silverites who care more for the party than for the metal. Mr. Teller's attitude proves that his wing of Republicans cannot be held in the organization without a free-coinage plank; Mr. Wolcott's that the Republicans whom he represents will not bolt if the platform shall declare explicitly against 16 to 1. The real danger of the situation, however, is from the Wolcott wing of silver-State Republicans rather than the Teller wing. Everybody will see that the party cannot satisfy the latter element. The risk will lie in the attempt to placate the men for whom Mr. Wolcott stands, and to "let them down easy." There is still another danger, and an even more serious one. A strong candidate can be trusted on a weak platform, but a weak candidate is to be dreaded on the strongest platform. There is a clause in Mr. Wolcott's letter which has a direct bearing upon this point, and which should be carefully considered by sound-money men. We refer to his making it the duty of the overruled Colorado delegation to "endeavor to secure the nomination of the candidate most friendly to Western interests." This can have but one meaning. Such a candidate would be one who was anxious to "do something for silver," and who would strain a point for that purpose. There is a timely warning in Mr. Teller's revelation that Mr. Harrison consented to the silver-purchase act of 1890 because silver Republican Senators threatened to place a free-coinage rider on the McKinley act unless the President and the sound-money men in Congress would agree to "do something for silver."

GOV. MORTON AND THE PLATFORM.

GOV. MORTON was elected, in 1894, on a platform which said, among other things:

> "We arraign the administration of Gov. Flower for its glaring sins of omission and commission. The executive of this State was the accomplice of the odious Democratic machine which stole the Legislature. . . . He put the canals in the hands of party workers, and made a highway of politics of a highway of commerce; he blocked the path of ballot reform and of home rule in violation of his solemn pledges; he made a mockery of civil-service reform, and in every emergency was the ready tool of machine bosses instead of being the Governor of the State. . . . We pledge to the people an improved civil service, municipal home rule, an acceptable excise law, etc., and free and fair primaries, as fully protected by law as general elections."

The amended Constitution was submitted to the people at the election at which Gov. Morton was chosen. The platform said of this amended Constitution:

> "We recognize the wisdom of the Constitutional Convention in dealing in important and needed revision and amendment of the Constitution of the State, and commend the action thus far taken by that convention to the favorable consideration of the people."

Gov. Morton ran on this platform, and on it received the hearty support of the honest and conservative people of the State. His majority was 156,000, the largest ever received by any candidate in this State, except one. The amended Constitution, thus approved by the convention, with which he must have been perfectly familiar, was submitted to the people at the same election, and received a majority of over 83,000. One of the most important amendments provided that all the appointive offices of the State should be filled by competitive examination "so far as practicable." Another provided that every act affecting a city should be submitted

to the Mayor thereof for his approval. That this latter was not meant to be a mere form was shown by the fact that the provision was also made that, if the Mayor so vetoed it, it would have to be passed by the Legislature a second time. This evidently meant that the reasons for overruling the veto should be weighty, and lucid, and capable of clear expression on paper. The amendment was meant to put a stop to the practice, in both parties, of forcing bills affecting cities hastily through the Legislature against the will and often without the knowledge of the constituted municipal authorities.

Now, suppose Gov. Morton had written a letter of acceptance containing, among others, the following passages:

"I note what you say with regard to my predecessor's administration of the canals —that 'he put them in the hands of party workers, and made a highway of politics of a highway of commerce.' I shall do, as nearly as may be, the same thing. As soon as inaugurated I shall put the canals into the hands of one of the most notorious and unscrupulous workers of the Republican party. I shall not consider his antecedents as regards the State service, nor shall I ask him what his views and intentions are touching the civil-service amendment of the Constitution. I shall simply tell him to go ahead and do what he did before. When I find him totally disregarding the law and setting the Civil-Service Commission at defiance, I shall neither remove nor rebuke him. I shall allow him to go on in his own way and fight the competitive system in the courts, and get all he can out of the canals as a highway of politics.

"As regards the Civil-Service Commission, I shall promptly reorganize it, and, without giving any reason to the public, shall remove one of its members, who is known to be faithful to his duties, and put in his place one of its bitterest and best-known enemies, and I shall do this not on my own judgment either, but under the advice and pressure of a characterless New York expressman, who desires that the majority of such commission shall be hostile to the new system of appointment as intended by the Constitution. As soon as I have arranged this, I shall sign a bill providing for a very large number of employees, with high salaries, and I shall allow these to be selected by the expressman above mentioned, and used for his own purposes. Sixty of these, one for each county, are to be, he says, 'special agents,' and I see that he has provided that they shall be 'confidential' persons in order to withdraw them from the examinations provided by the new Constitution. I am rather sorry he has done this, but he must have his way. I shall impose no restrictions on him as to their character and antecedents, but let him select them as he pleases, and think it not unlikely that he will select, for the most part, bummers without standing or occupation. At the head of this organization he is to put a creature of his own, who tells me that he cannot have his appointees examined competitively, because 'there is not time.'

"I am much interested in the changes made by the amended Constitution in the matter of city government. The people evidently intend that the old system of legislative tinkering with city charters shall cease, and that, unless under very extraordinary circumstances, such as the complete domination of a city by a corrupt boss like Tweed, all proposed changes in municipal government shall emanate from the people of the place and from their duly elected authorities. In order to check departures from this sound and wholesome rule, I see the mayors have been given a veto power. But it will not be convenient this year to pay much attention to this amendment. I shall allow the expressman above mentioned to draft the largest scheme of city government ever set on foot, not excepting the reorganization of London, with the assistance of a young lawyer living in the country. I am aware that the expressman is a very ignorant, illiterate person, who has had no experience in real statecraft, and, as far as I can learn, the young lawyer is still worse. But they are both very anxious to try their hands at charter-making. I wish they would not, but I do not see my way to preventing them. I should like very much, too, to have the approval of the mayors of the two cities of New York and Brooklyn for their work, and should like to have it submitted, according to the American practice, to the people. But both the expressman and the lawyer say they care nothing about the approval of the mayors, and are unwilling to submit it to the people. In fact, both mayors and people have disapproved of it. This is a very unfortunate thing to occur in a Presidential year, but what can I do? Both the expressman and the lawyer are very obstinate persons. The expressman, it is true, holds no public office, but I am, after all, only a Governor of the State of New York, and he will control ever so many votes at St. Louis. The situation is a very disagreeable one all round. I wish from my heart Aldridge, and Lord, and Platt, and Lexow, and Lyman were a different kind of people, but they are what they are."

Now, the foregoing is an exact description of what has happened since Gov. Morton was elected, except what relates to his approval of the Greater New York bill. We ask, in all fairness, whether he could possibly have received the majority he did receive, had this public the remotest idea that things would run as they have run. We commend it to his careful consideration as a man of honor. Tens of thousands of voters feel that they have thus far made a great mistake with regard to his independence, both political and personal. It is for him to set himself right with the people who have trusted and exalted him.

THE UNFORTUNATE PRESS.

THE fate which has overtaken the New York *Times* will cause genuine regret among those who know anything of its history. It has played a very prominent and creditable part in both the politics and the journalism of New York. It made its way into profit and distinction over forty years ago, through the talent and industry of its founder, Henry J. Raymond, although its rival, the *Tribune*, not only was animated by Horace Greeley's passionate earnestness, but had a staff made up of such men as George William Curtis, Bayard Taylor, William H. Fry, and George Ripley. Until the war, and, indeed, one may say, until Raymond's death in 1869, it was a sober, dignified newspaper, that supplied conservative Republicans with the calm and moderation which the fiercer convictions of the *Tribune* made impossible. That such a journal was desired and, in proper hands, was profitable, was shown by the great success of the enterprise. Two fortunes, indeed three, were made out of it. Raymond made one, George Jones, the late publisher, made another, and, we believe, Mr. Gilbert Jones, his son, made another by his final sale of it for a large sum—a transaction which has raised him to a very high degree of financial fame and eminence.

Its want of later success, which we hope is only temporary, is another illustration of the misfortune, from the moral point of view, which seems to wait on New York journalism. The foundation of such papers as the *Herald*, *Tribune*, and *Times* by the labor and ability of one man is no longer possible. Each of these papers had its origin in little else than an energetic editor behind a small printing-press, and worked its way into success and influence by slow degrees. To-day the competition is so keen and the expenses of a newspaper so great that it has to be begun, as a factory or railroad is begun, by an investment of a million or two, besides having the right kind of editor and publisher. After all, of the two kinds of success a newspaper may achieve—the financial and the moral—one only is, as a rule, possible. It may fill the pockets of the proprietors and yet be a curse to their generation, or it may be full of the best sentiments and too dull to make any money. There is no property in the world harder to manage, and yet it has great fascination for many rich men, who lose in it with remarkable fortitude. To own even a failing paper is to some a perpetual joy.

It is this difficulty of management which probably accounts for the fact that while, during the last quarter of a century, we presume we may say millions have been flung into the maelstrom of New York journalism, hardly any attempt has been made to improve its quality as a whole. The American press continues to be the most famous in the world for its badness in all points but the gathering of news, in which it is preëminent. But when it is

considered as the chief literature of a great people, and the chief moulder of opinion, and the chief diffuser of intelligence, it is the most extraordinary phenomenon of the modern world. Nothing, or next to nothing, is done to mend it. Each new venture is on the same lines as the last, or is generally a little worse. Many millions are given every year to colleges and schools by patriotic and philanthropic men, but no attempt is made by this class to improve the press, which has a hundred times as much influence on the character and mind of the people as all the colleges and schools put together. They have for it an unconcealed contempt. They know it is vulgarizing and debauching their children, and they are ready to invest in it for pecuniary profit on the old plan, but they are not willing to make it better. There is no doubt that the French press is more venal, but it is written with far more education, in better style, with more knowledge of the world. Most of our journals seem to be composed for the class of slender instruction and childish minds known as domestic servants, and in any other civilized country would probably never get above the basement story. But many of our educated men even enjoy and admire the most scurrilous and mendacious of them all.

The note of the press to-day which most needs changing is childishness. Even if the papers are clean and decent, they are fit only for the nursery. The pictures are childish; the intelligence is mainly for boys and girls. The "good stories" are trivial, and are intended chiefly for junior clerks and laborers. The observations on public as distinguished from purely party affairs, are quite juvenile. The abuse is mostly boyish or street abuse, with neither rhyme nor reason in it. What is wanted in the way of reform is mainly maturity, the preparation of the paper for grown people engaged in serious occupations. Gravity either in discussing or in managing our affairs is fast vanishing under the journalistic influence. We laugh over everything, make fun of everybody, and think it will "all come out right in the end," just like ill-bred children who hate to have their games interrupted. It seems as if something might be done by American capitalists to elevate the most potent means of cultivation we have, which is to-day exerting most influence on the national mind and character. We believe we have yet to see, though we are very near seeing, the full effect on the coming generation of the present cheap newspaper press.

An illustration of what we have called the misfortune which waits on the New York press, has just been furnished by the *Journal*. After leading for years a disreputable and mischievous existence, this paper was recently bought by a California millionaire, who has proceeded to spend money on it lavishly. We were in hopes that his millions would go to raise its quality and make it a rational and hopeful addition to the New York newspapers. Apparently nothing was further from his thoughts. He went to work at once to make a newspaper of the old bad stamp, and to rival the worst of the others in their worst tricks—wilder sensations, sillier inventions, more "good stories," more dreadful "reportorial humor," more space for scandals, divorces, invasions of private life, more childish pictures, still stupider remarks on public affairs, than any of its contemporaries. In publishing a long report of a not remarkable divorce case, for instance, it did nothing that its contemporaries do not do; but in printing a large cartoon of a duel which it was thought would precede the divorce case, but which never came off, it outdid them all. Not only does it flood the streets with this wretched mess, but it actually succeeds in getting commendation for it from the best quarters. That it should get a rousing testimonial from Tom Platt for publication in the railway stations is nothing wonderful, but that it gets just as rousing ones from men like Dr. Parkhurst, as it has done, is extraordinary. That a man of his standing should help in emptying buckets of imbecility and mendacity on the heads of his fellow-citizens for another man's profit is something really odd, to say the least.

It is, however, part and parcel of that absence of any sense of responsibility for the press of the country which is one of its curses. If any man chooses to print a blackguard newspaper and does not actually recommend theft or fornication in the editorial columns, it is supposed to be his affair exclusively, and but few of us refuse to buy the paper so as to help his venture. That readers are in any sense *participes criminis* seems to enter no one's head. This immense source of popular instruction is left, without a thought by preachers and philanthropists and patriots, to a swarm of young men, most of whom have failed in life, who make "copy" simply as a means of livelihood, and who must themselves be occasionally astounded by the sort of things they are paid for. There are already some signs of the growth of a moral sense on this subject. In parts of the West, leagues or clubs are said to have been formed to eschew the reading of newspapers—that is, to prevent greedy speculators from making private houses the receptacles each morning of their filth and imbecility; but any progress in that direction is necessarily slow. What is needed is a disposition on the part of rich men to lavish their wealth, without hope of return, on the leading instrument of popular education. It would be, in a far higher sense than the old Roman's, "sowing for the immortal gods."

COSMIAN HYMNS.

EVERYBODY remembers Dr. Holmes's "Ode for a Social Meeting, with Slight Alterations by a Teetotaler." Having mistaken the nature of the occasion, his ode had to have its Bacchanalian and festive bursts given a severe turn—his "nectar" being made to read "logwood," "rubies" appearing as "dye-stuff," "the breath of the fragrance they shed" figuring as "the taste of the sugar of lead," and his final lilt of song, "Long live the gay servant that laughs for us all!" being transmogrified into, "Down, down with the tyrant that masters us all!" In like manner it might be said of a volume of hymns recently published, that it is a book of 'Hymns of Divine Praise, with Slight Alterations by Atheists, Agnostics, and Materialists.'

The work in question is the 'Cosmian Hymn-Book,' lately issued by the Truth Seeker Co. In the very title is a hint that this is no chaotic or even microcosmic affair. Let others sing of earth, or heaven, or hell, or even the solar universe; no such limitations shall fetter the Cosmian hymnist. His hymn-book, he announces, has "been prepared to meet a public want." This we could have believed; most books are, or think they are, so prepared. But he adds, with more originality, that "it is perfectly free from all sectarianism." This boast an examination of the book will show to be fully justified. It is free not only from sectarianism, but from everything that could possibly offend the most conscientiously irreligious.

Wherever the word God occurs, in any of the familiar hymns made over for this volume, some turn or substitute is delicately chosen so as not to grate in the old way upon a sensitive Cosmian ear. Thus those who were taught to sing (and perhaps refused to sing longer because so crudely taught), "God is with all who serve the right," may here find with joy that "Peace is with all who serve the right." Similarly, the outgrown old hymn, "Praise to Thee, Thou great Creator," becomes, when submitted to Prof. Huxley's cosmic process, "Praise to thee, all bounteous Nature." This is a very skilful way of avoiding offence to tenderly nurtured Cosmians, and is quite superior, in our judgment, to the device once favored by John Morley of spelling God with a small "g." But the careful editing of this hymn-book extends, we are glad to say, to the smallest details. "Sin" is, of course, excluded utterly; in place of that obsolete word we have "ill." Equally, of course, there is no recognition of the "soul"—an unpleasant word, suggestive of the possibility of being "lost," or even (what would be still more dreadful from a Cosmian point of view) "saved." Accordingly, instead of singing "Awake, my soul!" we are hereafter to call upon the "mind" or "heart" to awake. Similarly, "holy" becomes "noble"—though why the editor left "unholy" in the same hymn we cannot say. But it is his own lyric advice to "Gather your roses while you may," and we hasten on.

We can note, however, but a few of the

many pleasing details. All local indications, such as "below," "above," are properly removed from the indiscreet hymns which by such expressions fostered a superstitious and non-cosmic notion about a possible heaven and a too probable hell. The "hope of future joy" has a suspicious theological squint, and becomes "hope of future days," in which the most carefully brought-up Cosmian may venture to indulge. But it is in the new objects of ecstatic devotion, the new sanctities which the Cosmian darkens with his song, that the peculiar eminence of the 'Cosmian Hymn-Book' most clearly appears. We know the ideas, the longings, the hopes and fears, the religious conceptions which have moved Christian hymnology to its grandest outbursts; but the Cosmian strikes out an entirely new flight, quiring to the young-eyed cherubins after this fashion:

> "Eternal matter! Quenchless force!
> No hand can stay thy circuit's course,
> But deep in the abyss of space
> The systems run their destined race."

Or take this song of comfort for the afflicted:

> "All—all result from Nature's laws,
> Unchanging all are in their course;
> And man, and all things, must submit
> To Nature's far superior force."

These sentiments may be entirely true. They have been held, in one shape or another, ever since human thought was first recorded, but there is no record, we believe, of their ever having before moved men to bursts of glad song, except in burlesque. There was an extravaganza put afloat some years ago which was supposed to give poetic and devotional expression to the materialistic creed. It was first used, we believe, apropos of Buckle, and the first lines ran as follows:

> "I believe in steam and rice,
> Not in virtue or in vice;
> I believe in all the gases
> As the power to raise the masses."

The Cosmian hymn-writer appears to have taken this caricature as a serious model. About his own seriousness there can be no doubt. One of his hymns, it is true, has a word of condemnation for "cold breeding" that "affects to be quite at its ease," but he is always collected and altogether at his ease in the presence of eternal matter, quenchless force, and the laws of nature. He is, in fact, a powerful, if unconscious, witness to the indestructible nature of the religious instincts. If a blank creed like his must have its worship, its grotesque imitations of Christian forms, the world is evidently far from having entirely got through with religion. Even the revolutionary anarchists have a form of worship, consisting, as one of them testified before a London magistrate, in going out into the country on Sunday, sitting under a tree, and saying fervently, "Hang the priests!" The Cosmian hymn-book would fit well into that service.

CIVIL-SERVICE PRINCIPLES IN THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE.

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 1, 1896.

IT has been well known for many years that political influence has been of little or no avail in obtaining positions *in* the Department of State at Washington, whatever may be said of the means whereby offices *under* that department have been secured. It has been the department's custom, for more than twenty years, to note in its Registers the public service of its officers and employees. These revelations, when carefully examined, are most gratifying to those who believe in the selection of capable men to fill executive offices, and their retention notwithstanding changes of administration.

The more important officers of the department, subordinate to the Secretary, are the Assistant Secretaries (of whom there are now three), a Chief Clerk, and six Bureau Chiefs. Many of these have been selected in the past because of their special training, and have held their offices for a long period. The office of Assistant Secretary was created in 1853. Mr. Frederick W. Seward, son of Secretary Seward, held it from 1861 to 1869, and from March, 1877, to October, 1879. He was succeeded in 1869 by Mr. J. C. Bancroft Davis, at present and for a number of years past the reporter of the Supreme Court of the United States. Mr. Davis had been Secretary of the United States Legation at London from June 7, 1849, to November 30, 1852, and he was three times Assistant Secretary of State—from March, 1869, to November, 1871; from January, 1873, to June, 1874; and from December, 1881, to July, 1882.

Another occupant of this post, after having acquired diplomatic experience, was Mr. John Hay, the author. He was our Secretary of Legation at Paris from March, 1865, to 1867, when he was transferred to a similar post at Vienna, which he held until September 30, 1868. Besides this service he had experience as our Secretary of Legation at Madrid from June 18, 1869, to October 1, 1870, before he was appointed Assistant Secretary of State November 1, 1879. He held the last-mentioned office until May, 1881.

The present chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives, Mr. Robert R. Hitt of Illinois, was Mr. Hay's successor. He also had had a special training for the post, having served as our Secretary of Legation at Paris for six years continuously prior to his entrance upon duty at the Department of State. He was Assistant Secretary for less than a year.

Mr. John Davis, now one of the Judges of the United States Court of Claims, was particularly well qualified to discharge the duties of Assistant Secretary when he received his appointment in July, 1882. He had been a clerk in the Department of State from September, 1870, to October, 1872; secretary to the agent of this Government before the Geneva Tribunal which decided our claims against Great Britain growing out of the civil war, and in 1874 was appointed clerk of the Court of Commissioners of *Alabama* Claims which sat at Washington and awarded the fifteen and a half million dollars paid by Great Britain. In 1881 he was assistant counsel representing our Government before the French and American Claims Commission. He continued Assistant Secretary of State until his elevation to the bench in February, 1885.

The present occupant of the place, Mr. W. W. Rockhill, has served not only as Chief Clerk and as Third Assistant Secretary during the whole of this Administration, but from April, 1884, to July, 1888, he was our Secretary of Legation at Peking and our Chargé d'Affaires *ad interim* at Seoul.

The post of Second Assistant Secretary was not established until 1866—thirty years ago; and in all that time it has had but two occupants. The first—William Hunter of Rhode Island—entered the department as a clerk in 1829, rose to be Chief Clerk in 1852, and continued in that position until he was appointed Second Assistant in 1866. While Chief Clerk he acted on one occasion, from May to October, as Assistant Secretary. Mr. Hunter died in office, full of years and of honors, and was succeeded in 1886 by Mr. A. A. Adee, the present incumbent, who has himself been in the service of the department for twenty-six years. He was our Secretary of Legation at Madrid from 1870 to 1877, when he was transferred to the department. Here he was, for a year, clerk of Class One, then Chief of the Diplomatic Bureau until 1882, when he was appointed Third Assistant Secretary, which place he held until promoted to that made vacant by Mr. Hunter's death.

In 1875 Congress provided for another Assistant Secretary in the Department of State, which has since had nine incumbents. Of these, in addition to Mr. Adee and Mr. Rockhill, three had previous training in the department or in the diplomatic service. Mr. Charles Payson of Massachusetts, who held the position from June, 1878, to June, 1881, entered the department as a clerk in 1870, and rose to be Chief of the Diplomatic Bureau in 1873. From July, 1874, to April, 1876, he was Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, and again Chief of the Diplomatic Bureau until June, 1878. Mr. John B. Moore of Delaware, who filled this position from August, 1886, until September, 1891, when he became Professor of International Law in Columbia College, had earned a clerkship in the department by means of a competitive examination under the civil-service act on July 1, 1885, and held it until his promotion. Mr. Edward H. Strobel, who was for one year, during the present Administration, Third Assistant Secretary of State, and who has, since April, 1894, represented this Government as Minister, first to Ecuador and afterwards to Chile (where he now is), had been our Secretary of Legation at Madrid from June, 1885, to June, 1889.

The office of Chief Clerk of the Department of State is one of considerable antiquity. It was created by the act of 1789, which established the Department itself. Not a few of the Chief Clerks have been promoted from clerkships of a lower grade. Mr. Dayton had been a clerk in the department for four years prior to his appointment as Chief Clerk. Mr. Vail had served in the same way eleven years. Mr. Derrick had had sixteen years' experience, and, when superseded by Mr. Crallé, he was given a sixteen-hundred-dollar clerkship, which he held until again elevated to his former position in 1849. Mr. Trist was Consul at Havana from 1823 to 1828, then a clerk in the Department of State for more than five years, and again Consul at Havana for eleven years before he was appointed Chief Clerk. Mr. Chew served the State Department as a clerk in each grade from 1834 to 1855, when he was temporarily Chief Clerk, and again as a clerk of the highest grade for eleven years, when he was asked to become the successor of Mr. Hunter, for whom a higher position had been provided. His successor, Mr. Sevellon A. Brown, had entered the department as a clerk in 1866 and had gone from grade to grade. Mr. Chil-

ton, now Chief of the Consular Bureau, who, during Mr. John W. Foster's brief administration, was Chief Clerk, had had twelve years' experience as a clerk in the Department.

Of the twenty-two persons who have held this place, two have died in office, one has resigned to accept a position outside of the Government service, and thirteen have been appointed to other Federal offices. John Graham of Virginia, Chief Clerk from 1807 to 1817, was appointed in the latter year one of our Commissioners to Buenos Ayres. Daniel Brent of Virginia, his successor, continued to act as Chief Clerk until his appointment as Consul at Paris in 1833. Asbury Dickins of North Carolina, who came after Brent, resigned the chief clerkship in 1836 to become Secretary of the United States Senate. Aaron Ogden Dayton of New Jersey then held the place for one year, when he was appointed Fourth Auditor of the Treasury. Aaron Vail of New York, his successor, also remained but a year, when he was appointed our Chargé d'Affaires to Spain. Daniel Fletcher Webster of Massachusetts was Chief Clerk from March, 1841, to April, 1843, when he was sent on a special commission to China, where he served until the latter part of 1844. Nicholas P. Trist of Virginia, who was Chief Clerk from August, 1845, to April, 1847, was appointed Commissioner to Mexico, and his successor, John Appleton of Maine, was, after a few months, made Chargé d'Affaires to Bolivia.

The bureau officers have seldom or never been changed for political reasons. Whenever a vacancy has occurred, it has been filled either by the promotion of a clerk from the same or some other department, or in a few instances by the selection of a man of ascertained fitness whose occupation had specially qualified him to discharge the duties of the office. Exclusive of the Secretary, there are borne on the Register of the Department of State seventy-eight officers, clerks, and employees. Of these, fifty (or 64 per cent. of the whole number) have served the Government more than ten years. To be exact, one has served more than fifty years, another more than forty, and still another more than thirty. Seven have been in the service more than twenty-five years, ten more than twenty years, sixteen more than fifteen years, and fourteen more than ten years.

SOCIAL REGENERATION IN ITALY.

ITALY, April 6, 1896.

THE King has just signed the decree, countersigned by the Ministers of the Interior, of Finance, of Public Works, of Public Instruction, and of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, nominating for the period of one year a civil commissary to exercise political and administrative functions in all the provinces of Sicily, subject to the Minister of the Interior. The commissary is invested with all the authority of the ministers enumerated above; he is responsible for public security, for the provincial and communal administration, and for the public works; is to readjust local taxation and primary instruction, to survey mines and forests—and this without interfering with the state budget. He may suspend functionaries dependent on the various ministries, giving eight days' notice to the respective ministers. The prefects of the seven provinces, though they cannot be suspended or dismissed, are to correspond with the royal commissary instead of with the Minister of the Interior. He can order inspections of all administrative and political offices; revision of all the provincial and communal budgets, so as to proportion their expenses to the contributive force of each. Among the many provisions there is one specially just: No beasts of burden (meaning mules and donkeys) can be taxed in a commune where cattle are untaxed, and the one animal of the poorest is in any case to be spared. The budgets of charitable institutions and of the Chamber of Commerce are to be revised, and a project for the unification of the communal and provincial debts to be prepared within six months with a view to prolonging the term for repayment, and so lessening the amount of interest, with a reduction of the local taxes.

This decree, together with bills for the abolition of the tax on the exportation of sulphur, for bonded warehouses, etc., will be presented to Parliament for the special benefit of miners, so let us hope that there will be a bill for the abolition of the infamous truck system. In their report to the King, the ministers enumerate the reasons that render such steps necessary: because the act of amnesty would be null and void without remedial measures; because a delegation of the powers of the several ministers to one representative will facilitate the passage of the measures tending to bring the administrators into contact with the populations, render possible the maintenance of public security, moderate the expenses of the provinces and the communes, and lessen the burdens of the contributors. Other provisions regard the railroads in Sicily and the ferry-boats which are to unite the island with the continent. The proposal is feasible as far as it goes. The abolition of the tax on the exportation of sulphur is an act of justice, as the export tax on silk in Lombardy was abolished two years since; but great care will be needed to insure the benefit to the actual miners—the excavators and the transporters of the ore to the surface—and not to the owners and farmers of the mines. Should the royal commissary be able to reconstruct the municipal and provincial budgets and adjust the incidence of taxation equitably, the experiment will have been worth making.

There is, however, one great omission which will assuredly deprive the royal commissary of the support of the Socialists who are sufficiently reasonable to accept half a loaf when a whole one is not forthcoming. There is no allusion to a reform of the land laws, and without such a reform no real pacification of Sicily can be expected. An absolute necessity is the reform of all contracts between the owners and tillers of the soil; the abolition, if not of the *latifondi*, at least of the *gabellotti* (the middlemen), who, after paying an enormous rent to the absentee landlord, underlet the estate in large or small farms, which are again subdivided by the tenants—once, twice, and thrice—so that the real tillers of the soil are reduced to work all the workable days of the year, and then to find, when the crops are gathered in, that their portion is absorbed by debt, usury, and the hundred and one pretexts, priest-paying, guardian-feeding, etc., etc., which the various tenants have invented for their destruction. In a letter to the *Nation* last year I gave a résumé of the bill presented to the House by Signor Crispi for the amelioration of the *latifondi*. Some of its provisions were excellent, but the opposition offered was so universal that it was at once withdrawn, with a pledge that it should be presented anew with modifications and ameliorations. Since then nothing more has been heard of it, and the Marquis di Rudini, who is one of the great landed proprietors of Sicily, in an exhaustive article in the *Giornale degli Economisti* for February, 1895, demonstrated, to the satisfaction at least of landlords, that the uncultivated lands of Sicily are incapable of culture, and that those vast expanses devoted to wheat are unsusceptible of producing other crops. What attracted the champions of the tillers of the soil in the bill referred to, was the proposal to divide all estates of more than 100 hectares, to let the portions at fixed rents, or on the system of *emphyteusis* of the Roman law, while a special and heavy tax was to be levied on all uncultivated lands to constrain the owners to cultivate them, or to let them on such terms as would induce peasants to till them. Rudini affirms that every effort has been made, by owners or middlemen, to bring waste lands under cultivation; that he himself has converted unhealthy marshes into vineyards, olive and almond plantations; has broken up *latifondi* and let portions out on long leases. All went well till the phylloxera destroyed the vineyards; then the tenants threw up their leases, and the proprietors had to replant American vines and sustain the loss of rent and crops. What, he asks, could compulsory legislation do in this case?

The great impulse given to Sicilian culture was the extraordinary demand for the hardly fermented juice of the grape (must) when the phylloxera had devastated the French vineyards, along with the large exportation to the United States of oranges, lemons, and limes before California and other States had brought their vast plantations to their present point. Sicily really lost a capital trade with England for wines and fruits by the carelessness of her manufacture, and, in the case of fresh fruit, by her recklessness in selecting and packing it. Great Britain now receives such vast supplies from the Channel Islands and from Australia of fresh fruits and early vegetables that it will be difficult for Sicily to recapture the market which might have been her own. Grain and wine have fallen 50 per cent. in value during the past few years, and last year oranges, lemons, and limes were left hanging on the trees for want of purchasers. All these things have to be taken into account by the legislators and champions of the peasant class, for, even were the lands of the state and what remains of the ecclesiastical property to be distributed gratis among the peasants, beyond the produce necessary for home consumption without markets the surplus would be produced at a loss. The peasant cuts short all such reasoning by saying: "Give me enough land to till for the use of my family, enough to produce all the corn, broad beans, and vegetables which we must consume or starve, and we will be thankful and contented, and take any extra work that may fall in our way at such stipend as may be doled out to us. What we complain of is that we work in season and out of season only to see our mule or donkey sequestered, and be turned out of our huts as the winter season comes on. If we have a bit of land, we can't pay the land tax, and the *fisco* takes the land from us, compelling us to join the army of day laborers; and, what with compulsory festas besides Sundays and bad weather, we rarely if ever work more than 200 days in the year, whereas we need to eat 365 days."

The Socialists in 1893 confined their practical attempts to getting better contracts for the so-called *métayers* and day laborers; these were abolished as soon as the leaders were sent to durance vile. Now the agitation recommences, as also the demand for the expropriation of the *latifondi* for "public utility." But where are the funds to come from? The state coffers are

empty; the 140 millions for Africa, if advanced by the National Bank, must be repaid and with interest; there does not remain a single available article capable of taxation, nor can existing taxes on a broad basis be augmented. A progressive income tax, a progressive land tax (the small incomes and small farms excepted), would be a remedy, but where is the House of Deputies that would vote such revolutionary measures? Still, were even existing laws properly applied, some help would be forthcoming. We have proved over and over again that the charitable institutions, properly administered, would suffice to house, feed, and maintain all the old people who cannot work, and all the young children and orphans for whom no one is now responsible and who must steal or starve. There are sufficient institutions for educating them to honest trades and for putting them out in life, but one half of the funds go in administration when they are not spent for electioneering purposes, as was a large portion of the sums subscribed for the victims of the earthquakes in Calabria. Should the royal commissioner succeed in restoring order and honesty in the administration of the charitable institutions of Sicily, he will have provided a fund for the assistance of the populations willing to work and unable to find employers and employment; but we fear that the organized resistance of associated interests will prove too powerful in the future as in the past; and in the event of fresh delusions, the starving populations will assuredly have recourse to fresh revolutions.

If I devote more attention to Sicily than to other parts of Italy, it is not because the largest island of the Mediterranean has the monopoly of misery, but because those islanders do not choose to suffer in silence, and therefore force their grievances and their demands for redress on the public. The island of Sardinia is, if possible, in a worse plight than Sicily; and, without waiting for the results of the late inquiry, we have a whole library of Sardinian literature to prove the wasteful, senseless administration of past and present times. Brigandage, homicide, vendettas, are the order of the day. In Sardinia there have been no general or organized revolutions; the Socialists there have not found fertile ground for sowing their doctrines. The Sardinians offered an asylum to the house of Savoy when the first Napoleon annexed all their other provinces, even as did Sicily to the Bourbons. Yet for that fertile, loyal island nothing has been done. I visited it and spent a month there with Garibaldi in 1856, and was astonished to see the wild wastes of uncultivated yet so fertile soil, the gigantic orange groves and olive forests, the groves of pepper trees—"ogni ben di Dio," as the inhabitants used to say. "This will be a garden when Italy is united, free and one," Garibaldi said; and when he bought his barren rock at Caprera, he made frequent excursions to the larger island, always hoping against hope that "something would be done for it." Alas! Sicily, with a surface of 29,441 square kilometres, has a population of 2,700,000 souls. Sardinia, with a surface of 24,342 kilometres, has but 630,000 inhabitants. It is a desert. There are railroads; but, said a traveller just returned, you travel through waste lands—no houses, trees, or inhabitants. Malaria prevails. The denizens know only the tax-gatherer and the military officer who summons the conscripts to the annual levy. There, as in Sicily, the *latifondi* prevail; small proprietors have disappeared; the lands let for pasturage or for the cultivation of wheat do not yield a bare sustenance to the peasants. Tourists exclaim: "Why, not even round London and Paris and Naples have we seen such splendid fruit orchards and vegetable gardens, to say nothing of the olive, lemon, and orange groves!" This is true for the three cities; but a few miles from these you find nothing but thistles, asphodel, and lentils—the white, sad cistus the only flowering bush. The land is fertile, the hands are sufficient, for the Sardinians do not emigrate unless forced to do so, but capital is wanting. Private individuals or industrial companies do not care to invest in an island where the *fisco* takes not the first-fruits but the seed and flower which might produce them. *Maggese* (the leaving the land to repose one year in two or three, as a substitution for manure) prevails in Sardinia, as in Sicily. The Sardinians, fatalists by nature, are now so by experience. "Nothing is done, therefore nothing can be done." As for public security, the brigands secure themselves. Rarely, if ever, is a crime informed against. Do they not pay taxes to the Government to govern the island? Why should the inhabitants expose themselves to the revenge of the powerful? The Sardinians are more "resigned" than the Sicilians; but there is an end even to resignation, and it may be that the end is near at hand.

As I end this doleful letter comes the announcement that Senator Codronchi is nominated by royal decree the new royal commissary for Sicily, and also Secretary of State without portfolio. Codronchi is a moderate of pure water; has been Prefect of Milan, of Naples, and of other provinces. As Secretary of State, he will be able to expound his theories and justify his actions in the council of ministers; as Senator he can answer questions among his peers. If our hopes and beliefs were equal to our ardent desires for his success, we might end our letter with a brighter close; but we are not convinced, as we were almost a fortnight since, that the darkest hour which precedes the dawn is yet at hand. Africa looms yet too darkly on the horizon. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

NAKED BED ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Illustrations of this phrase may be seen in that rare and valuable book, Wright's 'History of Domestic Manners and Sentiments in England during the Middle Ages.' At p. 257, in speaking of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, he says, "One custom continued to prevail during the whole of this period—that of sleeping in bed entirely naked." In the fifteenth century it "continued in all classes and ranks of society" (*ib.*, 411). At p. 477 one of the cuts indicates the same practice in the period following the Reformation.

In the Countess of Essex's case (2 How. St. Trials 785), in 1613, one may see the phrase "naked bed," and specific illustrations of what it meant. T.

Cambridge, May 2, 1896.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In further allusion to the phrase "naked bed," which was again touched upon in the last issue of the *Nation*, it may be of interest to note that Mr. Pepys, under date of May 21, 1660, says, "so to my naked bed." The editor, Mr. Wheatley, in a note, refers to the custom of our English ancestors sleeping without clothes, and quotes from "Venus and Adonis":

> "Who sees his true love in her naked bed,
> Teaching the sheets a whiter hue than white."

Mr. Richard Grant White, in a note to the line in *Macbeth* (Act II., Sc. 1), "Get on your night-gown," also refers to the ancient custom, but adds that Shakspere knew nothing of this, and that by all such allusions in his plays ("Julius Cæsar," Act II., Sc. 2; the *old* "Hamlet," Act III., Sc. 4, "enter Ghost in his night-gown") a bed-room dress (*robe de chambre*), and not a night-dress, is intended. Mr. White seems to be mistaken in the assumption that Shakspere knew nothing of the custom, since, even if Mr. Pepys's remark is a mere survival of expression, the quotation noted above, and the later incident given by your correspondent last week, would show that the custom obtained in Shakspere's day. It would be interesting to know when the custom in this respect changed and under what influences.

Yours, Henry Leffmann.

Notes.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. have in press for immediate publication a 'History of the Army of the United States,' edited for the Military Service Institution by Gen. Theodore F. Rodenbough and Major William L. Haskin, U. S. A., with portraits of all the generals-in-chief of the army from 1789 to 1895.

Macmillan & Co. have undertaken to issue a 'Dictionary of Philosophy and Psychology,' under the editorial supervision of Prof. J. Mark Baldwin of Princeton University. Definitions will be combined with justificatory historical matter and with very full bibliographies. The contents will be wholly original and individually signed. The staff of the Dictionary embraces Profs. Andrew Seth, John Dewey, Josiah Royce, R. Adamson, W. R. Sorley, J. McK. Cattell, E. B. Titchener, Joseph Jastrow, and Lloyd Morgan, Dr. Benjamin Rand, and others.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly publish a translation of 'La Musique et les Musiciens,' by Albert Lavignac, and W. Fraser Rae's biography of Richard Brinsley Sheridan.

Lemperly, Hilliard & Hopkins have just ready 'Little Rhymes for Little People,' by Anna M. Pratt of Cleveland—a limited edition; and 'Lincoln and his Cabinet,' by Charles A. Dana.

The Transatlantic Publishing Company will soon issue 'A Society Woman on Two Continents,' by Mrs. James Mackin; 'Memoirs of a Little Girl,' by Winifred Johnes; and 'Lo-To-Kah, the Ute,' by Verner Z. Reed.

'The Story of Cuba,' by Murat Halstead, is to be brought out by the Werner Co., Chicago.

The Chicago firm of Stone & Kimball, now become H. S. Stone & Co., promises a second series of 'Prose Fancies,' by Richard Le Gallienne.

Copeland & Day, Boston, have in hand a new translation, by M. S. Henry, of 'Aucassin et Nicolette'; the passages in verse being turned into English rhyme by E. W. Thompson. The form is freakishly small for so large type as that of the prospectus.

'Number and its Algebra,' by Arthur Lefevre of the University of Texas, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co.

Mr. S. M. Hamilton has chosen a timely subject, "The Monroe Doctrine: Its Origin and Intent," for his Part I. of 'The Hamilton Facsimiles of Manuscripts in the National Ar-

chives relating to America' (*Public Opinion* Co.). Here we have, admirably reproduced by photographic processes, six letters of Monroe, Jefferson, Madison, and Rush, together with excerpts from Monroe's message embodying the so-called "doctrine." If, in glancing over the handsomely printed quarto, the reader recalls the definition to the effect that "a popular song is one that everybody has become tired of," neither editor nor publisher is to blame, as each has done his share in a distinctly praiseworthy manner. And if the less hackneyed material promised in succeeding parts but equal this first in execution, a series of real value to the student will have been well begun.

Something like the service which Dumont rendered to Bentham was that which Harriet Martineau performed for Comte when she translated freely, and condensed to one-fourth, his 'Positive Philosophy.' After nearly fifty years, Mr. Frederic Harrison is sponsor for a new edition, in three neat volumes of Bohn's Philosophical Library, of Miss Martineau's *tour de force* (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan). He prefixes a brief notice of Comte, but, for the rest, leaves the text unannotated, not caring to point out its relatively insignificant shortcomings. He does, however, add five pages of concluding considerations, embracing Comte's programme of future philosophical labors ultimately carried out, which his translator omitted as not being strictly a part of the work in hand. It is well to remember that this abridgment not only had the hearty approval of Comte, but was honored with a translation back into the French—or the beginning of one.

Charles Scribner's Sons have begun a taking little series of "Stories by English Authors," parallel to that by American authors also bearing their imprint. One of the two initial volumes before us has England for the scene of the short tales; the other, Ireland. Reade, Hardy, Collins, Lover, Carleton, and Barlow are some of the contributory writers. The frontispieces are portraits of Samuel Lover and Anthony Hope.

We can appropriately record here the appearance of the second volume of the handsome Dent-Macmillan edition of William Carleton's 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry,' edited by D. J. O'Donoghue. Here we have Carleton's house in Dublin for a frontispiece, besides illustrative etchings.

The late George Augustus Sala is to be remembered by his culinary as well as by his literary writings, and hence a reissue of his 'Thorough Good Cook,' with its preliminary "chats" (Brentano's). It is a plump square volume of nearly 500 pages.

An awkward shape has been given to 'My Mascot: A Collection of Valuable Receipts' (Boston: Sabra Publishing Co.). The scheme is to introduce each section with a printed receipt, and leave the housewife to fill up the blank leaves with approved receipts, written in her own hand. A harmless "sentiment" heads each folio.

In 1870 the Legislature of Maine authorized W. W. Thomas, jr., one of its commissioners on the settlement of the public lands, previously United States Consul in Sweden, to plant in the northern part of the State a colony of young Swedish farmers, with their families and their pastor. The fifty-one persons who formed the first company were chosen with great care, only those being taken who were able, among other things, to pay their passage to America; but provision was made by the State for aiding the colony in various ways until it should become firmly established. The history of the enterprise is told with pardonable pride in 'The Story of New Sweden' (Portland: Loring, Short & Harmon), a report of the exercises at the quarter-centennial celebration in June, 1895. From the first the colony was remarkably successful, and the town of New Sweden is now the centre of a Swedish population of nearly fifteen hundred, with property of an estimated value of more than half a million dollars. The undertaking has a special interest as an example of successful colonization under State auspices.

'Father Archangel of Scotland, and Other Essays,' by G. and R. B. Cunninghame Graham (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan), is unhappily named, giving no hint of the fresh free air of the Argentine pampas which blows through almost every page from title to finis. Even when the scene shifts to Spain or Morocco, the pampa, the wild horse, the untrammelled Gaucho, is not forgotten. In Coruña, by a grave surrounded by exotic plumes, the lover of the free life of the southern plains feels "that pampas grass looks sad in Europe, and hangs its head as if it missed wild horses bounding over it, and sickened for the calling of the Terutero." This strong, almost fraternal sympathy with the rude race which so long held sway over the La Plata plains, a race now passing rapidly away, constitutes the chief charm of the book. We see the Gaucho as in real life, swaggering and fighting at his *pulquería*, swinging at a bound into the saddle and galloping off, like a bird taking wing, magnifying achievements of horsemanship by the camp-fire while the smell of smoke and leather rises in our nostrils; we can feel the excitement of the ostrich hunt, and discern the faint but fatal tracks by which the *rastreador* leads across leagues of pampa to the rendezvous of the horse-thief. This is something more than depicting a strange life—it is making it real; and we can in consequence forgive many slips in the use of good English, and a host of trivialities and foolish sarcasms in the tales of "Father Archangel" and "In the Tarumensian Woods." These mar the book; but the lover of horses and horsemen and of the unrestraint of wild life will find in it many morsels of rare flavor.

From the Hudson Importing Co., No. 10 East Fourteenth Street, we have received three volumes entitled 'English Minstrelsie: A National Monument of English Song,' which will make a strong appeal to all who are interested in British folk-music. It is edited by the Rev. S. Baring-Gould, who spent ten years in collecting new material for it, his intention being that it "should not confine itself to such songs as have been written for the harpischord and the piano, by skilled musicians, but should include also the lark and thrush and blackbird song of the ploughman, the thrasher, and the milkmaid." The result is a collection of about 300 songs unequalled in scope, variety, and interest in its own field. The volumes are prefaced by historical sketches of English national song and of English opera, and the editor has added notes to many of the songs, in the belief that a knowledge of the circumstances under which they were written will add to their interest. There are a number of quaint old pictures, besides excellent etchings of Sims Reeves, Edward Lloyd, Charles Santley, Mary Davies, Signor Foli, Antoinette Sterling, and others. The type is clear and large, and the text carefully edited, it "being unhappily true that some of the finest old English airs are found associated with undesirable words."

Dr. Th. Baker has compiled a very convenient 'Dictionary of Musical Terms' (G. Schirmer). It comprehends within 229 pages brief definitions of upward of 9,000 English, French, German, Italian, and other words and phrases used in the art and science of music. It does not purport to be an original work, but a compilation from the standard works of Grove, Riemann, and many others, general and special. Some of the articles, like Trill, are fully illustrated with musical examples, and the definitions, so far as we have examined them, are concise and accurate. Of omissions we have noted only *decrescendo*. On the other hand, the Japanese "Koto" introduces an element usually ignored in such works. Of recent musical inventions the Autoharp is mentioned; but why is the Æolian ignored—an instrument which brings orchestral music, performed with expression, into every home, and is destined to play a great rôle in spreading a taste for the best music?

As the great English Dialect Dictionary begins to go to press, the English Dialect Society puts forth three more glossaries, Nos. 74, 75, 76, in token of the vigor of the parent enterprise. Mr. Skeat edits nine specimens of dialects from various sources, expressly for the use of Prof. Wright, the Editor of the Dictionary, and has taken upon himself the labor of as many indexes. The ninth selection, a Yorkshire dialogue, he pronounces "the oldest good specimen of a modern English dialect that has come down to us." Incidentally he testifies to a change in Essex pronunciation in half a century, when the *a* in *skate* has acquired the sound of *i* in *kite*. On the other hand, a servant at the door receiving his name as Skeat, rhyming with *beet*, would always pityingly announce "Mr. Skate," rhyming with *great*. The Rev. F. M. T. Palgrave contributes a list of words and phrases in every-day use in Hetton-le-Hole, Durham, with the prefatory matter characteristic of this series, which ought somehow to be digested for a chapter of the Dictionary. In this village he notes that Atkinson is pronounced Atchison; and Turnbull, Trummel. "Halleluias" is the usual term for Salvation Army folk. From the mining country of Bewick we pass to Edward Fitz Gerald's East Anglia in Walter Rye's careful reëditing of Forby. In this volume a New Englander will feel much at home, but there is a deal of hazardous etymologizing by sundry amateurs.

For fifteen years and more there have appeared in *L'Illustration* numbers of *pensées*, signed G.-M. Valtour, which were read with interest because they united, with a form at once strong and concise, real thought and the fruits of observation. These have now been put together in book form by their author, Gustave Vapereau, under the title 'L'Homme et la Vie: Notes et Impressions' (Paris: Hachette). They are classified under five headings, and a pleasant and instructive occupation it is to dip into them, flavored as they are by real wit, by sound satire and sounder judgment. One or two samples, by way of proof: "We rule our life by maxims we should not like engraved on our tombstone." "One may judge of a man's character by his opinion of women." "The increasing taste for illustrated works marks the growth of indolence of mind: we are spared the trouble of reading." "For many men politics are a means of getting an income without putting in any capital, and of having a profession without serving an apprenticeship to it."

'Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne,' by the Vicomte G. d'Avenel (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a study of industrial and commercial progress in France which is as fascinating as a good, clean,

interesting novel, and, withal, full of much information obtained at first hand by the author. The subjects treated are the great dry-goods houses, notably the Bon Marché and the Louvre; the iron industry, especially as seen at the great Creusot works; the food supply, which is illustrated by a description of the Potin stores and factories; the banking establishments, and the wine business. Each study bristles with statistics, but M. d'Avenel is a writer who understands the art of being clear, and even the layman can follow intelligently the details so abundantly given.

'Les Chemins de fer aux États-Unis,' by Louis Paul Dubois (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is a study of the railway systems in this country which conveys in a compact form much information concerning the great lines, their workings, financing, and traffic. It is not a mere piece of writing around the subject, but a serious attempt to present to Frenchmen a view of a system of railroading differing in nearly every respect from the European systems.

The description of a journey from Damascus to Bagdad, in *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for March, is interesting mainly from the evidence which it gives of the energetic and partially successful attempts of the Turkish Government to control the wild Beduin tribes whose constant raids prevent the development of the region lying between the Mediterranean and Mesopotamia. Not only are the caravan routes being protected by garrisoned posts and flying columns of mounted infantry, but the natives are being induced to give up their nomadic life and to become cultivators of the ground. In this the sons of influential sheikhs, who have been educated in the Government school ("aschiret mektebi") at Constantinople, have given efficient aid. Dr. Baumann's account of the extensive Arab sugar plantations on the Pagani River in German East Africa is encouraging for the future of this colony. According to the census taken on December 2, 1895, the population of the German Empire is 52,244,503, an increase of 5.7 per cent. since 1890. The growth was largest in Brandenburg and Westphalia, where it was 11 per cent. Taking Prussia as a whole, the increase was 6.3 per cent.; for Alsace-Lorraine it was 2.3 per cent. There has been a gain in every part of the empire excepting the little province of Hohenzollern, which has lost 1.5 per cent.

Prof. Flinders Petrie, in an account of the last season's excavations at Thebes, given in London on April 8, says that among the objects discovered was a large inscribed tablet of black syenite. It records the deliverance of Egypt from the Libyans during the reign of Merenptah, about 1200 B. C., and then recites the various places taken in this monarch's Syrian war; and among these (in Northern Palestine, apparently) he spoiled "the people of Israel." If this rendering of the name is correct (and it is accepted by Prof. Maspero and Dr. Naville), then the long-desired connection between Egypt and Israel through the monuments has been established. What light this discovery throws upon the time of the Exodus, held by some authorities to have taken place in this reign, remains to be seen.

The Southern History Association was organized at Washington on April 24 by the election of Postmaster-General Wilson as president; of Dr. J. L. M. Curry, Gen. M. C. Butler, Gen. M. J. Wright, John R. Proctor, Thomas N. Page, and Prof. Woodrow Wilson, as Vice-Presidents; of Dr. C. Meriwether as Secretary; and of Thomas M. Owen as Treasurer, besides a large and highly representative administrative council.

—A magazine does not often bring out an article more seriously to be recommended to the general reader than Benjamin H. Ridgely's "Comedies of a Consulate" in the May number of *Scribner's*. As the typical American tourist is sure to "take in" Geneva, there is no place that could have offered better opportunities for photographic shots at his ideas of what a consul is there to do for him. The essential comedy of the consulate begins, of course, in Washington, in the ousting of one man to make way for another no better, if as good; and Mr. Ridgely is as quick to see this and as frank in admitting it as could be wished. It would be a gratification to believe that his article will be as faithfully thumbed as Baedeker on every ship that leaves our docks this season. There is a sting of mortification in the documentary evidence he supplies of the behavior and the inane demands of compatriots who flock to his office or pelt him with letters; but the writer who can shame us into seeing ourselves as others see us abroad will do his country a handsome service. Another article which, if it is not literature, is at least journalism of a desirable sort, is Isobel Strong's "Vailima Table-Talk," to be concluded in June. It may be a trifle disappointing to find that actual undress utterances of Stevenson's are somewhat thinly strewn through a text descriptive of his domestic life, yet there are several sayings with an aphoristic ring that are among the things of his one would not willingly miss. An account of Women's Clubs in London, some very fair short stories, together with the first paper on the "Evolution of the Trotting Horse" and the inevitable verse, make up the rest of the contents of this magazine.

—Illustration and text from separate hands seldom hang together so well as do those of Du Maurier and Felix Moscheles in the latter's article, "In Bohemia with Du Maurier," in the *Century*. The common quality which fuses the two into one is the unaffected pleasure that has evidently gone to the making of each, although Du Maurier's pen-and-ink sketches were done in the fifties, and Moscheles's reminiscences were written at a date that gives them a long perspective of time. Where Du Maurier gathered a great deal of the material for his later fiction, and how he first began to discover his diversified talents, are the chief disclosures of interest in the recollections. Their charm consists in the picture they give of the young art-student's unconscious revelling in his own cleverness, and his overflowing delight in production, of which verse, sketch, and letters preserved here are the outcome. The beginning of Mr. Bryce's "Impressions of South Africa" is full of present and the promise of future interest, as he has applied to the country now looming into prominence the same powers of personal observation which made his visit here so fruitful. In this first paper the economic and political problems of South Africa are approached through a description of its physical features, in which a place is given to the picturesque qualities of the landscape, depending on "a warmth and richness of tone which fills and delights the eye," and on the charm of primeval solitude, silence, and dreary solemnity. It is encouraging to observe not only that Dr. Philip Coombs Knapp finds a negative answer to the general question, "Are Nervous Diseases Increasing?" but also that, contrary to popular assertion, he comes to the specific conclusion that, "without more evidence in its favor, we must regard the belief in the greater nervousness of Americans as an error."

—Dr. Birkbeck Hill has not lacked explicitness in stating, in the opening sentences of the current number of the *Atlantic*, that he is editing his group of Letters of D. G. Rossetti "for readers on the other side of the Atlantic." All that can be done, in the way of elucidating and supplementing, by two persons possessed of interesting information about other interesting people, both the editor himself and the poet's brother, W. M. Rossetti, have not failed to do for these letters, which were all written to another poet, William Allingham. But the charm which it might have been hoped would make Rossetti's prose independent of editorial attractions is, so far, not to be found, though it may still be discovered in instalments of the letters yet to come. In his pleasantly written "Trip to Kyoto," Lafcadio Hearn writes down himself and his much-loved Japanese as indisputably among the Wordsworthians. Between his praise of the universal cheapness of pleasure in Japan, where "the delight of the eyes is for everybody," and the spirit of "Stray Pleasures" or "To the Daisy," the difference is not more than skin deep. Any one to whom the tone of this article, or that of Olive Thorne Miller's "Whimsical Ways in Bird Land," is sympathetic, must also be in sympathy with the article on "The Preservation of Our Game and Fish," by Gaston Fay. The tragedy of our wildfowl is an old story, but always a moving one, and this is an effort worthy of all success to rally their friends, first among whom should be the true sportsman, to their rescue. Among their enemies, secret and open, are the politician, the game warden, the dealer, the breech-loading and magazine shot-gun, and now the cold-storage system. It is shameful to have to add to this list women, who are responsible for orders like a recent one from an English firm for the skins of 500,000 ox-eye snipe, the smallest of their species.

—A point of interest in *Harper's Magazine* will be found in the article containing a small budget of letters grouped under the head "England and America in 1863." These letters are addressed to Cyrus W. Field, whose two most conspicuous correspondents are Messrs. Bright and Gladstone. Fortunately there is nothing in the tone of either (each expressing deepest consideration for American interests) calculated to stir animosity in the most bellicose mind, unless, indeed, it can be imputed as a common crime to two eminent English statesmen, otherwise so dissimilar, that they had no prophetic vision of the results of our great crisis—time having, in fact, flatly contradicted Mr. Gladstone. Mr. Field's relation to the negotiations for the Atlantic cable receives brief comment from the anonymous editor of this correspondence. Another of Professor Woodrow Wilson's historical papers, "At Home in Virginia," though going over the oft-trod ground of the gathering of the Revolution, has the individuality and vividness of treatment which produce a fresh picture before the mind of the reader. Prof. Brander Matthews has not profited by the example of the Louvre and other national galleries which give the freedom of their walls to the works of no living artist. His essay on "The Penalty of Humor" opens so promisingly that one hopes to find in it a contribution to all one's future thought on the subject. But the winding up, where one looks confidently for the essayist's deft applications

and final hitting the nail on the head, consists of an expression of ardent admiration for the works of Mark Twain. Coincidentally, a portrait of Mr. Clemens and an article "Mark Twain," by Joseph H. Twichell, lead off this number of the magazine.

—The article "Light on the Underground Railroad," in the April *American Historical Review*, has moved a Western correspondent to send us a leaf of his own experience. He says:

"In the winter of 1860–61, I was obliged to go from Chicago to Des Moines, in the heart of Iowa. Marengo was then the most western point I could reach by rail. The stage on which I there took passage at nightfall soon lost the track in the houseless, fenceless, and treeless prairie. We wandered till the horses were exhausted, and should have frozen had not the bark of a dog brought us at last to a hut. The next day we could get no farther than a farmhouse, 'out of sight of land,' midway between Brooklyn and Grinnell. Sheltered here and promised a lodging on the floor of the loft, we spent the evening in the common room of farmer Bates. There a gun, hanging high in old New England fashion on two wooden brackets, led me to speak of it. 'That gun,' said Bates, 'is John Brown's gun; he passed this way more than once, piloting negroes North—at one time about thirty—and on his last visit left the gun here.' Then, taking the gun down, he showed me how Brown had mended the stock and a piece of the lock which had been broken. The first remark of one of the stalwart boys was, 'That gun is going South next summer.' No doubt it, or at least the boy, did go, for the firing on Sumter followed within three months. The object-lesson afforded by fugitives with Brown as a guiding angel would not let the youth stay at home."

—A puzzle once solved loses all interest; but an enigma which may be plausibly explained in several ways, but demonstrably solved in none, has a perennial fascination. Who was the Man in the Iron Mask? Who was Kaspar Hauser? Was Louis XIV. really married to Mme. de Maintenon, after all? Was Swift married to Stella? Not that it matters greatly, in either case; but it would be a comfort could we substitute proofs for internal convictions, and so have them, once for all, settled and done with. With regard to Swift's case, the present annotator has long been convinced that there was no marriage. He has arrived at that conviction, not by a minute sifting and testing of each particle of so-called evidence, but by taking the sum of what was offered on one side, and contrasting it with all that tended to prove the contrary; the negative evidence seeming, to his mind, overwhelmingly preponderating. But, in the brochure (a reprint from the September *Anglia*) before us, entitled 'Was Swift Married to Stella?' Prof. A. von W. Leslie has carefully gone over the ground, and shown how weak the evidence is. Statements dubious at first, and handed down through a succession of transmitters, taking a twist from each; remarks dropped casually in conversation and brought forward seventy or ninety years afterwards—in fact, much of this evidence is little better than Lord Peter's proof of the nuncupatory will, who remembered that he "had heard a fellow say, when we were boys, that he had heard my father's man say," that the father had expressed himself favorably in the matter of gold lace. Whether this view of the case places Swift's character, as Prof. Leslie thinks it does, in a less lurid light, need not be discussed here. But we must strongly protest against the way he speaks of the innocent, trusting, and hapless Vanessa, whose cruel fate has left a stain on Swift's memory which all the oceans cannot wash away.

—It will be remembered that M. René Doumic, in his discourse at Angers on the present literary crisis, gave utterance to a somewhat hard prophetic saying, to the effect that France was likely soon to consist of "a handful of mandarins in the midst of an unlettered people." M. Doumic has since, in an article in the *Débats*, thrown a little light upon what he means when he talks of "the lettered" and "the barbarians." The distinction which he makes between the two seems to be very nearly that which Matthew Arnold made between the Remnant and the rest of mankind. M. Doumic notes the extreme satisfaction which the Socialists take in the classical and lettered oratory of M. Jaurès. They seem to delight in that which it is their real mission to destroy. That M. Jaurès himself is one of the lettered there is no doubt. He is one of the most complete products of bourgeois education. A clever pupil, laureate of the Concours de la Sorbonne, section chief at the Normal School, he uses against his old teachers the arms which they have furnished him. He cites Homer and is full of Cicero, and his followers applaud his erudition instead of distrusting him on account of it. In this, to be sure, one only finds repeated a characteristic phenomenon of the first Revolution. Eloquence then was strongly tinged with classical remembrances, and much of it was drawn directly from Livy and from the Roman orators. The people applauded all this literature, and yet were none the less "barbares." Perhaps the truth is that they were moved by the rhetoric of their political leaders. But it is precisely the unlettered man who is moved by rhetoric, and is the slave of the phrase; for phrases leave incredulous those who know what the phrase is. It is only because of their ignorance that men are the dupes of words. The last word of rhetoric is to inspire a horror of rhetoric. M. René Doumic seems to have in his mind, when he talks about mandarins, not a new class to be hereafter developed, but the old class of the truly wise and cultivated who, in every age, have been the salt which has kept the earth sweet, while his barbarians include that half-educated class which is often farther removed from the light of civilization than the wholly illiterate.

MARCOU'S AGASSIZ.

Life, Letters, and Works of Louis Agassiz. By Jules Marcou. With illustrations. Macmillan & Co. 1896. 2 vols., crown 8vo. I., pp. xii, 302, pll. 3; II., pp. x, 318, pll. 4.

ABOUT twenty formal biographies of Agassiz appeared from 1845 to 1893, with some thirty lesser notices of his life and works during the same period, besides uncounted articles compiled for cyclopædias or for newspapers. We have also many portraits, painted, engraved, or photographed, with busts, medals, and tablets. A list of Agassiz's own principal writings, or "works," 1828–73, is 418, or 425 with others published posthumously, 1874–80; and this is exclusive of countless fugitive pieces, printed correspondence, museum officialities, reported lectures, and the like, which we suppose would take a complete Agassiz bibliography beyond 1,000 entries. Here is certainly an embarrassing richness of material for any biographer, but it has been already so well worked up that a new Life of Agassiz must show its reason for being, and especially for offering to supplant Mrs. E. C. Agassiz's 'Life and Correspondence,' which has been very generally considered final since its appearance in 1885. Accordingly, Prof. Marcou's compliments to Mrs. Agassiz are necessarily apologetic in form and in fact explanatory, his persuasion having been that "the true history of Agassiz has not yet been written."

The veteran geologist is the sole survivor of the small band of European naturalists who came to America with Agassiz in 1846, the only one now living who enjoyed Agassiz's friendship for nearly thirty years, and one of the few men to whom Agassiz ever even half-unbosomed himself. He is distinctively one of the school of scientists to which Agassiz belonged, now generally considered old-fashioned, out of date, and hopelessly heretical in the dogma and ritual of present-day evolutionary science. Prof. Marcou has been many years in gathering if not also in shaping his materials, with the

"design of presenting to the public the man himself; his origin, his character, his public life, his private life, his passions, his weaknesses, his faults, his errors, his genius; what he did and what he left undone; above all, to put him in his place, in a true light, in correct perspective, with its lights and shadows, in the field of history of natural science. I have tried to speak of him uninfluenced by the discordant voices which have celebrated his merits without discretion, or demolished his reputation without measure."

His subject is a man of enormous achievement, of world-wide fame, and of unquestionable genius, whom, nevertheless, many persons honestly believe to have been "vastly overrated," and whom some discerning ones have considered inferior to Jeffries Wyman as a biologist, though the latter's name is scarcely known beyond scientific circles. A renowned and erudite student of nature, his most significant and far-seeing generalization—namely, that ontogeny of the individual epitomizes phylogeny of the race—has had little to do with his renown and been little considered in estimating his erudition. A professional ichthyologist, of vast acquirements in his specialty, his maturest generalizations regarding cycloid, ctenoid, ganoid, and placoid scales have come to be considered not less unsound and fanciful than Cuvier's notion of four types of all animals, or than Owen's archetype itself. A popular and sympathetic personality which won all hearts, his biographer represents him as uneasy in the presence of his peers, brooking no rival, and received in Paris and London with all the more cordiality because it was known that his stay would be short. The gifted teacher of a generation of men and women whom to know personally was an education in itself, his students ran the whole gamut between reverence and mutiny. A lavishly generous man, to whom business methods were unknown, who never counted the cost, he was often pinched for private means, yet had the address to secure vast sums of public money for scientific ends.

We sometimes hear of men who are said to be greater than their works. If there really be any such persons, Agassiz is among the number. His positive contributions to science extend over half a century—from the description of a new monkey in 1828, to a posthumous work on corals in 1880; they range through all branches of the biological sciences, and extend far into the department of physics, especially in the ice-age problems of geology. In so far as he had a zoölogical specialty, it was ichthyology, and in this his researches were extensively palæontological. The study of echinoderms, so successfully prosecuted by his distinguished son Alexander, long occupied him. He is also prominently identified with embryological research. His erudition was

vast and varied; a tenacious memory kept most of it available at a moment's notice; a well-ordered mind enabled him to utilize most of it on any occasion; a stubborn insistence upon fact kept him from dreaming much, and his imagination seems to have been seldom if ever overwrought. The result of his life-work, such as it is, has passed into history; and what has been found to fit the progress of science has become ingrained in our common stock of permanent knowledge. Agassiz, in short, is "classic" in natural history. Yet we doubt if the net result of his published work approaches the measure of importance and usefulness of his personal example, or has anything like the influence he exerted while living—and still exerts, though dead. This is what we mean by saying he was greater than his works. In his career as a teacher and popularizer of science is to be read his truest title to fame. We recall no other name, excepting that of Huxley, which has become so nearly synonymous with "science," or, at any rate, with the idea which that word conveys to most persons. As, by a late witty saying, "for the English public, 'science' means an article by Professor Huxley in the *Nineteenth Century*," so meant a lecture by Agassiz for many years to the average American. Agassiz did more than make science respectable; he made it fashionable—socially fashionable. No man could be devised or imagined better at this business, in this country at least. Art conspired with nature to fit him for it; his personal appearance, his manner, his delivery, even his slight foreign accent, told with immense effect, and gave him an irresistible hold upon his hearers. He was fully conscious of this power, loved the footlights as dearly as any actor, and made the platform a stage for dramatic situations. We may never see his like again in this respect, but the results remain visible and palpable. Thousands have applauded Agassiz's public pronouncements, for one person who ever read his books to any considerable extent; hundreds have been kindled to enthusiasm for the pleasant paths of knowledge by the contagion of his personal example, for one whose knowledge has been increased by his publications; and scores of students who have become prominent in science in indirect consequence of his teachings, turn to his writings chiefly to criticise or refute them.

The public really knows very little of Agassiz's technical work—or anybody's else, for that matter. How many of his admirers have any but the vaguest ideas of his theories or observations on glaciation? How many could assign the respective parts taken by Agassiz and Edward Desor in the history of echinoderms? How many could quote a single fish's name from the 'Poissons Fossiles'? If we turn to one of his greatest and one of his very few commercially successful works, one also of special interest to Americans, who so love and honor Agassiz's name, the result is still the same. This is no other than the celebrated 'Contributions to the Natural History of the United States,' which started magnificently in April, 1858, but broke down after four volumes had appeared, in 1862, and was never resumed, though ten volumes had been planned. Agassiz was then at the zenith of his popularity; he had just passed his fiftieth birthday, May 27, 1857, to which Longfellow dedicated the poem which is far better known than Agassiz's own great work. Prof. Marcou states that, with the exception of the preliminary Essay on Classification, which achieved some popularity and had decided influence, on its separate republication in modified form, the number of persons who ever read the 'Contributions' may be "less than one hundred" in America and "only a few dozens" in Europe. Similarly, Part II. of the 'Principles of Zoölogy' was never published, and various other projected works, which appeared in part, were never pushed to completion. Almost the only popular and practically successful book Agassiz ever wrote was his 'Methods of Study in Natural History,' which appeared in 1863 after running for two years in the *Atlantic Monthly*, went through about twenty editions, and had enormous educational influence. This is probably the one work in which Agassiz the writer and Agassiz the speaker came in closest touch; and hence its effectiveness. The greatest practical boon Agassiz ever conferred upon working naturalists was his 'Nomenclator Zoölogicus,' with the accompanying Index—the veriest drudgery imaginable for an author, yet drudgery of a kind that no hack or mere compiler could have performed; and only those who have to keep it at their elbows can be sufficiently grateful for this instrument.

The work before us is decidedly the most comprehensive, most incisive, most original, and altogether ungracious contribution to our knowledge of Agassiz that has ever appeared. We question its entire wisdom and we suspect its disinterestedness. While it will delight some, it will pain others, and cause to grieve not a few of the judicious. It is particularly remarkable for raking up old personalities and forgotten scientific quarrels. Who remembers anything about Agassiz's affair with James D. Forbes until he is here reminded of it? And who cares now whether or not the breach was ever healed between the vivacious Franco-Swiss king of the ice age and the obnoxious British Islander—"tall, thin, dry, haughty, and extremely egotistical"—concerning whom Marcou quotes with gusto from Töpffer: "Je défendé vos de paaler à moa, quand je disé rien à vos!" Who was Karl Schimper, that we should care whether or not "il n'a manqué à Schimper que d'être sobre," or now wish to peruse Agassiz's 'Erwiederung auf Dr. Karl Schimper's Angriffe'? On the other hand, the Desor matter was more serious, and, much as Marcou says about it that we wish to know, he leaves us in the lurch as to the real secret of the extraordinary relations between Agassiz and his long-time secretary. The first volume, dealing with Agassiz's early life in Europe, is remote enough from present interests, in both time and scene, to give us much accurate and original information not to be found elsewhere, and otherwise to pass unchallenged as the always delightful and seldom dangerous gossip of the great. The second volume, however, treating of the times when Agassiz was in the midst of us, is simply a heap of combustibles, which only require ventilation enough to flare up. Chapter xviii., for example, 1858–64, fans the embers of all the burning questions of thirty years ago, till we feel the heat and see them glow again. In recalling the *odium scientificum* to which the dissensions over Darwinism gave rise, our author is either mistaken or unjust. In Dr. Gray's case, which must be so familiar to most of our readers that we need not elaborate it, the note on p. 110 is probably erroneous in fact, and we do not think it quite right to say of Agassiz and Gray that "their friendship grew rapidly until completely checked by the publication of Darwin's 'Origin of Species,' in 1859" (i., p. 284). Certainly there was a coolness for a time while the great zoölogist and the great botanist were each endeavoring to readjust their preconceptions to the new order of things; but it was happily removed before long, and the two met cordially, if infrequently, as long as Agassiz lived. This is not the only case where we suspect there is a little private axe hidden in the large and shapely bundle of faggots of fact which Professor Marcou offers. Sometimes he seems to be settling old scores of his own, with Agassiz for a stalking horse. Thus, for a piece of present-day practical politics, or eminently practicable polemics, commend us to what he says of the origin, progress, and present status of the National Academy of Sciences. We cite volume ii., pp. 157, 158:

"In March, 1863, during a session of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution, he joined Prof. Bache in his scheme for the foundation of a National Academy of Science. Bache was a rather ambitious man, full of academic distinctions, and a lover of power. In 1860 Agassiz had him elected a corresponding member of the Academy of Science of the Institute of France, and from that moment Bache worked at the creation of a National Academy, to bear some analogy to the French one. Under the pretext that the Government at Washington might be in want of advice, directions, and reports on scientific subjects, Bache, supported by Agassiz and Joseph Henry, obtained, through Henry Wilson, then Vice-President of the United States, an act by the Thirty-seventh Congress 'to incorporate the National Academy of Science.'

"Agassiz, who knew the defects of close corporations with Government privileges, like the Institute of France, hesitated in following Bache, as did Joseph Henry. But both had been in such intimate relationship with Bache, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, founded in 1848, had given such scanty results, notwithstanding the influence exerted on the committee by Prof. Bache and his friends, that they thought a trial might be made. Agassiz may be called one of the founders, but not the 'prime mover.' Returning from Washington, after the act was passed by Congress, Agassiz was certainly not an enthusiast on the subject, and even showed a dislike to talk about it, simply saying that 'the National Academy was mainly to satisfy Bache's ambition for control.' A friend told him that it would soon fall into the hands of politico-savants, which he admitted might be true; and, in fact, a few years after the death of Bache, Agassiz, and Henry, the National Academy became, as predicted, a tool in the hands of ambitious Government employees at Washington."

Whether or not one should here read between the lines "pas même académicien," we are not disposed to inquire, in view of the fact that dissensions among the ninety-odd American immortals have often been expressed in identical terms within the verge of the Academy's chaste enceinte.

Our notice would be incomplete without some reference to Agassiz's religious opinions, as reflected by his biographer. His scientific conceptions seem to present-day scientists radically wrong; how, then, about that measure of ignorance which he, like most intellectual men, bundle up in what may be called a creed or confession of faith? Very likely Agassiz, like Faraday, Gray, and many other great scientists, knew the difference between what he knew and what he did not know, and was thus able to keep his science and his religion in separate watertight and fireproof compartments. Very likely, also, he could feel to the depths of his spiritual nature the difference between living religion and dead ecclesiasticism. Marcou cites on this score a letter written by Agassiz to the rector of Neuchâtel, December 14, 1841, during the tempest in a teapot which arose over some of Agassiz's *sans-façon* dealings with dogma:

"Heureusement que les temps de Galilée n'existent plus; mais aussi y a-t-il bien moins de mérite qu'alors à ne pas composer avec les

prétensions des *Ministres de l'Église*, et ce n'est certes pas une couronne de martyre que j'espère conquérir. Je dis 'de l'Église,' et par là j'entends les ministres de *tous* les cultes, qu'ils soient protestants, catholiques, juifs, ou mahométans, *qui ne veulent faire de progrès en rien*. Notez bien que je ne dis pas 'de la Religion.' N'oubliez pas que mes doctrines ne peuvent porter d'atteinte qu'à l'enseignement des docteurs de l'Église, et nullement aux vérités de la Religion." (I., p. 193)

Agassiz's religious ideas or ideals seem to have developed along the lines thus indicated, and his maturest views were probably not markedly different in spirit. We must make room for one more extract, of not much later date than the above, it is true, but no doubt reflecting what became an habitual frame of mind. Marcou is speaking (i., p. 231), but what he cites from a letter of Agassiz to Adam Sedgwick, June, 1845, is nothing different from what most scientists would say or have said:

"Agassiz, after his student life, was not a materialist, but a spiritualist, in natural history, an adversary both of agnosticism and of pietism; for he says: 'I dread quite as much the exaggeration of religious fanaticism, borrowing fragments from science, imperfectly, or not all, understood, and then making use of them to prescribe to scientific men what they are allowed to see or to find in nature.'"

Altogether we shall be surprised if this work does not make a sensation which will be felt far beyond scientific circles. Some of Agassiz's old pupils, now numbered in the hierarchy, are not likely to let it pass without rising to remark upon various points. As a piece of literary handicraft, it is altogether admirable. As a biography, it is a model of much that ought to be in every biography and of some things to be sedulously shunned. The book is beautifully printed, the type is clear, the volumes are of handy size, and all the niceties of composition are observed. The illustrations are few, but of particular interest. The author's command of another than his mother tongue is perfect, and he need not have apologized for introducing so many pages of French text; most readers will be glad he did so. If there be a fault of the author's English style, it is too close pointing—construction of clauses too peppery with commas. The French text is all but faultless, as we should expect it to be under the circumstances; but Latin names have not always fared so well at the printer's hands, as witness "Corregonus" and "Jaucus."

WOMAN'S ENTRANCE INTO MEDICINE.

Pioneer Work in Opening the Medical Profession to Women: Autobiographical Sketches by Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell, author of 'The Moral Education of the Young,' etc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. Pp. 265.

THE story of the woman who took the first medical degree in America, and who was also first admitted to the practice of medicine in England, is a story of very great interest; it is told in this book in a very effective manner, and with perfect modesty and simplicity.

Elizabeth Blackwell was born in England, the third of a family of nine children, more than one of whom turned out to be unusually gifted. She dwells upon the advantage of growing up in the midst of a large group of brothers and sisters. The natural and healthy discipline which children exercise upon one another, the variety of tastes and talents, the cheerful companionship, even the rivalries, misunderstandings, and reconciliations, where free play is given to natural disposition under wise but not too rigid oversight, form an excellent discipline, she believes, for after-life. When she was eleven years old, the family moved to New York, and some years later to Cincinnati. She was seventeen when her father died, leaving the family unprovided for. She and her two older sisters opened a school, which they carried on successfully; and acquaintance with the very intelligent circle of New England society settled in Cincinnati, of which the Rev. W. H. Channing, nephew of Ellery Channing, was the inspiring centre, furnished a congenial atmosphere for their years of young womanhood. After the school was given up, Elizabeth taught in a small town in Kentucky, where she gained her first practical experience of negro slavery; her letters give a graphic description of the crude civilization of a Western slave State at that period. During some further teaching in other Southern States, the idea of studying medicine had finally taken shape with her, and then began the nearly hopeless effort to find a medical school which would admit a woman. Some glimmering of comfort she may have got from the indecision, at least, of one Philadelphia physician, who said to her, "You have awakened trains of thought upon which my mind is taking action, but I cannot express an opinion to you"; and upon being further urged, "I beg leave to state clearly that the operation of my mind upon this matter I do not feel at liberty to unfold." But usually the response was very prompt.

The story of the accident by which it happened that the Medical College of Geneva, N. Y., finally opened its doors to Miss Blackwell is of critical moment in the history of the progress which women have made in these eventful fifty years. We condense it from a letter which was published in 1892 by a well-known physician of New York who had been one of her fellow-students, and which is given in the appendix to this book:

"The class, numbering about 150 students, was composed largely of young men from the neighboring towns. They were rude, boisterous, and riotous beyond comparison. During lectures it was often impossible to hear the professors, owing to the confusion. Some weeks after the course began, the dean appeared before the class with a letter in his hand which, he said, contained the most extraordinary request that had ever been made to the faculty. The letter was written by a physician of Philadelphia, who requested the faculty to admit as a student a lady who was studying medicine in his office. They had decided, he said, to leave the matter in the hands of the class, with this understanding, that if any single student objected to her admission, a negative reply would be returned. It subsequently appeared that the faculty did not intend to admit her, but took this plan, which they thought would be a perfectly safe one, of avoiding the responsibility of a refusal.

"But the affair assumed a ludicrous aspect to the class, and the announcement was received with uproarious demonstrations of favor. At a meeting which was held in the evening, the most extravagant speeches were made in favor of admitting the lady, and were enthusiastically cheered. The vote was finally taken, with what seemed to be one unanimous yell, 'Yea!' When the negative vote was called, a single voice was heard uttering a timid 'No.' The scene that followed passes description. A general rush was made for the corner of the room which emitted the voice, and the recalcitrant member was only too glad to acknowledge his error, and to record his vote in the affirmative. . . .

"Two weeks or more elapsed, and as the lady student did not appear, the incident of her application was quite forgotten, and the class continued in its riotous career. One morning, all unexpectedly, a lady entered the lecture-room with the professor; she was quite small of stature, plainly dressed, appeared diffident and retiring, but had a firm and determined expression of face. Her entrance into that bedlam of confusion acted like magic upon every student. Each hurriedly sought his seat, and the most absolute silence prevailed. For the first time a lecture was given without the slightest interruption, and every word could be heard as distinctly as if there had been but a single person in the room. The sudden transformation of this class from a band of lawless desperadoes to gentlemen, by the mere presence of a lady, proved to be permanent in its effects. A more orderly class of medical students was never seen than this, and it continued to be so to the end of the term. . . . In the honor list of the roll of graduates for that year appears the name of Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell."

We have no space to describe the untiring effort which had still to be made before Dr. Blackwell had added to her course of study the experience in the London and Paris hospitals which she, being in advance of the medical students of her time, deemed essential to her preparation. But we must make room for the charming description of the teaching of one of the heads of the Paris Maternité, where, in spite of sufferings from bad air and bad food, she spent some months; it shows what teaching means in the hands of one who is born with the vocation for it:

"If the pupils answer promptly and well, her satisfaction is extreme, her face grows beautiful, and her 'Bien, très bien!' does one good, it is so hearty; but if an unlucky pupil hesitate, if she speak too low, if intelligence or attention be wanting, there breaks forth the most admirable scolding I ever listened to. Alternately satirical and furious, she becomes perfectly on fire, looks up to heaven, clasps her hands, rises upon her chair: the next moment, if a good answer has redeemed the fault, all is forgotten, her satisfaction is as great as her anger. At first, I was a little shocked at this stormy instruction, but it produces wonderful results. If the girls keep their temper under it and do not cry, it comes right at last; but a tear is an unpardonable offence, and considered an insult and a misunderstanding. Madame Charrier is a woman of great experience and always speaks to the point, and her lessons are very useful."

It was during her stay at the Maternité that Dr. Blackwell became subject to an attack of purulent ophthalmia, which, in spite of the most devoted care on the part of physicians and fellow-nurses, resulted in the loss of one eye, and prevented her from becoming the great surgeon which she had hoped to be. The further study and travel in England, the return to New York to practise, the opening of a hospital in 1857, after she had been joined by her sister, Dr. Emily Blackwell, and Dr. Zachrzewska, and the final decision to continue her work in England—these and other interesting matters must be sought in the book itself.

Fanny Kemble, who often rendered generous help to benevolent institutions by the use of her great talent, was appealed to on behalf of this struggling infirmary. "She received us courteously and listened to us with kindness; but when she heard that the physicians of the institution were women, she sprang up to her full height, turned her flashing eyes upon us, and, with the deepest tragic tones of her magnificent voice, exclaimed, 'Trust a *woman!*—as a DOCTOR!—NEVER!'" Even this does not seem so remote from the present time as the fact that the Springfield *Republican* thought it worth while to reproduce the remark of the "sprightly Baltimore *Sun*" to the effect that the first woman medical student, if admitted to the profession, ought to confine her practice to diseases of the heart.

One of the vacations in her medical course was spent by Dr. Blackwell in the woman's department of the Blockley almshouse in

Philadelphia; her eyes were there opened to the evil that is in the world, and the foundation was laid for that strong feeling of obligation which has led to an important part of the activity of her later years. Her little book on the 'Moral Education of the Young' was refused by twelve London publishers, and she was finally obliged to print it at her own expense, but its plain-speaking seems very innocent now. She believes that it has been well worth the efforts of a lifetime to have attained knowledge which justifies an attack on the root of all evil—viz., the pessimism which asserts that because forms of social evil have always existed in society, therefore they must continue to exist for ever.

An Artist in the Himalayas. By A. D. McCormick. Illustrated by over 100 original sketches made on the journey. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

Mr. McCormick, the artist who went to the Karakorams with Sir W. M. Conway, contributes in this volume an account of the picturesque aspects of the expedition. He does not attempt to add anything to the geographical information which has been given to the world by his leader. He is confessedly not a geographer, nor even a trained traveller. Previous to this Himalayan trip, his knowledge of the world was bounded on the east by London and on the west by Belfast. He had a studio in Chelsea, but orders came slowly, and he had brought himself to look the odds of farming or cattle-herding in the face when an opportunity to go out with Conway was put in his path by an *alter ego*, Jack Roudebush. The frontispiece shows Mr. McCormick to be a man of splendid strength, and he hailed with enthusiasm a chance to use his muscles, draw new subjects, and see the world. Jack Roudebush was able to go, too, so his happiness must have been complete.

The serious work of the Conway expedition was the exploration of the Baltoro Glacier and the high mountain region in the neighborhood of the Golden Throne. Mr. McCormick adds some interesting details to what we already know about the ascent from Askole to Pioneer Peak, and the return journey through the seracs and over the endless moraine. On the day of the great and final climb he was knocked up, and with heroic self-effacement remained in camp rather than interfere with the chances of the others. The wonder is not that he was ill at such an altitude, but that he did so well. What would De Saussure have said to a man who could climb 20,000 feet within five months from the time he first saw a mountain? The kindness with which Mr. McCormick took to climbing finds a parallel in the facility with which his pencil lent itself to the reproduction of mountain scenes. His sketches bear no traces of the 'prentice hand. One cannot expect in black and white the mountain effects which M. Loppé has caught, but Mr. McCormick's drawings bear out what is said of them in the preface to 'Climbing in the Himalayas': "No traveller was ever accompanied by a better artist than Mr. McCormick, whose illustrations adorn this volume, and whose water-color sketches, some of which were recently exhibited, have received on all hands praise both high and well-merited."

We cannot pretend that Mr. McCormick's literary accomplishments are on the same plane with those which he possesses in the character of artist. He enjoyed what he saw and is energetic in description, but he is not always skilful. A certain redundancy of the ideas expressed by "dreaming," "color," "strangeness," is to be expected, but one would prefer to have them occasionally in the form of *entrées* rather than always in the solid form of joints. The style is not too stilted to exclude a passage like the first of the following extracts, nor too compact to exclude the second: "The row the Indian 'shandrydan' made was not enough for the Kashmiri, but he must let in six sets of cymbals round his coster-barrel arrangement, and the noise was infernal." "Early in the morning we sent off the tents and baggage, except the Colonel's, with whom I stayed till lunch, when it began to blow a perfect storm." On page 109, in the character sketch of Dr. Robertson, "not often" should be "not seldom," unless the rest of the context is strangely out of keeping. The passage at present runs: "Now he is known to every one in England, as he was then known to every one on India's northern frontier, as a man of rare courage, coolness, and determination, not often combined with political judgment." As we are told immediately after that "he either does the absolutely right thing, or, at any rate, selects the best in circumstances when all seem equally bad," it is to be presumed that Mr. McCormick does not mean to deny Dr. Robertson's political judgment.

None of Mr. McCormick's adventures was particularly remarkable, and, owing to the narrow limits of his travelling prior to 1892, he has no such standards of comparison as Sir W. M. Conway is constantly making use of. Descriptions of *ekka* rides are always good, but a professional humorist would probably make more out of the subject than Mr. McCormick has done. His comments on the Gurkhas emphasize their cheerfulness, strength, and courage, but sometimes reflect upon their loose morality. At the present moment their assistance is indispensable to success in any Himalayan expedition. A good many of the Fifth Gurkhas are receiving a sound training at the hands of Alpine experts, and, with the advantage of trained guides on the spot, some follower of the late Mr. Mummery may well hope to vanquish a better mountain than Pioneer Peak.

Among other matters of interest in Mr. McCormick's book we may single out the three following for special mention: First, he found that, in order to reproduce Eastern subjects, speed of execution was necessary. "Rapid sketching was the only way to catch hold of the effects, and I made a careful study of the details of the scene to add to it if required; but in all cases I tried to get effect and drawing down at once, as that was the only way to retain any of the spirit and go of the scene." The illustrations in this volume seem to be taken without modification from Mr. McCormick's sketch-books. They are less highly finished than the illustrations which he furnished to 'Climbing in the Himalayas,' but they are even more animated. We have praised Mr. McCormick's mountain drawings. It will, then, be considered no disparagement to say that we prefer his drawings of the native figure and costume. When people are the subjects, photographs are not to be compared with good drawings, but with mountains the case is different. Only an extraordinarily fine sketch can compare for excellence of representation with Signor Sella's photographs. Not one of Mr. McCormick's mountain pieces seems to us so satisfactory as the photogravure of Dych Tau in Mummery's 'Alps and Caucasus.' Secondly, Mr. McCormick, like all generous men who go to India, was fired by the spectacle of the hard, open-air work which English officers do during a considerable part of every year. He does not inflict upon his reader platitudes about the civilizing influence of Great Britain in that empire. He simply says he should like to take a hand himself. "Every evening in camp [at Srinagar], when the gray soft haze over the Bagh was lit up with the golden glory of the setting sun, we sat down with our companions, some of whom were officers come down from Gilgit, and smoked and talked of what each had seen and done, of war and adventure, and of living a life that made me feel it was the life a man should live. As I thought of the dreary days in the busy bustle of London and contrasted them with the glorious open life around, I felt that here was my abiding-place." Finally, the Conway expedition proceeded from beginning to end without hitch, accident, or unpleasantness. If men are of the right sort, nothing brings them together so close as experiences of adventure and danger. Anyhow, it is pleasant to read of an important exploration party which has no "Rear-guard" skeletons in its closet.

A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. By Ernest Arthur Gardner, M.A. Part I. Macmillan & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 268.

This is the first volume of a projected series of Handbooks of Archæology and Antiquities. It deals with the history of Greek sculpture down to Phidias inclusive, breaking off just before the discussion of the Parthenon marbles. There are fifty-five well-executed half-tone illustrations. The second and concluding part of the work is expected to appear in the course of the present year.

For all its brevity, this handbook must take rank at once as the best account of Greek sculpture existing in English. Mrs. Mitchell's 'History of Ancient Sculpture,' published in 1883, is praiseworthy and useful, but (so rapidly does new material accumulate) it is already antiquated in parts, especially in regard to early Attic sculpture. Moreover, it is disfigured by many shockingly bad illustrations. And, finally, its text is rather that of a painstaking and judicious compiler than that of an independent master of the subject. Mr. A. S. Murray's 'History of Greek Sculpture' has the advantage of being the work of a trained and distinguished archæologist. Originally published in 1880–'83, it was reissued in a second edition in 1890, but only the first volume was revised, and that very inadequately. It is, moreover, costly, and, while excellent in parts, is of very uneven merit. The small 'Manual of Ancient Sculpture,' by M. Paris, "edited and augmented" by Miss Jane E. Harrison, though it has received no little praise, swarms with blunders and absurdities, the responsibility for which, it is only fair to say, rests chiefly with the English editor. There are no other books in English which come into consideration. There was thus real need for a work which should trace the history of Greek sculpture with a master's hand, and with due regard to the whole available mass of material. That need Mr. Gardner has admirably supplied.

In his Introduction he discusses (*a*) the sources of our knowledge of the subject, (*b*) the materials and processes of Greek sculpture, (*c*) the use of sculpture for architectural decoration, and (*d*) the chronological arrangement to be observed in the sequel. The second section, on a subject to which Mr. Gardner has made important contributions, especially in a paper published in the *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1890, will be of especial value to

the student. The history proper, so far as completed, falls into three chapters. Chap. i. deals with 'Early Influences,' chap. ii. with 'The Rise of Greek Sculpture (600–480 B. C.),' chap. iii. (incomplete) with 'The Fifth Century (480-400 B. C.).' Exhaustiveness of treatment is of course not aimed at, but the outlines of the subject are clearly and firmly drawn. The limitations of space and perhaps the temper of the author have reduced æsthetic criticism to a minimum. The term "history" is interpreted strictly, and the author seems half to apologize (p. 209) for introducing a cursory description of two or three works whose exact period and school cannot be definitely assigned. In short, the book is scientific in spirit. It aims at understanding, leaving enjoyment to take care of itself. Its most distinguishing characteristic is a rigorous exclusion of conjecture, however dazzling. But, for all its severity, it is thoroughly readable, and even fascinating.

While, of course, some of Mr. Gardner's views are open to discussion, we have noted almost no statements that could positively be pronounced incorrect. The head upon the statue of Aristogiton in Naples is said, on page 183, to be Lysippean in character. This head was enumerated by Graef among the copies of the Meleager, which, according to our present lights, is attributable to Scopas, or an immediate pupil of Scopas. The evidence on which Prof. Furtwängler bases his identification of the Athena Lemnia of Phidias is not quite correctly stated on page 265. There are two copies (not one) in Dresden of the statue in question; and it is not true that "the head of the Dresden statue is made in a separate piece." In the one statue the head, still partially preserved, was of one piece with the body; in the other the head was indeed separate, but it is now missing altogether. These trifling slips, however, do not affect Mr. Gardner's main contention, viz., that Prof. Furtwängler's brilliant identification, which seems to have been generally accepted in Germany, is without adequate evidence. For our own part, we are inclined to rate more highly than Mr. Gardner does the strength of the proof advanced; but the general attitude of mind which he displays in this, as in other matters, cannot be too warmly commended.

Statistics and Sociology. By Richmond Mayo-Smith. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THIS volume is offered as the first part of a "systematic Science of Statistics"; but the claim appears to be somewhat too broad. In fact, it is only by a stretch of language that it can be described as a scientific treatise at all. The author seems to make no clear distinction between statistics in general and the statistics of human society in particular, nor does he appear to have considered the method necessarily employed in the study of human society, whether by means of statistics or otherwise. The definition of statistics as consisting "in the observation of phenomena which can be counted or expressed in figures" is altogether inadequate. Every other human being, as well as the census-taker, according to this definition, is a statistician. *Lord Dundreary* was a statistician when he observed that his toes were equal in number to his fingers, and the child beginning to count is engaging in statistical investigation. Number is the widest of all the categories, and it cannot be admitted that statistics is nothing but arithmetic. It is undoubtedly true that unless phenomena can be enumerated they are not available for the use of the statistician; but as practically all phenomena can be counted, this limitation is vain. It is the classification of phenomena that makes them available for scientific purposes; and without a clear comprehension of the principles and methods of scientific classification, the accumulation and analysis of figures profit nothing.

We are told, it is true, that the method of statistical observation is not of universal application, but we are not told when it is applicable, or how it is to be applied. We are advised that "fittingness and suggestiveness are more important" than mere accumulation of facts—a principle which is undoubtedly true, but lacks scientific precision. So of the statement that "always and everywhere with statistical analysis comes the question whether our classification is legitimate and scientific." Many such questions are suggested by our author, but he contents himself with asking the questions and not answering them. He observes that as population fluctuates it is necessary, in considering births, deaths, marriages, etc., "to adopt some sort of rate." But concerning the standard to be adopted we are left in the dark. "The most simple is that of the whole population." It has certain advantages, certain disadvantages; but whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages or not we are not told, nor are we informed of the principles upon which such problems are determined. In comparing phenomena we are warned to take care that the comparison is a fair one, and advised to select typical statistics "which will prove the point in hand," sufficient in number "to show that the rule is general and not exceptional." Such counsels as these merely suggest the difficulties of scientific investigation. They show how fallacious are the inferences that may be derived from collections of figures, but they do not show how these fallacies may be avoided.

On the whole, while we concur in the opinion that "if we are not to be entirely confused and overwhelmed by the mere mass of data and by the conflicting conclusions to which they seem to lend support, it is necessary that we strive for and attain absolute clearness in respect to the ends to be sought and the methods of seeking them," we do not think this absolute clearness has been obtained in the present work. Indeed, we incline to the view that this treatise is not concerned directly with the science of statistics. It is essentially a collection of inferences from census reports and other collections of figures, many of which are no doubt valid, many also suggestive and interesting, but all, so far as we have observed, insufficiently verified. The United States census of 1890 was in several respects improperly taken, and some of its defects have been so thoroughly exposed as to be notorious. But in these pages we have failed to find any regard paid to its untrustworthy character, and inferences derived from its tables are offered without proper warning. It is hardly necessary to say that if there is to be any statistical science, it can be developed only from premises which have been themselves established in accordance with the canons of inductive logic. Conclusions derived from unverified observations belong not to the realm of science, but to that of speculation.

Although we cannot regard this work as sufficiently critical to possess much scientific value, it would be unjust to ignore its merits. It is full of observations which prove the author to be well aware of the worthlessness of much which passes for statistics, and to be familiar with the conditions upon which correct inductions are to be obtained. As a practical treatise it abounds in information which, while not meeting the strict requirements of scientific tests, is yet sufficiently accurate for ordinary purposes. Evidence may be in many respects imperfect and untrustworthy, and yet be admissible as revealing the existence of tendencies. It is in the discovery and isolation of such tendencies that the author does his best work, and achieves results of positive value. The principal rubrics comprehend the most important conditions of man as a social being—birth, death, marriage, sex, age, and crime. There are chapters also on the infirm and dependent, on race, and on migration. These chapters are full of interesting matter, presented in an attractive and readable way. There is very little positive and dogmatic statement, and if the author's conclusions are accepted subject to the cautions and reservations with which he offers them, the book will be found to be of service by the legislator as well as by the student of human society. And this, when we consider the manner in which statistics are generally collected, is more than can be said of most works of this kind.

The Development of Parliament during the Nineteenth Century. By G. Lowes-Dickinson, M.A., Fellow of King's College, Cambridge. Longmans, Green & Co. 1895. Pp. vi, 183.

"THE object of the following pages is twofold: first, to recount, as briefly and clearly as may be, the process of the 'democratization' of Parliament; secondly, to put what appears to me one of the most important questions to which that process has given rise—the question of the competence of a democratic House of Commons to direct to a satisfactory issue the socialistic tendencies of the future."

In this opening paragraph of the preface is clearly stated the plan of a very instructive and suggestive book, a book which, in less than two hundred pages of large print, brings England and the world face to face with a most remarkable transformation, not in the least understood by its authors and scarcely by its subjects. To analyze it adequately, to give even a correct idea of this work, by the minimum of quotation from its startling and illuminating epigrams, would be beyond the space at our command. A short summary must suffice, in the hope of sending readers to a book sadly needed in the day when Americans are talking about the danger from the spread of English monarchical institutions.

The authors and the opponents of Parliamentary reform in 1832 never contemplated a democratic remodelling of the ancient constitution of King, Lords, and Commons; they believed Parliament was, and ought to be, the means whereby varied elements and varied interests, weighed and not counted, should combine to preserve an ancient and complex system. The Tories maintained that this was perfectly done by the existing arrangement; the Whigs held that, by one act of vigorous readjustment, it might be done very much better; and the mass of the burgher class, who were the chief agents in forcing Lord Grey's Government to carry "the bill, the whole bill, and nothing but the bill," would have utterly scorned Samuel Warren's sarcastic title, "A bill for giving everybody everything." But the precedent had been set for changing the prescriptive system; and henceforth no change, however radical, was impossible. Yet no change was attempted for twenty years—and from 1852 to 1867 each new reform bill was taken up, as we should say, "to make political capital," and

not from any strong pressure from any class. Both of the great parties had united in opposing the sweeping constitutional changes advocated by the physical-force Chartists in 1840; and when these rose against a Whig Government, their counsel were Tory lawyers, whose politics were as unsympathetic as possible.

Every Reform Bill up to 1867 contemplated some new delicate adjustment of interests, not with a view to increasing the electorate, but to developing a greater variety of respectable constituencies; but none of these cunning devices met with any response till Disraeli's artful plan, transformed by the shock of clashing intrigues into a measure so democratic that it startled the very Radicals, added a vast body of urban constituents, because numerical increase was the only change that could be understood. Yet even then, Mr. Lowe, who had had in Australia an experience in which very few of his colleagues shared, was the only statesman of any party who understood and explained what had come about. Another half generation completed the work, democratized the county constituencies as well as the city, swept away, in only fifty years from the days of the first Reform Bill, the balanced and varied Parliament with which centuries had been familiar, and created a numerical electorate of millions, the representatives having practically changed their character to delegates.

Meanwhile the democracy—that is, the working classes, into whose hands the author well says the upper and middle classes have been forcing the political power—have, by a series of strange steps (chartism and trades-unionism among them), arrived at a position of a very socialistic character, in which the almost unchecked authority of a workingman's House of Commons stands an excellent chance of being used for a still further extension of suffrage, to include all adults—not merely women, but paupers—and for a redistribution of property in the very spirit of Karl Marx. Such an entire overthrow of English traditions never was in the mind of those who passed the Reform Acts of 1832, 1867, and 1884. But it is entirely on the cards if all the legislative power is in the hands of a single unchecked body—a national convention which, however loudly it might claim to represent the people, would really leave very much of what makes and always has made England, unrepresented. The only hope for law and property is in a second chamber. The author considers the House of Lords in its history and its capabilities. He contends that the charge, constantly levelled against it, of having obstructed and defeated the popular will is untrue; that, however obsolete the hereditary principle may be, and in need of substitution, it would be far more easy to make such substitution and reform the upper house than to save England from anarchy if it were abolished.

As was said above, this is a bare and very imperfect summary of the argument, omitting the terse and pointed language, the keen illustrative power, the grave yet hopeful tone of the book. It is, in all respects, the work of an historian, a scholar, a patriot, and a philosopher, and deserves to be widely read and deeply studied.

Masters of Italian Music. By R. A. Streatfeild. Scribners. Pp. 270.

In our comments on the 'Masters of German Music,' in the series entitled "Masters of Contemporary Music," the fact was noted that Mr. Maitland did not have a very imposing list of masters to deal with. Yet that German list, which included Brahms, Max Bruch, Goldmark, Rheinberger, Kirchner, Reinecke, Bargiel, Hofmann, Bruckner, Nikodé, Richard Strauss, and six others, is infinitely more imposing than the meagre array of Italian names at the service of Mr. Streatfeild—Verdi, Boïto, Mascagni, Puccini, Leoncavallo, Sgambati, Bazzini, and Mancinelli. Were it not for the veteran Verdi, now in his eighty-third year, this list of "masters" would seem almost comic, and it certainly reveals in a most painful way the decadence of musical Italy. Our author seems to realize the situation. He clings to Verdi with the despair of a man who sees a desert before him, and not till he has given him more than half the pages in his book does he proceed to the others. He knows that "at the present time, and indeed for many years past, music in Italy has meant opera, and opera alone." Yet lately the tendency of this opera has been "towards melodrama of an unusually sordid and objectionable type." And what makes matters worse, this tendency is already overcome, so that the author, while ostensibly treating of contemporary "masters," is really writing the history of an ephemeral fad. The account he gives (174) of the honors paid to Mascagni on account of his fifth-rate, vulgar "Cavalleria Rusticana" makes very amusing reading even to-day, and the joke will grow richer with keeping.

Yet, with the exception of Verdi and of Boïto (a man of one opera, now in his fifty-fourth year), Mascagni is the most talented of contemporary Italian composers. Leoncavallo is less vulgar, but also less spontaneous, and to call either of these or any of the others of the young men "masters" is a serious misuse of terms. They do not deserve to be incorporated in a musical history any more than the erotic ephemeral novelists of our time deserve, or will secure, a place in literary history. At the same time one can understand Mr. Streatfeild's perplexity. He was called upon to write about the famous Italian composers of the day; and as he could find only two who came under that head, he had to make notoriety take the place of fame in the other cases. As it is, the value of his book lies partly in the demonstration it gives of Italy's present musical poverty, and partly in the chapters on Verdi and Boïto, which are well written and interesting. If the book were called 'Verdi and Others,' its scope and value would be more obvious.

From Far Formosa. By G. L. Mackay, D.D. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1895.

Those writing to Tamsui or Taiwan must now address their letters "Japanese Empire." As valuable as timely is this richly freighted volume treating of the country and people that may be said to be restored, rather than awarded as the spoils of war, to Japan. Formosa has an area of 15,000 square miles and a population of nearly 4,000,000. The climate is excessively trying to foreigners, for the island lies betwixt the monsoons and the Kuro Shiwo, or Black Current of the Pacific, and between the twentieth and twenty-fifth degrees north latitude. It is a land of tropical heat, of constant and excessive moisture, of intense energy in vegetable life, with quick growth and rapid decay, and of chronic malaria in the lowlands. The eastern part of the island is a great mountain mass, having a rocky seaface, for the most part without harbors, while the western portion contains plateaus, plains, and soil of amazingly fertile character.

This well-written, well-arranged, and well-indexed volume is probably the first general work descriptive of the country and people. It presents facts collected and classified by one who has spent twenty-three years on the island among all varieties of people, native and foreign. The author, Dr. Mackay, was sent out by the Canadian Presbyterian Church. Admirably equipped for his work by nature and otherwise, he belongs to that too rare type of missionaries who work for the bodies as well as the souls of men. Dr. Mackay's idea, from the first, has been to raise up a native ministry, to find common ground of both faith and works, and to fit men to be preachers and livers of the Gospel in Formosa especially. Where he found no seed planted, there are now sixty churches, over a thousand communicant members, and thousands of Christian adherents. He has done what some missionaries fail utterly in doing—disarmed the prejudices of the white merchant, traveller, and tourist, and made the foreign residents his helpers and sympathizers. He has visited the wild savages in their mountain fastnesses, and has never quailed before howling mobs or men with murderous intent. Formosa is the land of toothache and malaria. When Dr. Mackay could not preach the Gospel, he extracted teeth and dispensed medicine. He has drawn out of their sockets no fewer than twenty-one thousand decayed teeth. He has studied the flora, fauna, minerals, and resources of Formosa. Hence, his pages have unique value to the man of science. At Tamsui, his headquarters, he has colleges for men and women, and museums for the study of the ethnology, religious and natural features and products of Formosa, and he gives his young preachers, as far as possible, a very practical and many-sided education. His story, modestly told, possesses thrilling interest, and is much assisted by maps and illustrations.

Dr. Mackay married a native Formosan lady, and the frontispiece portrays himself and family. For the book in its present form the Rev. J. A. Macdonald is responsible, Dr. Mackay having sailed away for Formosa in October, fully believing that the Japanese occupation will greatly improve the general situation, and confident that his plans are flexible enough to meet the new problems.

There is an aboriginal population of Formosa, dwelling in the mountains and jungles, whose ruling passion is head-hunting. These swoop from their mountain lairs upon the Chinese engaged in camphor-wood cutting, rice-farming, or rattan-pulling. The houses of the chiefs and warriors are decorated with the spoils of many years, and Chinese brain-sauce is a favorite tit-bit at a feast. These mountain savages also look upon the Chinese with supreme contempt, and direct their hatred also against those aborigines who have been conquered by the Chinese and have adopted the dress, cue, and religion of their conquerors. These subject people are called Pe-po-hoans, and occupy, in the main, the plateaus between the littoral and the mountains. The mountain savages look upon all men who do not wear the cue as their kinsmen, and this augurs well for the Japanese attempt to win them over to loyalty and obedience. The story of the French bombardment and invasion is told with wonderful fairness, and a chapter describing the work of the English Presbyterians in Southern Formosa (the Canadian Mission having the northern part for their field) concludes this extremely valuable work.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Argyll, the Duke of. The Philosophy of Belief; or, Law in Christian Theology. Scribners. $5.

At Wellesley: Legenda for 1896. Published for the Senior Class. Putnams. $1.
Badlam, Anna B. Views on Africa. Parts One and Two. [The World and its People.] Silver, Burdett & Co. Each 45c.
Baker, M. N. Sewerage and Sewage Purification. D. Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Cannan, Edwin. The History of the Local Rates in England. Longmans, Green & Co. 75c.
Daudet, Alphonse. Tartarin of Tarascon. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Fde, Rev. W. M. The Attitude of the Church to Some of the Social Problems of Town Life. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 70c.
Fitzgerald, Percy. The Life of Laurence Sterne. 2 vols. London: Downey & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.
Hale, W. B. Hand-Book on the Law of Bailments and Carriers. St. Paul: West Publishing Co. $3.75.
James, Prof. William. Is Life Worth Living? Philadelphia: S. B. Weston. 50c.
Kimball, Hannah P. Soul and Sense. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Lampman, Archibald. Lyrics of Earth. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Maitland, F. W. Select Passages from the Works of Bracton and Azo. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Naurouze, Jacques. A travers la Tourmente. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Out of Town. Harpers. $1.25.
Pemberton, Max. A Gentleman's Gentleman. Harpers. $1.25.
Quiller-Couch, A. T. Adventures in Criticism. Scribners. $1.50.
Rhymes of Ironquill. 5th ed. Topeka, Ks.: Crane & Co.
Rhys-Davids, Prof. T. W. Buddhism, its History and Literature. Putnams. $1.50.
Sprague, Prof. H. B. As You Like It. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Stevenson, R. L. Edinburgh: Picturesque Notes. Macmillan. $5.
Stimson, F. J. Handbook to the Labor Law of the United States. Scribners. $1.50.
Stimson, F. J. Pirate Gold. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Torrey, Bradford. Spring Notes from Tennessee. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Train, Elizabeth P. The Autobiography of a Professional Beauty. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Trumble, Alfred. In Jail with Charles Dickens. New York: F. P. Harper.
Watson, Rev. John. The Mind of the Master. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
What One Can Do with a Chafing-Dish. New ed. New York: John Ireland.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 14, 1896.

The Week.

NOTHING more amusing has been seen for a long time than the squirming of the spoilsmen in Congress over Mr. Cleveland's order bringing 30,000 more offices under the protection of the civil-service law, and leaving only a few hundred places, below those filled by Presidential appointment and Senatorial confirmation and above the grade of laborers and scullions, for the politicians to quarrel over. Although the immediate effect of the order is to make many thousands of efficient Democratic office-holders sure of retaining their places if a Republican President comes in next year, Democratic Congressmen who hate "snivel-service reform" abuse Mr. Cleveland for his action. Representative Berry of Kentucky says that "each Administration should be looked after by its friends," while Representative Bailey, a free-coinage lunatic from Texas, says that he has grown tired of criticising the President for his many un-Democratic acts, and contents himself with styling the latest performance "indecent."

Naturally, however, the greatest indignation is manifested by the Republican spoilsmen. Representative Payne of New York says that he was elected to Congress on a civil-service platform, and he "believes in a practical civil-service law," but that the President's order is issued so late in his Administration that "it looks as though he was endeavoring to take an undue advantage of his probable successor." Representative Odell of this State, who hopes that Platt will nominate him for Governor next fall, goes a step further. He declares that he is a believer in the theory that "to the victors belong the spoils," and, although he does not expect to have a great deal of influence with the next Administration if it shall be presided over by Mr. McKinley, yet, for the benefit of the "Republican boys" who do the hard work for the party, he "hopes that the law may be changed or the classifications modified by executive order, so that they may be taken care of." Representative Evans of Kentucky says that he "believes in practical and fair enforcement" of a "good civil-service law," but that it is "a mean political advantage" for the President to take of his prospective successor, to wait until all the offices are filled with friends of the present Administration, and then attempt to close the door so that they cannot be removed or changed. Senator Thurston of Nebraska says he is not familiar with the existing law, but he believes that, if a Republican Administration is inaugurated next March, "ways and means will be devised to overcome the sweeping order of the President."

Most delightful of all is the attempt of Henry Cabot Lodge to reconcile his practice as a demagogue with his professions as a would-be statesman. In the latter capacity he attended the Massachusetts Republican State convention only seven weeks ago, and helped to secure the passage of this resolution:

> "The civil-service laws, which remove the public service from the control of favoritism, patronage, and politics, should be honestly and thoroughly enforced, and the classified service extended wherever it is possible."

President Cleveland's order comes almost like a response to this demand; it extends the classified service "wherever it is possible," for hardly a place is now left outside of it. Lodge the would-be statesman feels constrained to say that he is "a believer in the policy of civil-service reform on general principles," and considers the action of the President beneficial to the service, since all previous extensions of the civil-service law have eventually helped to improve the public service, and the recent order may be expected to have a similar effect. But Lodge the demagogue points out that "there are many persons who will claim that the President has been too sweeping in his latest extension of the classified service"—in other words, in extending it wherever possible; and he contends that, if the next President wishes to reclassify some of the employees who are now protected by the latest order, he will have the power under the present law to do so, since the law that permits a President to extend the classified service also permits another President to curtail or limit the classifications. No reformer, however, need fear that the Lodges, and Evanses, and Odells, and Thurstons will have their way in this matter.

The McKinley boomers show visible signs of uneasiness over the assaults which are being made upon his financial record. Several of them have arrived in town simultaneously, and their explanations of the reasons why he is not able to say exactly where he stands at present fill many columns of the newspapers. They are all able to say that they have no doubt whatever of his soundness on the money question, and that he is "sure to be nominated," but they are all convinced that it would be folly for him to speak for himself now. Why? Gen. Alger explains that point most clearly by saying that the Major "greatly deplores the opposition of the Eastern Republicans, and is fully aware that this opposition springs from a demand that he should come out and signify himself to be a sound-money man. As a matter of fact, though, the silver-men are making the same demands on him to come out and declare himself for them. He must remain silent until the platform is adopted at St. Louis." That is a sufficiently plain explanation. If the Major were to speak now, he would lose the support of either the Eastern delegates or the silver delegates; by keeping still, he hopes to get both, and, after thus securing the nomination, he will let it be known which set of them he has deceived. As Speaker Reed expresses it: "McKinley does not want to be called a gold-bug or a silver-bug, so he has compromised on a straddle-bug." Gen. Alger's explanation is undoubtedly authentic, for not only has he come to us direct from McKinley, but others of the McKinley boomers, who also come to us direct from him, give the same one.

Despite the blare of the McKinleyites that the only issue is sky-high protection, it is the currency plank which continues to cause the hottest fighting in State conventions, and it is the currency plank which anxious business men first turn to as the great sign of the times for them. The Michigan Republicans voted down the mild gold plank offered by their committee on resolutions, and rushed madly off for a kind of weather-vane bimetallism. They did this in the face of Mr. Depew's plain warning that they could not carry New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, or even Massachusetts on such a platform. "Shall we bow to threats like that?" cried the McKinley-mad, silver-mad Republicans, and of course no man was craven enough to confess that he would. The surprising result was to leave the Michigan Republicans, supposed to be sound, on a silver platform, though the Michigan Democrats, thought to be hopelessly gone with the silver disease, had made a death-bed repentance of it and got upon a gold platform. In Indiana, things went better, and the emphatic declaration of the Republican convention against free coinage and for gold will be a decided help in the fight that undoubtedly needs to be made, and to be made earnestly, for a similar deliverance at St. Louis. The New Jersey Democratic currency plank is the strongest one yet written. It is not only as uncompromising as the Connecticut Republican platform in declaring against coinage of silver "at any ratio," and as resolute and outspoken for the gold standard, but goes further than any Republican platform in demanding also the entire divorce of the Government from the banking business, and the retirement of all legal-tender Treasury notes. Thus, speaking broadly, the silver cause is going down in both parties, though the sound-money men in neither can afford for a moment to relax their vigilance or determination.

One of McKinley's managers was asked the other day why the Ohio candidate for

the nomination at St. Louis does not say whether or not he opposes the free coinage of silver and favors the maintenance of the gold standard. He replied with perfect frankness that McKinley would be a fool to tell how he stood on the financial issue while a lot of delegates were still to be chosen in silver States. The convention in one of these States was held on Wednesday of last week, and the California Republicans showed their interpretation of McKinley's silence by adopting without any opposition a free-coinage platform, and instructing their delegates to support the Ohio candidate as the best man to stand upon such a platform. The same interpretation of McKinley's attitude is made by free-coinage Republicans in other Western States. Silver Republican newspapers reprint McKinley's financial record, and "point with pride" to it as proof that he is against the gold standard and will "do something for silver" if he shall be made President.

The Montana Republicans in their State convention on Monday adopted resolutions unqualifiedly commending the action of Carter and Mantle of their State, Teller of Colorado, Dubois of Idaho, and Cannon of Utah in putting free coinage before the tariff and everything else last winter; but an effort to instruct the delegates to walk out of the St. Louis convention in case silver should not be recognized, failed. It is thus shown in Montana, as Senator Wolcott's attitude showed in Colorado, that an element of the Republican party will support the ticket, no matter what the platform may say. Teller and Dubois have gone too far to retreat, both of them being committed to a bolt if they cannot dictate the platform; but it remains to be seen how large a proportion of the party in the silver States they can carry with them.

The Governor's "memorandum" about the consolidation bill contains mainly reasons why he should not sign it. In short, he shows conclusively that consolidation, as proposed, cannot supply the things which consolidation calls for. He admits, also, not only that no commission to be appointed under the bill can supply what consolidation calls for, but that even if the thing were possible, there would not be time to do it. That is, there is not even time for the commission to attempt the impossible. Then he adds that "this possibility is not a sufficient objection to warrant his disapproval of the bill." Perhaps not his disapproval as Governor, but it would warrant his disapproval as a reasoning man. We are not much concerned about the future of the measure; but we acknowledge a feeling of general regret that the Governor should leave the chair under the suspicion that he has not acted out of his own head about the chief public measures which have come before him—that Platt has been able to use him for his own schemes of selfishness and folly.

The quiet establishment of a branch Tammany in Brooklyn is the first sign that the Wigwam is getting ready to rule Greater New York when the new city shall have been created. There has been a good deal of childish talk about Tammany opposition to consolidation, but it has been noticeable that whenever votes were necessary in the Legislature to pass consolidation legislation, a sufficient number was always forthcoming from Tammany members. Nobody knows better than these shrewd political operators that a large city will be more certain game for them than a smaller one. By having a joint boss-ship — one boss for Brooklyn and one for New York, animated by a common purpose, to plunder the people— the greater Tammany would be far more powerful than the smaller one has been. The decent people of the larger city, discouraged by the magnitude of the city and their own unorganized condition, would be more helpless than ever, and would be even more inclined than ever to say, "Oh, well, what is the use? We are sure to be outnumbered any way, and if we try to get a respectable government, we shall succeed only in showing our weakness." Then, too, by doubling the opportunities of public plunder, the zeal of all the plunderers is doubled also, and their courage and determination to rule will be stimulated by the very conditions which are so likely to discourage their respectable opponents. There will be a great assembling of all the shady political characters of the State, and even of the country at large, in the greater city, for nothing like its possibilities in the way of plunder has yet been seen in this country.

Trustworthy reports from various parts of the State agree in saying that the Raines liquor-tax law is working disastrously for the Republican party. Senator Coggeshall of Utica says its effect is so bad that it will cause the Republicans to lose the State this fall, and many other observers who are as practical politicians as he is agree with him. The law would have been a great political burden for the Republicans to carry if it had been put in force merely as a restrictive measure; but when, in addition to this, it is put in force primarily as a political scheme to give the Republican machine patronage, its effects cannot fail to be harmful. The whole State has been advised, by the way in which Mr. Lyman was permitted by the Governor to appoint his subordinates, that the law is to be "worked for all it is worth" for Platt politics. It is impossible, after this showing, to defend it as a piece of temperance legislation. It will drive from the Republican party thousands of foreign-born voters in all the cities of the State, and thousands of other voters of independent tendencies all over the State, including many temperance advocates.

The recent State election in Louisiana, like the last two elections in Alabama, showed that the Democratic party can no longer command the substantially unanimous support of the white people of the Gulf States. The heavy Democratic majorities came almost exclusively from the parishes in which the negroes constitute two-thirds or more of the entire population. There are thirteen parishes in the State in which, by the census of 1890, there were more than two adult male negroes to every white male over twenty-one years old. Every one of these parishes at the recent election gave Gov. Foster, the Democratic candidate, a majority. In several of them, as Bossier, Concordia, and East Carroll, the vote as returned not only was large, but was practically unanimous. In the whole thirteen there were 11,415 white males over the age of twenty-one, and 37,789 negro males of the same age. In these parishes Gov. Foster's majority was 23,300. There are nineteen other parishes in which the number of negro voters exceeds the number of white, but in no one of which are the negroes more than twice as numerous as the whites. Of these parishes, twelve gave Democratic majorities amounting to some 12,000, and seven gave opposition majorities aggregating 6,600. The net Democratic majority, therefore, in these parishes is 5,400. There are twenty-seven parishes in which there are more white than negro voters. Of these, nine gave Democratic majorities and eighteen opposition majorities. The conditions in Louisiana are like those which have existed in Alabama for the last four years. Kolb, the Fusion candidate, both in 1892 and 1894, carried the white portions of the latter State, but was beaten by the enormous majorities cast or returned against him from the black-belt counties.

The regions in which the Democracy is now weakest are precisely the regions which, during reconstruction days, were most nearly unanimous in their adherence to it. The speed with which this independence of voting among the white people of the South has followed the repeal of the federal election laws and the abandonment by the Republican party of any demand for their reënactment, is surprising. That such a development would, sooner or later, take place when external pressure was withdrawn, was of course natural. It was not to be expected, however, that it would come about as speedily as it has done. Already both parties among the white men are bidding for the negro vote. The necessity of securing the support of the negroes led many Louisiana Democratic politicians to declare against the constitutional amendment by which the negroes would have been deprived of the suffrage. As a result, the

amendment was overwhelmingly beaten at the polls. Some of the Louisiana papers are bitterly deploring the fact that white men, and Democratic white men at that, did bid for negro votes; but the bid was made, and will unquestionably be repeated hereafter. The white men who have supported the Populist and Republican parties will, sooner or later, find a way to put a stop to the frauds by which they are cheated in the black belts. The negroes, when the whites are divided, will just as certainly be in a position to secure fairer and more generous treatment than they have received in the past.

Henry M. Stanley puts his finger on one great obstacle to the establishment of a system of arbitration between the United States and other nations when he says in the *Independent* that our sensational press is demoralizing the public mind. The morbid appetite that has been fed upon murders of individuals, naturally and inevitably grows to desire the murder of thousands in battle, with all the other concomitants of war. Our press is thus cultivating a taste for war among our people, and in the same measure making peaceful arbitration seem too prosaic for acceptance. This alarming tendency can be seen most clearly by an observer like Mr. Stanley, who is familiar with the United States, and who watches developments in this nation from another country; but it is visible to every thoughtful and candid man here who studies the signs of the times.

Lord Rosebery's talent for clever nagging never had a fairer subject than Mr. Chamberlain's late exploits in diplomacy, and in his speech at Rochdale on April 28 he did them full justice. Chamberlain's was "the new diplomacy," the country had been given to understand, but, new or old, Lord Rosebery maintained, it had been an unparalleled comedy of errors. Frankness and taking the country and the newspapers into your confidence was an excellent thing, but it had its awkward side. The Colonial Secretary invited President Krüger to come to England to discuss the policy England would recommend, and policy and invitation were both given to the public. The result was that the Transvaal instantly repudiated the policy, and said it would answer the invitation when it got ready. The new diplomat was asked in the Commons how he liked this, and cheerfully replied that it was of no consequence whatever. Then what followed?

"Our Colonial Secretary, in a vigorous practice of the new diplomacy, went to a public dinner, and said that the administration of President Krüger, the gentleman whom he had invited to England, and whom he was anxious to conciliate, was eminently corrupt. Well, if that is the method by which the new diplomacy conciliates the person with whom it is negotiating, it is a very new diplomacy indeed. [Laughter.] Then came the refusal of President Krüger to accept the invitation, and now we are told, as the last act in this melodrama, that her Majesty's Government have withdrawn the invitation to President Krüger. [Laughter.] It is, I think, an unusual proceeding with regard to invitations, but it is evidently a part of the new diplomacy that has withdrawn the invitation to President Krüger and sent it to Sir Hercules Robinson instead. [Laughter.]"

All this, be it remembered, was before those fatal telegrams were published by the wicked Krüger. With these transfixing the bosom of the new diplomacy, Lord Rosebery could have made a still sorrier picture of it.

The South African trouble has at last been brought before the House of Commons by Sir William Harcourt, who said the whole story of the invasion of the Transvaal was an "inexpressibly revolting, sordid, squalid picture of stock-jobbing imperialism," and he might have put it stronger. Henry Labouchere did put it stronger, for he called the directors of the South African Company "a gang of shady financiers." In view of the telegrams discovered in Jameson's bag, no doubt remains that the raid was organized and paid for by the company, and that they expected to establish a republic of their own on the ruins of the Transvaal. We observe that Sir William Harcourt takes an entirely different view of Mr. Chamberlain's part in the matter from that of Lord Rosebery. He says Mr. Chamberlain was "surrounded by difficulties, and had shown a courage and decision worthy of his position." Wherein this courage and decision consist, and what made him so popular for some weeks after the outbreak, does not clearly appear. All he did was to disclaim all connection with the raid, and bring Jameson home for a feeble and limping trial. He has not done a single thing or said a single word to bring the authors of the crime to justice. All the evidence which has been supplied concerning the real nature of the transaction has come from Paul Krüger. Mr. Chamberlain feels the force of the telegrams, but falls back on the plea, with which our own sharpers have made us so familiar, that they are not "legal evidence." The truth appears to be that not only did the directors organize the raid, but they fully expected the result to be adopted or condoned by the imperial government. They expected, like the Sons of the Missionaries at Hawaii, to have simply to send an emissary to London to tell the Government about the new republic and about the incompetency and corruption of the Dutchmen. No one can read the history of the company without feeling that the precautions taken by the Boers to prevent their own government, for which they had suffered so much, from being at once taken out of their hands by the swarm of adventurers who were in possession of the mines, were reasonable and just, and that any wrongs which arose under them were sure to be remedied after a while. The miners had only to wait and argue. What made Mr. Rhodes and the company so hasty was their feeling so rich. Everything seems possible and right to a suddenly enriched man. Then, the South African venture was, for England, a peculiarly aristocratic one. "Society" was in it to an extraordinary degree, and it was talked up in all the London drawing-rooms.

There is no reason to think that our latest "war" alarm will prove any more serious than those that have gone before it. Five men, captured upon a filibustering American schooner, have been sentenced to death by a court-martial at Havana. One of them is said to be an American citizen and two others claim to be such. The sentences are to be revised by the Spanish Cabinet, and there are indications that they will be modified. In the meantime, the journalistic warriors are "churning up" the incident in the usual way, by sending out all kinds of bogus news about it. Gen. Weyler is pictured as furious with anger at the attitude of the United States towards Cuba, and as threatening to resign if the sentences are not carried out. One report says he has sent word to Secretary Olney that the prisoners would be executed in spite of the latter's protest; but when the "story" got back to Havana from the United States, it was said that nobody there had heard of its details before. Yet it is upon this, more than anything else, that "war with Spain" is now in progress in the press and in the minds of some of our most thoughtful statesmen and observers. We think it entirely safe to say that hostilities will not begin before the end of the present week, and that whether there be war or not, the Cleveland Administration will see to it that the rights of American citizens are fully protected.

Despite the show of brave words in the speech of the Queen Regent to the Cortes, her references to the Cuban struggle are dispiriting. Misgovernment of the island is tacitly admitted, and the need of sweeping administrative reforms conceded. Yet those reforms cannot even be formulated, much less applied, until the rebellion is suppressed, and that it will be suppressed quickly no hope is held out. It is the fatal drift of things towards complete helplessness, both in Spain and in Cuba, with the ruin of the latter becoming more complete every day, the Spanish debt mounting, claims for loss of property owned by foreigners piling up, that makes the Cuban question so grave. The Queen makes rather nervous allusion to the sympathy and aid accorded the revolutionists by citizens of the United States, yet is able to speak warmly of the "correct and friendly conduct" of our government.

THE COMPLETION OF THE WORK.

It is almost thirty years since a small party, mostly civil-service reformers, sat down to breakfast in Washington, with the view of introducing their subject to the notice of a few men in public life, one of whom was a United States Senator. The talk of the reformers was rather amusing than otherwise to the public men. The Senator, a very intelligent person, confessed that he looked on it as a Prussian whimsy of some kind, and had to have civil-service reform explained to him. All agreed that the introduction of anything like the competitive system into the United States was a dream which might some day be realized, but not in the lifetime of anybody present. It was the millennium, and the millennium was a thing not to be hastened or too eagerly longed for. No one there really expected to see the reform accomplished. If it ever was accomplished, it was to be the result of an agitation lasting more than one generation, like the anti-slavery agitation.

There is one recipe for the dissipation of the gloom about public affairs which is just now filling the public mind, especially since "Prosperity's Advance Agent" made his appearance on the scene, and that is, looking back. It will be considerably strengthened by observing that to-day this apparently impossible or extremely remote reform is an accomplished fact, within the lifetime of the generation which saw the agitation for it begin. The President's last orders place the whole civil service under the rules, except offices which require confirmation by the Senate. Under Arthur there were 15,773 classified places; under Cleveland in the first term there were 11,757 added to these; under Harrison there were 15,598 added, making a grand total of 43,128 up to the 4th of March, 1893. Since then the additions have gone on gradually increasing, until now there are 85,200 places under the rules, or substantially, as we have said, the whole civil service of the United States, within thirty years from the beginning of the movement.

That the change has been powerfully aided by the example of other countries, especially England, and by its thoroughly democratic character, we do not deny, but the main stimulus to its growth has undoubtedly come from the observation of the working of the new system in all the departments in which it has been tried. It exemplifies, above all things, the truth of the French proverb that "nothing succeeds like success." The system has been extended, in the main, because its usefulness became more and more manifest. Its inclusion of the whole service is one of the best things we owe to Mr. Cleveland, whose retirement from office, to make room for Prosperity's Advance Agent, would be, at this time, nothing short of a national misfortune.

The fact is that the agitation on this subject, as regards the national service, ceased years ago. It may be said to have died out at Mr. Cleveland's election in 1884. Since then the spoils system has had no open defender. Here and there an orator has raised his voice for it, but his words have been received as jests. Of late years the agitation has confined itself mainly to an attempt to get the reform introduced into the State or municipal services. Progress in this field has been hindered by the fact that, as a general rule, State and municipal officers are hostile to it. With some exceptions the places in the State and municipal service are filled by men who are interested in "beating the law"—that is, in preventing its execution by some device or other. The only conspicuous friends it has in public life in this State to-day are the Comptroller, Mr. Roberts, Col. Burt of the Civil-Service Commission, and Mr. Roosevelt of the Police—not counting, of course, the unpaid commission which has charge of the municipal service. None of the others, from the Boss down, venture to denounce it openly, but they curse it privately and treat it scornfully in the Legislature. In all probability it would hardly have found its way into the amended Constitution if the Boss had thought it would pass. He doubtless expected it to be defeated, and the civil-service clause of the instrument is now causing him and his followers great annoyance, and they are fighting against it by every means in their power. But the issue can hardly be doubtful after what has happened in the federal civil service. It is now the American system. Their little systems have their day, but the system under which this nation is to march to its destiny, whatever that may be, is undoubtedly the competitive system.

The Massachusetts Supreme Court, in declaring unconstitutional, the other day, the law giving a preference to veterans in appointments to State offices, passed by the politicians over Gov. Greenhalge's veto, laid down the rule which we confidently expect yet to see adopted and acted on in every branch of the American service, both federal, State, and municipal. Said the court:

> "Public offices are created for the purpose of effecting the ends for which government has been instituted, which are the common good, and not the profit, honor, or private interest of any one man, family, or class of men.
>
> "In our form of government it is fundamental that public offices are a public trust, and that the persons to be appointed should be selected solely with a view to the public welfare."

This is the true and only American rule. The use of offices for the reward of services, whether they be military or civil, whether service to the country or service to a party, is forbidden by American polity. We may give a man a money pension, or a suit of clothes, or a mule, or a farm, for having been valiant or patriotic, but we cannot give him an office—for an office is service, and the due service the appointee cannot render unless he is the fittest man.

A WORD TO BUSINESS MEN.

An article in the *Tribune* of Monday morning opens in this way:

> "It would be a great thing for some people and for the country if they could only get hold of the truth that their worry about the money question is unfounded and wasteful. They are gratuitously spoiling business for themselves, and for others as far as they can, by lying awake nights for fear some ghost may carry them off. Are they not able to see, what many millions of 'the plain people' have seen all the time, that the money question is rendered harmless and empty by making the tariff the controlling issue?"

It is evident from these astounding observations that the supporters of McKinley, finding that the weakness of their candidate on the currency question is beginning to be better and better understood, have determined now to turn public attention away from it, as far as possible, and concentrate it on the tariff, the restoration of which they say would of itself, without regard to the currency, initiate a period of great prosperity. We have over and over shown in these columns by facts, figures, and dates, that this currency trouble began while the McKinley tariff was still in operation, and that the condition of the Treasury was extremely bad and getting worse before the defeat of the Republicans in 1892. We have also shown, as well as anything can be shown from human experience, that this is a necessary result, nearly as certain as the tides, of two things: one is Government banking with a fixed volume of paper; the other is the operation of Gresham's law on our stock of gold. The notion that these two things can be cured by a high tariff reminds one of the belief of people in desperate straits that something will "turn up" to avert a certain fate — a belief which is hardly ever wanting. It would be difficult to find among the most ignorant of European peasantry an idea more fantastic and absurd than the idea that there can be a great deal of national prosperity, no matter what the currency may be, through putting high duties on foreign imports.

Our own belief is that the nomination of McKinley at St. Louis will be followed by a period of very great depression, and that his election will cause one of the greatest panics in modern history. There are several reasons for this belief. One is McKinley's own character. The weakness of this is notorious. His closest friends acknowledge that he is singularly unfitted, through personal good nature and kindliness, for a great office like the Presidency of the United States, requiring so much determination and self-confidence. Not only is his character weak, however, but the record shows that during the last twenty years of discussion on the important questions of currency and national credit, he has stood on both sides of them. He supported and opposed free silver coinage. He advocated the silver-purchase act, and gave no support to its repeal. He has declared himself a bimetallist of the incomprehensible variety, and

he is at this moment backed up both by the Eastern sound-money men and by the Western silver-men, showing that neither know exactly what his position is. From such a man in private life, no sensible merchant would take any advice. He would listen to him about currency as a matter of politeness, but he would not think for a moment of shaping his business ventures by anything he said on the subject, and we should not be at all surprised if McKinley's currency opinions were at this moment a joke in the business circles of Cincinnati. And yet merchants are asked to give money and votes to make this man President of the United States, an office which during the next four years will require two things above all—one is, absolutely distinct and educated views on the laws of exchange, and the other is great force of character.

Another reason is the nature of the crisis. We must beg business men to remember that it does not depend on them which question, the currency or the tariff, shall make itself paramount at the coming election. In all business, as one may say in all civilization, the currency is the main question. You can carry on business for ages without a tariff. You cannot carry it on in a great state for one month without a currency which commands public faith. The *Tribune's* request, therefore, that business men will dismiss the currency from their minds, and think only of the tariff, like so many of our journalistic utterances, savors rather of the nursery than of the market. It is, under these circumstances, a child's prayer. You must think of the currency before anything in the world, or go out of business. You must remember, too, that the currency question you are treating is not so much whether you will use silver or gold. It is not a "battle of the standards" simply. You are now, by incredible exertions and quarterly loans, maintaining a gold standard. A large party in this country want a silver standard, and they do not want a silver standard at par—that is, a silver standard as good as gold, and involving no difference in value, only difference in weight of the metal. They want a silver standard worth only half the gold standard, and threatening all wages, all debts, all deposits in trust companies and savings banks, all rents, all annuities, with 50 per cent. reduction. The adoption of such a standard would, therefore, cause such a panic as has not been seen in modern commercial history except in time of war after an overwhelming invasion, and we believe it would be the easiest thing in the world to persuade McKinley to agree to it, mainly for want of knowledge. He would know no better.

We must finally ask business men to remember that the convention which is to nominate McKinley is not composed of financiers or experts in exchange or currency, and its nomination will be simply advice to voters, and nothing more. When they nominate McKinley, they simply advise you to vote for him. Now, who are the delegates? They are generally shiftless men or professional politicians. The vast majority of them find it hard work to make a living. A large number expect or expected some small office from McKinley. A swarm of them are ignorant negroes from the South. A very large number are simple-minded farmers. Very few if any have any knowledge whatever about business or currency. Probably not more than a dozen or two could get a $500 note discounted at a bank. Such as they are, they are largely influenced by the howls and applause of a large audience, more ignorant or less known than themselves, in the galleries, who have no responsibility whatever. What business man is there who would take the advice of such a body on any point affecting his private affairs—how he should manage them, or what he ought to do? And yet the next Presidential election will, owing to the nature of the issues, be a great business operation. Usually, electing a President is preferring one good man to another, because he is more "magnetic," or was a good soldier, or believes in 50 per cent. on woollens or furs. The next election, on the contrary, will decide what the standing of the United States, and of every man in it, will be in the commercial world for fifty years to come.

Finally, the effect on foreign nations of McKinley's nomination and election will be great. We need not point out to business men the importance of this. To the Dervishes who believe that foreigners sell securities cheap in order to annoy us, we have nothing to say. But large numbers of foreign investors have been waiting to see what we should do about the currency before either selling out or going in. The nomination and election of McKinley will be to them proof positive that we mean to go down into the pit, and reach rationality and sound finance through a panic. Moreover, it is difficult to estimate the blow which his nomination will give the general faith in popular government. Few of those who are "hollering" for McKinley know anything whatever about his connection with the tariff—know whether he drew it, or even understood it—or could tell in what manner he is "Prosperity's Advance Agent," any more than if they were born in Calabria. They are bringing no more intelligence to the work of government than Russians or Moroccans. Think of the effect of this on owners of gold, on prudent fathers, guardians, and trustees.

WHAT THEY DO AT ALBANY.

The Legislature at Albany usually sits about four months, but the time occupied by the session bears comparatively little relation to the bulk of legislation turned out. As little or no time is now occupied in debate, and measures are generally prepared not in it, but for it—in New York or elsewhere—by those who desire legislation, more measures can now be got through the legislative mill than formerly in the same time. In three or four months the Legislature formerly turned out a single volume of laws; last year it turned out three. There is a significant parallelism (which unquestionably is a matter of cause and effect) between the periods of swollen legislation at Albany and those of dominant corruption and Boss government. A mere glance at the volumes as they stand in order on the shelves of any law library will serve to show this. Until 1866, we find the session laws almost invariably comprised in a single volume. As the Tweed Ring rises to the height of its power the tide of legislation begins to rise with it. From 1866 to 1872 it requires two volumes a year to contain the laws passed at Albany; after 1872 the effect of the reform movement against the ring begins to be felt, and after 1874 that of the new constitutional restrictions upon the power of the Legislature adopted in that year, stopping special legislation of certain kinds, and giving the Governor power to veto separate items in appropriation bills, and the session laws present for several years a very shrunken appearance. In 1878, although the Legislature sat until May 15, only 418 laws were passed, comprised in a volume of 610 pages.

Quite as apparent as the relation between the bulk of legislation and boss government is that between its bulk and the exercise of the veto power at Albany. In 1874 a constitutional amendment was adopted providing that no bill should become a law after the Legislature had adjourned unless approved by the Governor within thirty days, and giving power to veto separate items appropriating money, while approving other portions of the same bill. The years from 1874 until 1876, when Tilden was Governor, and from 1876 to 1879, when Lucius Robinson was Governor, were all one-volume years. They were followed by A. B. Cornell, and the legislation of the next three years is comprised in two volumes for each year. Cleveland followed, and legislation again shrank to one volume, and so remained even under Hill, the legislation during his term of office having been mainly Republican and opposed to Tammany legislators sent up from New York. The veto, too, was still feared under Hill. It was in 1891 that R. P. Flower appeared on the scene as an agent of the new Tammany. In 1892, 1893, and 1894 we go back to two volumes; in 1894 Platt comes into power, and in 1895, for the first time in the history of the State, the legislation of the State appears in three large volumes of over 1,000 pages each. The laws passed this year have not yet been printed; it ought to be a three-volume year.

Few people will be ready to believe that the public business of the State has increased so much in the last ten years that

we stand in need of three or four times as much legislation now as then, especially as there are some twenty or thirty permanent boards or heads of departments, such as the Board of Health, the Superintendent of Public Works, and the Railroad Commissioners, which transact public business *ipso facto* removed from the control of the Legislature, and when, too, the Constitution has considerably restricted the power to enact special legislation. What is it, then, with which the Legislature occupies itself every year for three or four months, and which, unchecked, produces such an enormous and increasing body of legislation? We ought to find out if we can, for any such annual dose means increased expense and unnecessary and annoying interference with every one's life, liberty, property, and happiness by a body which every one dreads.

To answer this question we have taken a year when legislation was at its minimum, and examined the result to see, so far as possible, what it was that occupied the time and attention of the Legislature. The year 1878 is a good year for the purpose. The Governor exercised the veto power with proper strictness; the Legislature was a better body, too, than it is now--the wave of reform which had swept the Tweed Ring out of existence having had an effect even upon the members at Albany.

The analysis shows that the main work of the Legislature at its best still consists, notwithstanding the constitutional restrictions of 1874, of special acts arranging, managing, and interfering with the affairs of persons, corporations, cities, towns, villages, and counties, all over the State, not on any general plan of legislation at all, but without any plan whatever, and unquestionably in the main in response to the private solicitation of politicians, lobbyists, and others applying for legislation as a matter of favor. These acts go by the name of legislation, but they are not in reality legislative. They establish no rule of action governing the relations of persons to one another, in respect to the State, or to property, contract, life, liberty, or family, and in fact no general rules of any kind. They give money to A, grant to B the right to establish a ferry, relieve C from the operation of a law, authorize the city of New York to establish a park, determine how the city of Brooklyn shall pay for the repavement of an avenue, authorize its Common Council to fix the proper cost of a sewer and pay John McCloskey for it, give the village of Athens the right to lease its ferry property, etc. Three-quarters of the work of the year consists of acts of this sort, and *one-half* of it relates to cities, towns, villages, counties, and corporations. All these acts are *outside* the limits of activity drawn by the constitutional restrictions of 1874. Special legislation within this field has ceased. Outside of it, it runs greater riot than ever.

We have not thought it worth while to analyze the laws of 1895, because the outside of the volumes and the index are enough, without any analysis. "Other than general laws" is the euphemistic description officially given to the whole of volumes ii. and iii. Some 150 of them relate to this city, more than a page of titles in the index to Brooklyn, 125 chapters or so to cities other than New York or Brooklyn; nearly two pages of titles to corporations, a page to towns, another to villages.

There is only one way to remedy these evils, and the diagnosis of the disease shows what it is. Special legislation must be still further restricted, and especially the power of the Legislature to manage the affairs of every city, county, town, village, and business corporation must be taken away by the Constitution itself. That the Legislature will ever cut down its own powers is a mere dream. The moment this is done the volume of legislation will shrink again, and it will be found that the needed work of the Legislature can be got through by a session once every two years at the utmost. Meanwhile it is absolutely necessary that a Governor be elected who will use the veto power.

Illinois resembles New York in having a great commercial and manufacturing capital, while the government is carried on at a political capital in another part of the State. It is, like New York, a populous State, and is filled with a great variety of industries of all kinds, carried on by corporations. It is also full of politics and corruption, and contains what is commonly known as the great wicked city of Chicago. In 1869 its annual product of laws was printed in four volumes, of which three were made up of private acts. In 1870 the Constitution was amended by restricting the power of the Legislature to pass private laws, in every possible way. Among the provisions were clauses prohibiting special acts "regulating county and township affairs, incorporating cities, towns, or villages," or amending their charters, forbidding the creation of business corporations or any alteration of their charters, except by general laws, and finally forbidding the passage of any special act in any case in which a general law could be made applicable. We have a clause in our Constitution adopted for the same purpose, but it is nugatory, because it leaves the whole question whether a general act is applicable, not to the courts, but to the Legislature itself, to determine. Such a provision is of no value.

The courts it is which, applying these provisions, can cure the complaint, because provisions of this sort, adopted in Illinois, most thoroughly put the whole matter in the hands of the judges. Laws such as are prohibited may be passed, but the courts treat them as null, and no one has an interest to procure legislation which has no effect. And now mark the result. The laws of Illinois at the next session after the adoption of the Constitution of 1870 shrank to one volume; from that time to this they have remained in one volume of the size of an ordinary pamphlet. The whole legislation of Illinois for twenty years is no greater in bulk than the legislation of New York would be in three such years as 1895. We have before us the volume for 1895. It contains 350 pages, almost all of general legislation. Under the head of cities, towns, and villages there are sixteen references in the index; under counties, two; under corporations, five; under the head of Chicago not one, and yet the Legislature meets only once in two years.

LITERARY PROPERTY ONCE MORE.

THE question of international copyright has come up again of late in several ways. Action was for a time threatened in Congress, retracing the few and faltering steps we took in 1891 towards recognition of the rights of foreign authors; but the mischief is averted, for the present session at least. Triumphant McKinleyism would doubtless mean a frank and brutal return to the old piratical methods; the foreign artist, writer, engraver, musician becoming again as truly our natural enemies and lawful prey as the foreign manufacturer. Then there is the threat of the new Canadian copyright law, to which imperial assent has not as yet been given. This law is modelled rather loosely upon our own—in some respects it is more generous to the foreign author; but its aim is substantially the same, viz., to compel the publication in Canada of new books sold in Canada, no matter where they are written. It is the manufacture of books that the Canadian printers are bent upon securing as a monopoly, just as it was the manufacture of books that our copyright reformers had to concede to American publishers in order to get any bill at all in 1891.

Mr. Henry C. Lea declares, in a letter to Goldwin Smith (which the latter forwarded to the London *Times*), that this proposed Canadian law is one "of false pretences." This does not refer to the convenient assumption made by the Canadian publishers that they have only the good of Canadian "labor" at heart. Our publishers, Mr. Lea's firm among them, made the same assumption, with at least equal sincerity. The thing really aimed at, affirms Mr. Lea, is the building up of an immense contraband trade over the Canadian border. The book-trade in Canada is too small an affair to be struggled for with this suspicious eagerness; "it is the market of the United States that is really kept in view." This it is which makes the Canadian bill so serious a "threat" to English interests. Why so? Why, American "labor," asserts Mr. Lea, will at once rise up and sweep away our own law of 1891. In other words, the sight of successful piracy and smuggling will be too much for us, and we shall in-

sist on having a share of them ourselves. Or, to put the matter in another way, we thought we had cleverly got a monopoly of "English interests" in the publishing way, but, if the greedy Canadians are going to stick their fingers in the pie, we shall give up our slight pretence of decency, in the law of 1891, and openly hoist the black flag again.

What the rest of the civilized world thinks of our boasted international copyright law of 1891 may be seen by the allusions to it at the International Literary Conference lately convened at Paris. The United States is still classed with Russia as the two great countries which are barbarian in the matter of refusing adequate international copyright. This is because neither country will unreservedly accept the Berne convention, thus placing literary property on the same basis as other property in private international law, and making the rights and protection of authors entirely reciprocal, among the agreeing nations. Our law of 1891 is thus described by Zola, who, if any writer in a foreign language, should be in a position to profit by it: "In the United States there is, it is true, a kind of convention which gives protection to the works of foreigners, but under such complicated conditions, and through the observance of such vexatious formalities, that it is practically inoperative." If we really want to range ourselves alongside the educated world in the proper recognition of literary property, the thing for us to do is to give in our adherence to the Berne convention. That is what the delegates to the Paris Conference say. That is what we think our own copyright reformers will have to come to. Certainly our present position is one of unstable equilibrium. The Treloar bill and Mr. Lea's warning in the name of the labor organizations show us that the barbarians will not let us keep in peace the little we have won. If we have to make the fight over again, as we almost surely shall, we may as well fight to secure a full suit of civilized clothes, instead of putting up with a silk hat and cane, to go with our blanket and moccasins.

Zola maintains, with justice, that the root of the trouble is really a failure to believe that there is such a thing as literary property at all. He says he has talked with educated Russians who seem high-minded and clear-sighted on every subject except this; but the moment you begin to argue with them that a foreigner is just as much entitled to protection from the laws for his book or play as he is for his wine or silk, they shy off and smile at you curiously: this is really going too far. You seem to them an amiable but unintelligible enthusiast. They have no conception of literary property as a legal thing, an entity, an affair to make statutes and treaties about. It is only a kind of make-believe property. This amused and condescending air, on the part of legislators, in dealing with authors and artists, this entire failure to grasp the idea of a literary or artistic product as property, we see of course to be the true explanation of all such compromising shifts as our copyright law of 1891.

It is tiresome work going over the tedious old fallacies on this subject. But there is one of them, connected with the eye single to the manufacture, as distinct from the writing, of books, that is set in stronger light with the passing of every year. This is the fancy that authors and artists differ from all other producers in being loftily unselfish, in not requiring the ordinary motives of gain to induce them to labor. That is to say, they are supposed to be bursting with great thoughts and fine ideals which they must give to the world, whether the world gives them hard cash in return or not. This conception is at the bottom of all the "manufacture-clauses." Authors are bound to write anyhow; so let us make them get their printing done on our own terms. But the class that lives by authorship, pure and simple, is amazingly small in every country. The vast majority of literary producers earn their daily bread by producing something else. If you cut down their profits by literature, you are not going to compel them to produce more literature to make up, but more of the something else. "Why are you so silent?" asked Catherine II. of Russia, addressing the taciturn Spanish Ambassador. "Madame," was his reply, "in my country men who speak are burnt." Something like that will be the answer of authors to the manufacture-clause logic. In the long run, writers who are pirated or mulcted for writing, will not write.

PARTY POLITICS IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, April 16, 1896.

THE definite alliance between the Government and the Jiyuto has done more for the solidification of political parties in Japan than any other event since the adoption of the Constitution. It has been a long and uncertain work to put order into the chaos, but at last there are signs that the aimless struggle of the past few years is ended, and that parties will now move forward with definite purposes. The more liberal ministers of state clearly recognize the new political conditions under which the Government is placed; and even the conservative ministers, by their opposition, show how much they fear that the old ideal of an independent Cabinet is doomed.

Early in January the members of the Parliamentary Opposition (there was then no Opposition party) introduced an address to the throne making the present ministers responsible for the retrocession of the Liaotung Peninsula and the failure of Japan's Corean policy. It was pretty clearly seen that this measure would not pass, inasmuch as the National Unionists—a feeble body, yet holding the balance of power—had determined to unite with the Jiyuto on this occasion in support of the Government. The address was defeated by a heavy majority (170 to 103), but the Opposition members were not disheartened by their failure, as they clearly saw that many of those who voted with the Government were in reality as bitter opponents of the Government's policy as they themselves, and, but for pressure from certain leaders, would have gladly joined the Opposition.

The defeat of the address added stimulus to the revival of the long-discussed question of establishing a united Opposition party. Two difficulties have stood in the way of this union: the first, the selection of a new name for the party; and the second, the question of leadership. The Kaishinto—the oldest, most powerful, and intelligent of the Opposition parties—wished to sacrifice neither its name nor its preëminence. Except for the most pressing necessity, this organization would have preferred its old rôle of being a wrecker of parliaments to losing its title and importance. Even the successful move of the Jiyuto in joining forces with the Government, though it undoubtedly caused a renewal of the cry for the union of the Opposition parties, did not at once overcome the prejudices of the Kaishinto leaders. A new event, however, added zeal to the partisans of such a union. On the 11th of February occurred the Corean *coup d'état*, resulting in the overthrow of the former pro-Japanese Cabinet. The murder of two of the old ministers by the new Corean Government, the attacks in various parts of Corea upon Japanese soldiers and residents, and the entire suppression for a time of the pro-Japanese party, caused a deep feeling of resentment in Japan. It was generally felt that Marquis Ito was tamely submitting to insult in his endeavor merely to keep the peace with foreign Powers. In Parliament several members of the Opposition arraigned the Government as utterly weak, blundering, and faithless. Finally a leading member of the National Unionists (Mr. Sassa) introduced a resolution declaring that the Government did not deserve the confidence of the nation. In this resolution all the mistakes of the Government during the past nine months were detailed, and special stress was laid upon the failure of Japan's policy in Corea.

The Opposition parties were delighted at this turn of affairs. At last they were to secure the adhesion of the National Unionists, without whose aid all possible assaults on the Government must fail. The no-confidence resolution was not even urged by the anti-Government members; it was the voluntary contribution of a party whose declared position was that, though not wholly in agreement with the Government, they would sustain it in all important financial measures. Their feelings were now so strong as to break through every boundary of prudence or silence. The resolution would certainly have passed the House if it had come to a vote on the day it was introduced; but just before the vote was taken, in fact while a member was on the rostrum engaged in showing up the mistakes of the Government, an imperial rescript arrived ordering a suspension of Parliament for ten days. And now ensued one of those changes so characteristic of Japanese politics. The Cabinet used the ten days' interval in pulling the wires so deftly that, at the end of that time, the National Unionists agreed to withdraw their resolution. How this was accomplished is not certainly known, but it is probable that certain ministers of the present Cabinet, who have been identified with the National Unionists, were requested to use all their efforts to stop the anti-Government demonstration of that party. At any rate, at a meeting of the parliamentary members of the party held soon after the issue of the rescript, Viscount Shinagawa, their leader, stated that political con-

ditions in the East were too delicate and complicated to permit his giving his assent to the passing of the resolution, and he requested the members to withdraw it as soon as Parliament resumed its sitting. This was a bitter dose to a party which boasted that it was the most consistent of all political organizations in the country, and it is said that some of the members of the National Unionists felt so humiliated that they withdrew from the party.

However, on the 25th, when Parliament reassembled, notice was given by Mr. Sassa that he wished to withdraw the resolution he had introduced. The Jiyuto members now had their opportunity. They saw that if they opposed the withdrawal, they would have the support of the Opposition parties, and, when the resolution came to a vote, they could count on the support of the very members who had first moved it; they carried out this manœuvre with complete success, and the National Unionists, who had enthusiastically brought forward the resolution, were now forced to eat their own words by voting against it. Their humiliation was thus complete. Not even the organs of the Government or of their own party spared their ridicule. On the other hand, the defeat of their resolution removed the last obstacle in the way of an amalgamation of the Opposition parties. They had been gradually learning the lesson that they could not hope to command a strong following in the country so long as each party retained its independent organization. Their second defeat in this parliamentary session only emphasized their weakness. All the Opposition parties agreed to dissolve their respective organizations and to establish a new party with a new name. This was called the Shimpoto, or Progressionist party; and the Kaishinto, while sacrificing a title under which it has fought many battles, kept as much of its prestige as possible by adopting a new name in substance similar to the former one. On the 1st of March a celebration was held in honor of the consummation of this political event. The new party claims at least 103 members of Parliament—51 of the former Kaishinto, 33 Constitutional Reformers, 6 Oté Club, 5 Chugoku Progressionists, 3 Financial Reformers, and 5 Independents. The Shimpoto is therefore but little weaker than the Jiyuto. In the manifesto issued soon after its organization the new party holds to the following programme:

"Our party intends to introduce the system of responsible cabinets by the steady pursuit of progressive principles; to assert the national rights by remodelling the Empire's foreign policy; and to manage the national finances in such a manner as to encourage the development of industry and commerce—in short, to attain the reality of constitutional government, thus completing the grand work of the Restoration, enhancing the dignity of the Imperial Court, and promoting the rights and welfare of the people."

In regard to the leadership of the new party, much interest has been expressed, but nothing thus far has been made known to the public. It is more than likely, however, that Count Okuma will retain his position as chief adviser and director of the new party, as he was of the Kaishinto. His experience and ability are universally acknowledged. He has twice been a cabinet minister, and is thoroughly familiar with the details of practical government—an advantage shared by none of the other leaders of the party. He has a capacity for party management (a doubtful virtue, perhaps) in many ways superior to that of any one in the group of statesmen who have been prominent in the Meiji era. Moreover, he has a certain popularity even outside of the limits of his old party, especially with independent voters who cannot identify themselves with his party, yet would like to see him restored to power.

The whole political situation at present in Japan is distinctly better than has yet existed. Two powerful parties dispute the field, while the small remaining third party, though now holding the balance of power, cannot hope to do so much longer. The Government is admittedly depending on the support of one of these parties. It can scarcely hope to remain in power when that support is withdrawn. It has been said that the question of appointing ministers of state was purposely left vague in the Constitution in order that it might be settled by the conflict of political opinion. It was held that political parties must assert and educate themselves so as to establish their claim to recognition by the Government. Only in this way could they acquire the requisite capacity for conducting government by party. If the founders of the Constitution, of whom Marquis Ito was chief, looked so far into the future as this view would indicate, they must acknowledge that the period of preparation is now coming to an end. They must see that the days of the Satchō cabinets are nearly ended, and the day of party cabinets approaching. Even the most recent results of the alliance between the Government and Jiyuto prove that this change is expected. As a reward for the services of the Jiyuto during the present session, Count Itagaki has just been admitted to the Cabinet as Minister of Home Affairs. That such a distinction should now fall to a Radical, and a leader of the Jiyuto who has criticised the present system of government in Japan for over twenty years, would be an absurdity if the ministers of the Crown were not ready to confess that the old system was indefensible. And Count Itagaki, honored and even loved as he is in Japan, would forfeit all the respect he has gained if he could not show that his position was essentially different from what it would have been had he accepted office ten years ago. G. D.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—V.

PARIS, April 20, 1896.

Two new volumes of the Memoirs of Barras have appeared,* the two last, and complete what is to be remembered of the political career of the Terrorist Viscount de Barras, who left the political stage when he was still young and in full possession of all his faculties. He disappeared in the movement which he had himself prepared, before Bonaparte, whom he always considered his own creation.

The third volume extends from the *coup d'état* of the 18th Fructidor, year v. (September 4, 1797), to that of the 18th Brumaire, year viii. (November 9, 1799). The first *coup d'état* may be said to have been father to the second: *abyssus abyssum vocat.* It was essentially the work of Barras. Gen. Bonaparte helped it only at a distance; he was then in Italy, and he was cautious enough to do no more than send to the Directory, which was in need of support against the rising reaction, one of his lieutenants, Augereau, a coarse and brutal soldier, who hardly understood the questions at issue between the two fractions of the Directory, and between the Directory and the Councils of the Ancients and of the Five Hundred. The history of the *coup d'état* of Fructidor has often been told. Three of the Directors, Barras, Rewbell, and La Revellière, prepared it with Augereau.

"Midnight strikes," says Barras; "Augereau's columns are put in motion. It is ordered that Carnot and Barthélemy be kept under guard in their apartments. Carnot had already fled from the Luxembourg. At daylight I order alarm guns to be fired; the grenadiers of the Legislative Body embrace the troops of the line and fraternize with them. Augereau had drunk a little champagne to brace himself, as if going into battle. . . . His operations frighten the conspirators; the Tuileries and the halls of Assembly of the Legislative Body are closed; guards forbid entrance to them. The Council of the Five Hundred assembles at the Odéon and the Ancients at the Medical School; they declare that the troops and the Republicans have deserved well of the country; laws popular and appropriate to the situation are voted; the Deputies who had conspired, with Pichegru, their chief, are arrested. . . . Not a drop of blood was shed on this memorable day, which saved the country."

Carnot and Barthélemy, who were condemned to deportation, were replaced immediately by Merlin and François de Neufchâteau, two of the ministers. What Barras does not tell us is, that thirty-three members of the councils were condemned to exile; that the laws against the émigrés were again put in force; that the Directory dishonored its victory by many acts of private vengeance. The 18th Fructidor was, in fact, the reëstablishment of the Reign of Terror, only in a milder form; the victims were not taken to the guillotine, but sent to Cayenne or to Oleron.

Talleyrand was one of the most ardent supporters of the *coup d'état.* Bonaparte wrote to Augereau September 23, 1797: "The whole army has applauded the wisdom and energy you showed on this essential occasion; it has taken its part in the success of the country with characteristic enthusiasm and energy." Augereau had hoped that the *coup d'état* would be the end of the Directory. "Have we made the 18th Fructidor for nothing?" said he to everybody. "What does Barras mean? Does he think that he must keep his four colleagues? Let him remain alone and live alone in the Luxembourg." Barras, who was sometimes called ironically King Barras, tells us modestly "that he was frankly Republican and had not ceased to be so." He thanked Augereau and Réal, who also urged him to take the whole power in his own hands; he would even have us believe that it was with sentiments of the greatest regret that he had to separate himself from Carnot.

Lafayette had been kept in the prisons of Austria since 1792. Mme. de Staël came to see Barras after Fructidor, and, as some negotiations were being carried on at the time between France and Austria, she asked him to make the liberation of Lafayette one of the articles of the arrangement which was in preparation. "You, dear Barras, who are not made of ice, who have a soul of Provence, such as I like, I address myself to you. . . . You must restore Lafayette to France, to the Republic." The question was discussed in the Directory, and it was agreed that Bonaparte, who was negotiating in Italy with Austria, should demand the liberation of Lafayette. "Bonaparte," says Barras, "accepted with much satisfaction the mission which we gave him." He found some difficulty in the *vis inertiæ* which is the ordinary method of the Austrian policy, but, "finally, *l'avare Achéron* gave up its prey."

Napoleon was sent by the Directory to the Congress of Rastadt, after the peace of Campo Formio. He made a triumphal progress

* 'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate.' Translated by C. E. Roche. Vols. iii., iv. Harpers. 1896.

through Switzerland. At Bâle the commandant of Huningue made him a speech. This General Dufour, who had hitherto been known as a fierce Republican, said to Bonaparte: "I do not know the forms of oratory. I will not compare you to Turenne or to Montecuccoli; I will merely say, Bonaparte is the greatest man in the universe." Bonaparte was accompanied on this journey by his wife, who was everywhere treated as a queen.

The members of the Directory had received the papers of the Count d'Antraigues, seized at Venice by Bonaparte. D'Antraigues (whose Life has recently been published) was at the same moment agent of the Emperor of Russia and of the French Princes. In the letters sent by Bonaparte, Pichegru was compromised; he appeared like a secret agent of the Prince de Condé. The Directors did not know exactly what to think of these papers. They had become jealous of Bonaparte and suspected his motives. When he came to Paris, "all parties were expecting him, and expected something of him." A great ceremony took place to celebrate the peace; the Directors charged Talleyrand to present Bonaparte to themselves, as negotiator of the peace. Talleyrand praised the young general, not only as a conqueror, but as a servant of the Revolution; he praised also "his love of antique simplicity, his devotion to abstract science; he spoke of his favorite reading, of the sublime Ossian with whom he learned to detach himself from the earth. Talleyrand said, with his grave, serious, and solemn air, what many of the spectators could not hear so seriously, that it would perhaps be necessary some day by solicitation to tear Bonaparte away from his studious retreat."

Bonaparte replied in an entirely different vein; he said only a few words, and ended thus: "When the happiness of the French people is founded on the best organic laws, Europe will become free." What were those best organic laws to be? Bonaparte did not say; the Directors and the spectators, and all Frenchmen who read the words of Bonaparte, were free to make their own reflections on the subject. In that "retreat" of which Talleyrand spoke, Bonaparte became the centre of innumerable intrigues. He was too active to remain quite indifferent to them. He had hoped after Fructidor to be made himself a Director, but he was too young for the post. He soon felt that he had better leave Paris, which was a hotbed of intrigues, and asked to be sent to Egypt.

After Fructidor, Madame de Staël, who had obtained the erasure of her father, M. Necker, from the list of the émigrés, claimed, in his name, two millions which Necker had lent to the King in 1789, but which he had really lent to the nation. These two millions were not paid by the Directory, and the majority of the Directors, imagining that Madame de Staël was always mixed up with some intrigues, ordered her to leave France, as they had a right to do, since she was a foreigner. Madame de Staël went at once to Barras, and he gives us the details of this interview with his usual cynicism. She came first alone, and returned a second time with Benjamin Constant, "who was still sincerely attached to a woman whose celebrity had preceded the celebrity which he desired for himself." Benjamin Constant wrote a defence of Madame de Staël for the Directors (the text of it is found in the Memoirs), and Madame de Staël remained in Paris.

On the anniversary of the execution of Louis XVI. (January 21) there used to be a national festival. The first had taken place in the year iv., just before the departure of Bonaparte for Italy. In the year vi. he found himself in Paris, after his great victories, but without a political or military post. He was invited, however, to assist in the ceremony. Talleyrand transmitted to him the invitation:

"With a very cold and grave air, he answered that he had no public functions, that he had personally nothing to do with this festival; that, without pretending to discuss whether the condemnation of Louis XVI. had been useful or detrimental, he thought it an unfortunate incident; that national festivals were celebrated for victories, not for the victims left on the battle-field. Talleyrand answered that the anniversary festival of January 21 was just, since it was political; that it was political, since all countries and all republics had celebrated as a triumph the fall of absolute power and the putting to death of tyrants."

After some discussion it was resolved that, as the Institute was going to this festival, Bonaparte should go as a member of that body. Bonaparte was very anxious to leave Paris; he constantly spoke to the Directors about Egypt, and finally obtained permission to form an army in Toulon, and a fleet was placed at his disposal. The Directors learned in rapid succession the news of the seizure of Malta, of Bonaparte's victory in Egypt, and of the defeat of the French fleet at Abukir.

In the absence of Bonaparte, it seems as if Barras's Journal (for his memoirs have almost the form of a journal) becomes a mere account of intrigues. Fouché makes his appearance, and his influence begins to be felt. After the 13th Vendémiaire Barras had given Fouché a temporary mission in the departments of the South; since that time, Fouché had been living almost in poverty with a nun whom he had married (he had himself been a monk). The Directors helped him from time to time with a little money. Barras employed him as a spy, in his private police, and Fouché soon became important to him. He sent him to Italy, with the title of chief agent of the Directory. Fouché began his fortune there. He entered into close relations with Joubert, and concealed his own immorality under the high reputation of that general.

News of Bonaparte's death in an insurrection in Egypt arrived one day at Paris by way of Geneva. Mme. Bonaparte came at once to the Luxembourg, and asked Barras if the news was official. It was not, and Barras reassured his friend Mme. Bonaparte, who had found him surrounded with many people. She wished to speak to him alone, and feigned to be ill.

"I dismissed," says Barras, "the persons who were in my drawing-room, with the exception of my doctor, Dufour. He entered with me an adjacent room, where Mme. Bonaparte had retired. We found her more calm, almost smiling; she had with my doctor the same confidence and frankness as with myself. 'Are all your people gone? Are you free?' She looked round in an uneasy way. . . . 'Well, Barras, is it true that Bonaparte has been assassinated?' 'I believe it,' said I. 'Ah! ah!' said she, 'I breathe. Ah! my friend, if it is so, I shall not be so unhappy with the continuation of your friendship. People have believed that Bonaparte was in love with me, that he married me for this reason; he is a man who never loved any one but himself, himself alone; he is the hardest, the most ferocious egotist that ever appeared on earth. He has never known anything but his own interest, his ambition. You have no idea how he abandoned me. Would you believe it? I hardly have 100,000 francs a year—of allowance, I mean, for Joseph has all the capital in hand, and he pays me my allowance monthly.'"

And so she goes on, if we may believe Barras, speaking of her desire to buy Malmaison, of her debts, of the money she needs, of her diamonds, of which she has, she says, not more than three millions' worth, but which the brothers of Bonaparte would dispute with her if he was dead. She asks him to receive her diamonds on deposit. Barras wisely refused, and advised her to place her diamonds in the hands of her notary—advice which she immediately followed.

Correspondence.

COLUMBIA COLLEGE IN 1770.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the recent laying of the cornerstone of Columbia College, the following letter of the president of King's College, in 1770, descriptive of that institution, is of interest. It was written to Jonathan Boucher, who for some time had been tutor of John Parke Custis (the stepson of George Washington), and was occasioned by inquiries of Washington as to the best college in this country to which to send Custis. As a result, apparently, of this correspondence, Washington brought the lad to New York in May, 1773, and entered him at the college under the particular charge of Dr. Cooper. Unfortunately, Custis had already engaged himself to Nelly Calvert, had therefore no inclination to study, and, after only six months of study, he returned South and promptly married. In his disappointment Washington wrote (December 15, 1773), as follows to President Cooper:

"The favorable account, which you were pleased to transmit to me, of Mr. Custis's conduct at college, gave me very great satisfaction. I hoped to have felt an increase of it by his continuance at that place, under a gentleman so capable of instructing him in every branch of useful knowledge. But this hope is at an end; and it has been against my wishes, that he should quit college, in order that he may enter soon into a new scene of life, which I think he would be much fitter for some years hence, than now. But having his own inclination, the desires of his mother, and the acquiescence of almost all his relatives to encounter, I did not care, as he is the last of the family, to push my opposition too far, and I have therefore submitted to a kind of necessity.

"Not knowing how his expenses at college may stand, I shall be much obliged to you if you will render me an account of them. You will please to charge liberally for your own particular attention to Mr. Custis, and sufficiently reward the other gentlemen, who were engaged in the same good offices. If the money I left with you is insufficient to answer these purposes, please to advise me thereof, and I will remit the deficiency.

"I am very sorry it was not in my power to see you whilst in these parts. I thank you very sincerely, Sir, for your polite regard to Mr. Custis during his abode at college, and through you beg leave to offer my acknowledgments in like manner to the professors."

Paul Leicester Ford.

King's College, New York, 22 Mar. 1770.

My dear Sir:

I hold myself much obliged to you for good Will, as well as good offices, towards this College, as instanced in your Conduct respecting Mr. Custis and I am under still weightier obligations, when I consider your very friendly Suspension of Belief, with Regard to some Reports, which, you tell me, have been circulated in your parts to our prejudice. I am conscious that we have Enemies in abundance—that every Dissenter of high principles, upon the Continent, is our Enemy—that many of their Missionaries, from the Northern into the Southern provinces, make it their Business, nay, have it in charge from their masters, to decry this Institution by all *possible* means; because they are convinced, from its very Construction (being in the Hands only of Churchmen—which is very far indeed from being the Case of any other College to ye northward of Virginia,—and I know of none to the southward of

it—they are convinced) that it must eventually prove one of the firmest Supports to ye Church of England in America.

Hence there arose an opposition coeval with ye College itself,—or, rather, with the very first mention of an Institution so circumstanced which hath been continued, without Interruption, to this very day, with much Resentment, Inveteracy, and Malice. The College of New Jersey—and those of New England—were already on their own sole direction, and yet they could not be satisfied that ye poor Church should have any Influence in one: not that Dissenters of any Denomination are excluded from either Learning or Teaching; nay, we have educated many and have several at this very Time, who do Honor both to us and themselves.

However, oweing either to the very Opposition, or to our own Care & Circumspection,—which may, perhaps, have arisen from the former—our numbers yearly encrease, and our present Apartments overflow. It would ill become any one, to boast of the Advantages enjoy'd by a Seminary over which he himself presides: but I will venture to affirm, that, with Respect to *Discipline* (which, it seems, is one heavy Accusation exhibited against us,) we are far from being outdone by any College on the American Continent: and I *know* of none in Europe, to which, in this Article, we are really inferior. Add to this, that the Expence however such Things may be magnified by our Adversaries, is not half so much as at any of the latter; and, I believe very little, if at all, more, than at *most* of the *former*. Our Tuition is only five pounds—one Dolr passing for 8 shillings New York Currency; Room-rent four; and Board, including Breakfast, Dinner and Supper, at ye Rate of eleven Shillings a week, for ye Time each Student is actually in College. These, (saving Fire-wood, Candles, & washing, which must be had every where) are the principal Expences, indeed almost the only ones, of the truly Collegiate kind: *others*, indeed *may* run higher—as in Dress, and *sometimes* in Company, than they do at Colleges in the Country; tho' even These will not be materially different to a Student of *real gentility:* For such an one will chuse to appear handsomely—habitual in all situations; and when he *does* go into Company, he will chuse the best for his Associates.

With regard to our plan of Education, it is copied, in the most material parts, from Queen's College, in Oxford; with the wh [ole (?) *torn*] System of which, (having been for many Years, both Learner [*torn*] in that Seminary, with the Character of which you are by no means unacquainted,) I looked upon myself as perfectly familiar.

The young Gentleman's Guardian may rely on every Thing in my power for his Ward's Emolument; but as my turning *private Tutor* as it were—it seems to me so inconsistent with my office (whatever others in my Situation may think of it) that I must beg to be excused. But I repeat—That I will shew Mr. Custis every mark of Care & Attention, and see that his other Teachers shall do the same.

I have only to add, that I *wish* he may be here in June,—as we do not admit pupils when absent—that I beg my best Respects to Coll. Washington, whom I shall be exceedingly happy to wait upon in New York (your self, I hope, in Company)—and that I am, Dr Sr yr affn Friend

and very obedt Servant &c.

M. Cooper.

I hope you will have patience with me—at present I suffer much by a severe Fit of the Gravel.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have arranged for the American publication of the unpublished Letters of Victor Hugo, in two volumes. They are addressed to his father, his wife, his daughter, to Lamennais and Sainte-Beuve; and, in exile, to Ledru Rollin, Lamartine, Mazzini, and Garibaldi.

Prof. McMaster's 'With the Fathers' and Prof. F. W. Taussig's 'Wages and Capital' are on the point of being issued by D. Appleton & Co.

'The Tale of Balen,' a new and long poem by Algernon Charles Swinburne, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Henry Holt & Co. announce 'The Quicksands of Pactolus,' a story of San Francisco, by Horace Annesley Vachell, and 'In the Valley of Tophet,' by Henry W. Nevinson.

In book form, Mr. James Lane Allen's *Cosmopolitan* serial, 'Butterflies: A Tale of Nature,' will bear the imprint of Macmillan.

Brentano's will publish directly 'Bicycling for Ladies,' by Maria E. Ward, fully illustrated.

The Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, have just ready 'The Trent Affair: A Review of the English and American Relations at the Beginning of the Civil War,' by Thomas L. Harris, A.M.

A new book of verse, 'Songs of the Soul,' by Joaquin Miller; 'The Pacific History Stories,' retold by Harr Wagner; and 'Care and Culture of Men,' by David Starr Jordan, President of Leland Stanford, Jr., University, are about to be issued by the Whitaker & Ray Co., San Francisco.

An English version of the late James Darmesteter's 'Nouvelles Études Anglaises,' edited by his wife as we remarked the other day, is to be brought out in London by T. Fisher Unwin.

We have already noticed the translation, issued in England, of Sonia Kovalevsky's novel, 'Vera Vorontzoff,' or 'Vera Barantzova.' It has now appeared in this country in a new translation by Anna von Rydingsvärd (Baroness von Proschwitz), under the imprint of Lamson, Wolffe & Co. The American edition is a very pretty piece of book-making.

'The Mathematical Papers Read at the International Mathematical Congress' (held in connection with the Chicago Exposition) has appeared as vol. i. of the Publications of the American Mathematical Society (Macmillan); a guarantee fund for the cost of publication having been contributed by that society and some other mathematicians. The volume has the usual handsome appearance of Macmillan's books. Among the contributors of papers are Klein, Weber, Minkowski, Hilbert, Hurwitz, Study, and others, besides the Americans. The brief account by Klein of the present direction of mathematical investigation will be found to be of interest to those (professors of mathematics even) to whom most of the volume is a sealed book.

Dr. Levi Seeley has brought together a great many interesting and instructive facts in his 'Common-School System of Germany' (New York: E. L. Kellogg & Co.), but his attempts to apply German methods in detail to the solution of American problems are not so happy. The system of school organization by "districts," in rural communities, and by "wards," or single schools, in cities, is unanimously condemned by our best authorities. Everywhere the tendency among progressive communities is to make the township, the county, and the municipality the units for educational organization and control. Germany can learn from us in this respect, rather than we from her. Nor is it correct to imply (p. 192) that in American cities there is, as a rule, any uncertainty as to the teacher's tenure. In the cities that Dr. Seeley cites as examples it is far too difficult to get rid of bad and inefficient teachers; their tenure is too secure. The chief lessons that we may learn from Germany are (1) the necessity for a high professional standard in the training of teachers, (2) the value of close and constant expert supervision, and (3) the substitution of teaching, or instruction, for "hearing lessons" in the class-room. In most other matters, notably as regards the Kindergarten (pp. 225-231), our best elementary schools are far in advance of the average of those found in Germany.

The striking articles on Vives, Ascham, Mulcaster, Milton, Locke, and other English writers on education, contributed to the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* by M. Jacques Parmentier of Poitiers, have been brought together in a volume entitled 'Histoire de l'Éducation en Angleterre' (Paris: Perrin). Most of these men were sages rather than educators, and their reflections on education are marked rather by practical wisdom than by scientific insight. Yet a debt of gratitude is due them for holding up a clear educational ideal in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and so preparing the way for the more technical and detailed discussions that have sprung up since. The closing chapter of M. Parmentier's book is a tribute to the character and services of the late R. H. Quick, editor of Mulcaster and author of 'Educational Reformers.'

Dr. O. Laurent of Brussels, a voluminous writer on medical and educational subjects, has compressed into some 250 pages a miscellaneous assortment of information with the title 'Les Universités des Deux Mondes' (Paris: Alcan). The illustrations are interesting, but the book itself is more like a catalogue than a contribution to literature.

One can but praise the idea of Dr. Clemens Klöpper's 'Real-Lexikon der Englischen Sprache,' of which the first instalment is before us (Leipzig: Gebhardt & Wilisch; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). This work aims, above all, to meet the need of a better knowledge of England and Englishmen arising from increased contact by reason of Germany's colonial expansion, but also it is to assist in correcting misconceptions and supplanting downright ignorance even among the lettered class. Hence, besides being a legal, commercial, political and institutional encyclopædia, and a select gazetteer, it is a reader's handbook. We find not only Abernethy Biscuit, Aborigines' Protection Society, Adrian's Wall, Adullamites, African Lake Co., Agitation (O'Connell), *Academy*, Advertisements (with sample forms of birth, marriage and death notices), Agony Column (with choice instances), but also Abel Shufflebottom (Southey's pseudonym when publishing his 'Amatory Poems'), Admirable Doctor (Roger Bacon's title), Adriel (in Dryden's 'Absalom and Achitophel,' identified with John Sheffield), St. Agnes' Eve (but with no mention of Keats), etc., with a hint of a questionable literary perspective on the part of the editors. America is expressly excluded from consideration in this work, yet the only Abolitionists defined are the younger generation, on this side of the water; the present *Lieferung* ends with *Alabama* Claims; and Mr. John Fiske is enumerated in the past tense with Spencer and Huxley as Agnostics, of which the definition is singularly beside the mark. The English is in general very correctly printed, but Aggression is out of place by being spelt with one *g*. A similar lexicon for France is announced for simultaneous issue by the same firm.

Soon after the promulgation of the Jules Ferry educational laws of 1881, there sprang up in France a not inconsiderable literature, emanating from the pen of such writers as Paul Bert, Ch. Bigot, J. Simon, Liard, Marion, Compayré, and others of similar prominence, whose aim was to meet the necessity of some sort of moral instruction in the lay schools. Quite recently the same want, still

unsatisfied, has given rise to a new growth of publications, differing from the earlier ones of a dozen years ago by their more immediate adaptation to the needs of teachers and pupils. A score of such "livrets de morale" are noticed in the April issue of the *Revue Pédagogique*. The idea of inculcating moral notions by means of special devices is sometimes scouted, but the problem which the French schoolmen are just now making such earnest and intelligent efforts to solve is a serious one and confronts modern society everywhere. This new class of educational literature deserves, therefore, to be noted as both meritorious and auspicious.

In the *American Anthropologist* for May, Mr. J. Walter Fewkes has an interesting article upon the "Prehistoric Culture of Tusayan." It is based upon an exploration of the ruined Moki village of Sikyatki; and so far as the pottery is concerned, his conclusions are, to a certain extent, in line with what H. C. Mercer ('Hill-Caves of Yucatan,' p. 165) tells us of the probable use of the wheel by the prehistoric potters of Yucatan. Speaking of the superiority of this ancient ware over modern Pueblo work, Mr. Fewkes says: "While there is no evidence of the use of the potter's wheel in ancient Tusayan, I believe that the symmetry of old food bowls was brought about by revolving the unfinished object around the hand, and that the principle of the potter's wheel was recognized and made use of in ancient as in modern fashioning of ceramic ware."

Mr. Edward W. James of Richmond continues, in the third number of his *Lower Norfolk Co., Virginia, Antiquary*, his pursuit of historic truth in a spirit which we look to see emulated by the new Southern History Association. He reprints from the *William and Mary College Quarterly* his census of slave owners in Princess Anne County in 1810, showing 3,926 slaves owned by 646 heads of families (against 421 non-slaveholding heads). What is curious is, that nine slave-owners on the list were free negroes, with a total holding of fourteen. From a document of May 1, 1728, it appears that a negro nine years old was declared "a tythable." Two documents relating to public schools (in 1728 and 1736), and an account of the eccentric Gen. Charles Lee, will attract attention. The *Antiquary* may be had of J. W. Randolph & Co., Richmond.

The *Tour du Monde* has begun the publication of a complete list of important exploring expeditions and journeys by distinguished travellers, which (*a*) were completed in 1895, (*b*) are now in progress, and (*c*) will start in 1896. Out of more than one hundred entries in which the objects of each expedition, its personnel, dates of departure or arrival, or the latest news is given, twenty-nine were of journeys in Africa, chiefly in the Congo Basin, twenty-two in Asia, mostly in central Thibet and the region of the headwaters of the Irrawaddy, the Yangtse and Mekong rivers, nineteen in America, ten in the polar regions, and seven in Oceanica. France and Germany are most largely represented in the list, there being only ten American and five English expeditions chronicled. Among these are the journeys of Mrs. Beaumont in Alaska and Miss Kingsley in West Africa, who are, apparently, the only ladies that have travelled alone. An interesting and growing feature of the explorations of the present time is the commercial expedition sent out for the purpose of investigating the trade resources of half-civilized countries. In China there have been several missions of this character, French, German, and Russian, and in the Transvaal a French one. The list also contains short notices of recently deceased travellers.

The Magyars on the eve of their millennium form the subject of a suggestive article in the *Annales de Géographie* for April, by M. Éd. Sayous. He draws attention to the fact that it is not the Hungarian people as a whole who begin this month to celebrate this unique anniversary, but only the dominant half of a population of some fifteen millions. They are dominant, not through wealth, station, privileges, or even numbers, but through their language. For their extraordinary increase, from two millions in the time of Maria Theresa, and four millions fifty years ago, to nearly eight millions now, is due not to the natural laws of increase, but to their absorption of other races —Germans, Slavs, and Rumanians. The definition of a Magyar, then, is "a man of any race to whom the Hungarian language has become the mother-tongue, and who makes of that language the banner of his patriotism." Naturally the language itself shows the influence of this absorption in the vast number of German, neo-Latin, and Slav words which it contains, these last being used to express religious ideas. Referring to the part which the Hungarian played in stemming the Ottoman invasion, the author believes that his future may be not less useful mainly because he opposes the conception of a nation to that of a race which so largely rules in Eastern Europe. Among the marks of material and intellectual progress are the multiplication and improvement of the means of communication, both railways and highroads, the growth of all kinds of industries, and the increasing interest of the people in education and literature. There are now in Hungary 2 universities, 13 academies, 150 gymnasia, and 70 normal schools for the instruction of teachers; 676 periodicals in the Magyar language are issued in addition to 187 in other tongues, and the annual product of the Magyar press is 1,500 volumes. Among other articles in the *Annales* is one on the economic situation of Cuba. A hypsometric map, from Russian sources, of the region about the Carpathians is an unusually beautiful piece of workmanship.

Recent topographical sheets, prepared by the U. S. Geological Survey for various parts of the country, continue to increase the great store of information accumulated in our national map. Almost any sheet taken up at random excites an interested comment on the physiographical features that it represents. The Oriskany (N. Y.) sheet includes a large part of the "long level" in the floor of the Mohawk valley, welcome long ago during the construction of the Erie Canal, and explained in recent years by Gilbert as the path of the ancient overflow of the expanded Lake Ontario. A little to the south rises the strong escarpment of the Allegheny plateau, a thousand feet above the valley floor. The wild, uncivilized country along the boundary of Virginia and West Virginia is exhibited in the Tazewell sheet, a confusion of digitate hill-spurs, between branching and sub-branching valleys. Several sheets for Florida illustrate the "sink-hole" style of drainage prevalent in the low-lying, calcareous region of that State. The wonderful dissection of the Absaroka range by deep valleys is shown on the Ishawooa (Wyoming) sheet. The extraordinary flatness of the prairie in South Dakota appears on the Aberdeen sheet, where the surface lies at 1,300 feet for many miles together, interrupted only by occasional narrow and shallow valleys. The bold ascent from Lake Superior to a swampy plateau, 800 feet above the lake, is well brought out on the Duluth sheet.

The departments of geology in our colleges will welcome the announcement that a new general geological map of England and Wales, prepared by the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom, is nearing completion. It is in thirteen sheets, on a scale of four miles to an inch. Seven of the sheets have now been issued, five are in the engraver's hands, and the one remaining will soon be prepared. The sheets have heretofore been colored by hand and sold at 10s. 6d. apiece; but one sheet has now been produced by color-printing, and sold at 2s. 6d., and the sale of this sheet justifies the expectation that this new system of publication may be continued and extended. As this would mean a reduction in the price of the whole map from about $35 to $8, it may be safely said that it will cause a ten-fold increase in its sale in this country, if that is of any consequence.

At the International Women's Congress which will meet at Berlin during the fourth week in September, every imaginable interest of the woman movement will be duly represented. The programme arranged for the seven days' session comprises addresses, reports, and discussions covering more than thirty different topics connected with woman's work and endeavors. An inspection of the exhibit of charities at the Industrial Exposition, which will then be open, is also planned.

—General du Barail, who has been publishing a brilliant and interesting series of "Souvenirs" in the *Revue Hebdomadaire*, reaches in the current number the epoch when the royalists were busy in their preparations for the return of the Comte de Chambord and the restoration of the monarchy. At that time General du Barail was Minister of War in the Broglie Cabinet, and, although he paid much more attention to the army than he did to politics, he had a general knowledge of what was going on, gathered from his daily talks with Marshal MacMahon. Not a word as to the royalist plans was spoken in the Cabinet, until one day, just after the return of M. Chesnelong from Salzburg, M. Ernoul asked Barail point-blank how the army would behave in face of a restoration of the monarchy with the Comte de Chambord. Barail answered at once that the army would obey, without reserve and without hesitation, the orders of the Marshal-President. "And . . . the white flag?" "Oh, *mon Dieu!* I have such confidence in the discipline of the army as to believe that it will stand even the white flag if it be imposed upon it." At these words an icy silence set in, which was broken at last by the Duc de Broglie's saying: "*Subir le drapeau blanc!* What do you mean by those words, General?" Barail answered that it seemed to him that his words explained themselves, and asked in turn whether any one imagined, perchance, that the army would receive the white flag with shouts of joy. The army, he said, holds to the national colors; and it holds to them all the more strongly because at the present moment they are stained by defeat. Then, addressing the Marshal, he recalled to him how, in 1830, the sight of the tricolor had the immediate effect of deciding the troops to make common cause with the insurgents. The Duc de Broglie, who agreed with General du Barail, made no answer, but M. Ernoul replied, saying that Barail misunderstood the feelings of the masses. After the sitting, Barail was summoned to the President, who began to talk with him about

matters in general; but Barail came to the point at once by saying that he imagined that the Marshal might wish for his resignation. "No," MacMahon answered, "they asked for it and wanted Ducrot put in your place, but I told them that I would answer for you as for myself. *Mais, sapristi! vous n'êtes pas avocat, vous!*"

—'Histoire de la Langue et de la Littérature française, des Origines à 1900' (Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.) is the title of a new and very important work, the first two parts of which, an instalment of two hundred pages, have just appeared, under the direction of L. Petit de Julleville. It is the work of a group of scholars, specialists in certain lines of literature and language, and, as these last words indicate, the close union between the language and the literature is significantly marked. A third feature commends it further: the due recognition of mediæval literature, which receives a full share of attention. These three points are the fruit of the changes in views and methods which have been steadily becoming more and more prominent for years past, and one cannot but feel profoundly grateful to find them all combined in one work which, when completed, promises to be the fullest and most serviceable history of French literature yet produced. The names of the collaborators are a sufficient guarantee that the spirit in which the work has been planned and in which it will be carried out is the spirit of the most scientific modern school. Every one of the writers has made his mark; and while it is impossible, as well as needless, to mention all, a glance at the table of contents of the first two volumes, which cover the period of the Middle Ages, shows how intelligently the work has been distributed. The history of the language falls to Ferdinand Brunot; Petit de Julleville takes the narrative religious poetry, the later poets of the Middle Ages, and the drama; Léon Gautier, the Chansons de Geste; Clédat, the Arthurian romances and the poems of Marie de France; Sudre, the Fables and Roman du Renard, and Bédier, the Fabliaux; while Gaston Paris has written a preface to these two volumes which is one of the most instructive and thoughtful works that have come from his pen.

—Again, it is quite evident from the perusal of the first part—even did the prospectus not state the fact explicitly—that the aim of the writers is not to give the public the impression the works have made upon them individually, but a clear understanding of these works and an accurate knowledge of exact facts concerning them. This is unquestionably a great step in advance in a general history. This one will furnish ideas and documents and not merely opinions and impressions. The addition of a bibliography is a *sine qua non*, at the present day, and the new work has this necessary portion well attended to in a *select* bibliography, while the illustrations are not fanciful but exact transcripts of contemporary documents. It is interesting, but regrettable, to note that the division of literature into chronological epochs is maintained; the old classification into Middle Ages, sixteenth, seventeenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth centuries figuring here as in Nisard, Albert, Faguet, or stale Demogeot. As the progress made in the scientific study of literature is recognized in the allocation of special subjects to special authors, it is a pity that the arbitrary division founded on broad chronology has not been abandoned in favor of one based on the periods covered by the great literary schools. In amount the Middle Ages get a fair share—two volumes; the same being given to the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, while the sixteenth and eighteenth are to have one volume apiece. The first parts, which have come to hand, contain the preface, and the first two chapters, "Poésie narrative religieuse" and "L'Épopée nationale." The introduction, "Origines de la langue française," is to comprise eighty-two pages, and will appear when the first volume is finished.

—Lovers of Wordsworth and his family will welcome the new edition of Dora Wordsworth's 'Journal of a Few Months' Residence in Portugal and Glimpses of the South of Spain' (Longmans). Apart from the interest attaching to Mrs. Quillinan's book as the only publication of the poet's daughter, its pages have a more definite value. The last half-century has altered conditions of life in Portugal as everywhere else, and this simple narrative vividly depicts a bygone order of things. The greater part of the invalid's stay in Portugal was spent in Oporto, where she saw something of the natives, but more of the society of the English colony of wine-exporters, to which her husband by birth belonged. She describes at length a tour made from Oporto among the old cities in northern Beira (the cradle of the Portuguese national monarchy) like Braga and Guimarães, during which she had a better opportunity to study Portuguese life and to observe the characteristics of Portuguese scenery. From Oporto, when the winter was over, she went by sea to Lisbon, where she visited all the sights of the Portuguese capital, and from which she made the usual excursion to the beautiful city of Cintra. From Lisbon she travelled with her husband and stepdaughter through the south of Spain, visiting Cadiz and Gibraltar, Seville and Granada. She was by her long friendship with Southey sufficiently versed in Portuguese history and literature to appreciate intelligently what she saw about her, and this differentiates her book from the jottings of ordinary tourists. Considering the greatness of Herculano, the one famous scientific historian whom modern Portugal has produced, and the father of the Portuguese historical school, it is curious to read the following passage written about him in 1846, when he was still known only as a poet and journalist. "The history of Portugal," says Mrs. Quillinan, "the most romantic of histories, is still unwritten; so we must console ourselves with such a one as we may get from Senhor Herculano, librarian to the king-consort. He is a hater of the English, because the burgesses of Plymouth did not discover that a man of mark had come among them when he did them the honor to make their town his place of exile for a few months or weeks, I forget which, when Don Miguel was King absolute, many years ago. He has never forgotten the neglect, but has made for himself opportunities of abusing us, through the periodical press of Lisbon, in articles magnanimously signed with his own name. We will forgive him all that nonsense if he will truly and honestly digest the materials open to him, and give us an orderly and dispassionate compilation of facts" (p. 186). Certainly Herculano more than justified Mrs. Quillinan's hopes in his admirable history of mediæval Portugal.

—The history of the Ptolemies in Egypt is gradually assuming body and precision in many details by the aid of recent discoveries of papyri. The latest publication of these in England is Mr. B. P. Grenfell's collection, entitled 'Greek Papyri, Chiefly Ptolemaic' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan). This little volume is a sequel to the editor's 'Revenue Laws of Ptolemy Philadelphus,' with their supplements, and contains chiefly the editor's discoveries for the winters of 1893 and 1894. The fragments are mostly records of wills, loans, and other business transactions belonging to the first and second centuries B. C., and containing in their dry detail much that illustrates the business, the civic and domestic life of the Egyptian people. A good instance of this is seen in the will of Dryton (126 B. C), which distributes his property between his son, his second wife and her five daughters according to minute and reasonable provisions, and with an apparent freedom and security which are highly creditable to the civil administration of the period. The list of articles bequeathed to the women is curious, viz., two female slaves, a vineyard with walls of burnt brick, two dove-cotes, one of them unfinished, a wagon and ox, together with other more valuable real and personal property. The concluding sentence is highly interesting, and guarantees to Apollonia, the testator's second wife, all sums earned by her during his lifetime. That Apollonia was a clever business woman is attested by three other documents, which record loans by her of wheat, or money, the latter at the rate of 60 per cent. for one year, double the prevailing rate of the period. It is a curious fact that, in the face of so many chances, several documents relating to this family should have survived, as well as the second and the third will of Dryton. To these domestic details we may add an extraordinary piece of gossip from the Byzantine period (fourth century A. D.), a letter from Artemis to her husband, Theodorus, a soldier. She prays that he may come back to her safe and sound, and encloses to him a letter which she had addressed to a certain Sarapion. In this last—the Greek of which is as rude as the manner—she gives Sarapion a "piece of her mind," and informs him that his daughters are no better than they should be.

—The most important documents from an historical point of view are the record of a sale of land by a certain priestess to her husband (114 B. C), and of a transfer of land by Sebtitis to her daughter (109 B. C.). Each of these fixes the date of the transaction by a preliminary list of the first ten Ptolemies, including, as VI., Eupator and as VIII. Philopator Neos, whose reigns have been disputed by M. Revillout and others. As long ago as 1852, Lepsius had arrived at the truth, basing his conclusions on the evidence of hieroglyphic inscriptions and demotic texts. This evidence is now for the first time confirmed from purely Greek sources. Finally, we may mention an interesting literary discovery, a fragment of an Alexandrian novel written somewhat later than 174 B. C., in which some love-lorn damsel laments the desertion of her lover, with a genuine touch of passion and pathos. The style is poetic and rhetorical, consisting of rapid staccato sentences. The language and the situation remind one of Simætha in the incantation scene of the second idyl of Theocritus. This dithyrambic fragment, of little more than twenty-five lines, is written on the *verso* of a papyrus which prosaically records the loan of 100 artabæ of wheat (174 B. C.).

LECKY'S DEMOCRACY AND LIBERTY.

Democracy and Liberty. By William Edward Hartpole Lecky. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

THE title selected for this book does not give

a very clear intimation of its contents, which embrace a discussion of the effect of universal suffrage on representative institutions and on liberty; the limits of State interference; Socialism and Socialist political economy; Church and State; popular education; woman suffrage; the eight-hour movement; divorce; Rousseau's theories; the Australian ballot; the referendum, and a host of other questions about which public interest is aroused in different parts of the world, and which together may be regarded as forming the network of problems affecting Liberty woven by the tireless loom of Democracy. On nothing which the author discusses does he fail to throw some light, often very brilliant. His clear and interesting style gives attraction to the driest topics, and his impartiality of manner disposes you to accept his verdict, even when it is directly opposed to all your preconceptions and prejudices. In a review it is impossible to touch upon more than one or two points.

To our mind, Mr. Lecky's most important and novel present contribution to political philosophy is the array of fact and argument by which he shows that universal suffrage (at any rate in communities such as those we live in), is a deadly enemy to representative or parliamentary institutions, through its effect in steadily lowering the character of the members of the representative body; this, under its influence, tending more and more to represent only the widespread longing of the ignorant and improvident to rob the thrifty, to undermine the security of contract and property, and, wherever law or liberty stands in their way, to blot them out. The case against universal suffrage rests mainly on observation of the unquestionable facts, first, that while we have numerous instances of legislatures of the first rank produced by a restricted suffrage, we have none whatever of any such body produced by universal suffrage; second, that, in several cases, parliamentary bodies of the first rank have run down *pari passu* with the extension of the suffrage. We may leave out the British Parliament, because the suffrage is not yet there entirely divorced from property, and many of the most prominent men in English politics obtained their entrance into public life while the suffrage was still narrow. Mr. Lecky is of opinion that deterioration in the House of Commons has set in, but there are plenty of other clearer instances. Italian, Austrian, Belgian, and Dutch Parliaments, elected by a high suffrage, have produced creditable legislation; in all these countries, since the basis of the suffrage has been greatly extended, there is a marked deterioration in public life. In France it is notorious that the character of the representative body has steadily declined until even the cabinets which it produces are cabinets of nobodies. It is in the United States, however, that the evil effects of universal suffrage on legislation are most clear; and Mr. Lecky's case is here even more telling than he knows it to be. The Senate, which, so long as it remained composed of men whose opening to public life had been furnished by a property suffrage, was a body remarkable all over the world for the ability and character of its members, has, since the full effects of universal suffrage have come into play, grown to be an impotent and ignorant body, which can no longer be relied upon either to originate good proposals of its own, or to impede vicious legislation set on foot in the House of Representatives. If it is said in reply to this that the Senate is not elected by universal suffrage, but by the States, the answer cannot be allowed to have much weight, because the bodies which select Senators in the various States are themselves the product of universal suffrage. The character of the State Legislatures is too notorious to permit dispute. In this State, with its six millions of inhabitants, containing the chief city and commercial capital of the country, the men who make up the Legislature are obscure local politicians, most of whom no one would employ in private business of any kind. They debate nothing, but pass bills under the orders of a dealer in votes, who sells legislation like any South American dictator, and in many cases passes bills by the aid of members of the party nominally opposed to him in return for promises of place. The system in New York is, however, only a grotesque exaggeration of evils which every State capital illustrates. So far from the public having any confidence in a legislature, every recent constitution is full of provisions, dictated by the most profound distrust, restricting its powers in every direction.

On these facts, the case against universal suffrage, so far as it affects representative institutions, is a strong one; it is, we may add, reinforced if a different method is employed, and we inquire into the ultimate causes of the process we see going on about us. Why and how does universal suffrage produce its effects? The answer is, we believe, very simple. A popular vote is of two sorts: it decides a question, or it elects a person to office. The referendum, and our frequent votes on constitutional questions, are illustrations of the former, and the answer of universal suffrage to the questions propounded is, according to our experience, not generally unwise. When it comes, however, to electing to office, universal suffrage can do nothing more than decide between two candidates put up by a small number of managers. The theory of popular institutions is that candidates are brought forward by a sort of automatic natural selection of the fittest. A is observed by his neighbors to be a wise, prudent man, who talks and argues well, and manages affairs intrusted to him skilfully; his neighbors, knowing that a new legislature is shortly to be elected, discuss the advisability of sending A to it, and in this way A becomes a candidate. As a matter of fact, except in extreme cases, the deliberation of the voter is confined to the question whether he shall vote for one of two parties; and what a popular election decides is which of two parties shall carry on the government. The selection of the candidate is left to a small body of managers, who will generally put up as candidates men no better than themselves. So long as the suffrage is based on property, the managers of the machine will come from the propertied classes, and will select men who are fairly representative of those classes; as soon as suffrage is based on mere numbers, the machinery of politics falls into the hands of a much lower class, and necessarily the level of candidates falls too. Ignorance, so far as it is vested with power, tends to drive out intelligence, just as a debased currency tends to drive out gold.

But this tendency is greatly aggravated among us by our practice of making all offices elective for short terms. Constant elections have the effect of increasing the importance of those who manage the machinery, especially in cities, where it soon gets to be out of the question for a voter to have much voice in the selection of candidates without abandoning all other business and taking to politics as a calling. This, of course, in such a condition of government, involves consequences from which the better class of voters shrink. In the end we have the machine as we know it, with a boss at its head, which virtually carries on the government; the representative system has shrunk to a form, and the members of the Legislature, though elected by the people, are really the boss's hired men. What would come next we can only guess; but we know that the aim of the more intelligent bosses has always been to transfer the system to Washington, where it would logically end in a machine dictatorship, controlling a Presidential puppet just as Governors are now sometimes controlled, tempered by occasional revolts and reform movements. The forms of popular representative government would be kept up, but for the benefit of one man or a small group of men.

Such is the case against universal suffrage—perhaps we might say (since the democratic principle, once introduced, seems always to lead to universal suffrage), the case against democracy—stated as strongly as we can put it. No American of mature years can read Mr. Lecky's book without feeling that the experience of his own country furnishes a great deal of the strongest proof in it. But it must not be supposed from this that Mr. Lecky's volumes are intended primarily as a warning to us. On the contrary, his thesis is that the country in which the effects of the introduction of pure democracy will be most felt is his own. In the United States, as he points out, following Sir Henry Maine and most modern writers on the subject, the Constitution imposes checks upon the Legislature of which the most important are the veto and other powers of the Executive and the high authority vested in the judiciary, which for ever prevents the legislative bodies produced by universal suffrage from interfering (as their nature would lead them to do) with the foundations on which society rests—*i. e.*, property, contract, and liberty. In England no such checks exist. Parliament is supreme, and there is nothing to prevent universal suffrage from sending to Westminster a House of Commons which will pass any measures—no matter how subversive of the elementary principles of justice and civilization—demanded by a temporary majority. Nay, according to Mr. Lecky, this has already been done, the whole series of measures regulating rent and the relation of landlord and tenant in Ireland being in the nature of confiscation. This part of the book, while no doubt very effective as a Conservative argument in England, deals with a case the exceptional character of which prevents its being so weighty as the author would have us believe. Most English Liberals would refuse to admit that the principles of recent Irish land legislation were applicable to England, Scotland, and Wales. What Mr. Lecky calls confiscation they call justice; party feeling still colors every one's judgment about the matter. No English Liberal can deny, however, the force of the abstract reasoning. An omnipotent Parliament elected by universal suffrage must pass whatever measures a majority demands. There is no written constitution under which the courts can declare laws invalid because they violate the obligation of contracts or make life, liberty, or property insecure; consequently, were this tendency unchecked, there would be no country in the world where the future of liberty and free institutions of law and government would be as dark as in England.

The sum and substance of this part of the book, then, is that the condition of free institutions in the United States is an awful warning to England of her fate if she becomes entirely democratic. In such a case her Par-

liament will furnish a machine to promote the ends of demagogues, socialists, agrarians, and communists, the like of which the world has never seen. The conclusion is one which we cannot on our side any longer maintain to be wholly unreasonable. We can no longer say, Come to the United States and we will show you a pure democracy, where the offices are filled by the most capable men; where the taxation is the lightest in the world; where there are no schemes of spoliation in the air; where there are no great inequalities of fortune, no talk of foreign war, and where the dreams of the martyrs of liberty through the ages of oppression, cruelty, and superstition have at length been made true in the life of a free and happy people. On the contrary, we are confronted by problems very like those which, according to Mr. Lecky, confront England.

The question is, what is to be done; and, curiously enough, the remedies which the friends of liberty and good government recommend to check the ravages of the disease are fundamentally not unlike in the two countries. In both, what is dreaded is the behavior of popular legislative bodies. No one in England now fears the Crown or the courts; no one in this country fears the Executive, while the courts are our main reliance against legislation. In both countries tendencies are at work which, unchecked, must sap the life-blood of free institutions. In both countries conservatives instinctively turn for relief to those parts of the Constitution which reinforce permanence in institutions. One of the things threatened is property; therefore, by all means, they say, stick to property suffrage where it still exists, and strengthen and improve in every way the House of Lords, which represents property most distinctly. In this country, having the courts to help us, what we do is to restrict the power of the Legislature in every possible way —by limiting more and more the number of subjects over which it has jurisdiction, by curtailing as far as possible its powers of taxation, and by reducing the frequency of its sessions; so, we lengthen the terms of governors, mayors, and judges, and, wherever the judiciary is non-elective, keep it so. We can hardly admit it to be "the theory of American statesmen," as Mr. Lecky sardonically observes, "that the persons elected on a democratic system are always likely to prove dishonest, but that it is possible by constitutional laws to restrict their dishonesty to safe limits" (vol. i., p. 103.) We simply do what we believe our race has invariably done, when power has been insufferably abused by one branch of the Government; we restrict it, take it away altogether, or lodge it elsewhere. This is exactly what Mr. Lecky would do in England. It is all that any one can do, for the step backwards from democracy to privilege will not be taken through a democratic suffrage. Finally, it must not be overlooked that, in this country, we correct the evils produced by universal suffrage in one direction by the very same agency operating in another. All our modern constitutional changes are the products of universal suffrage.

So far as Mr. Lecky's book deals with the *tendency* of universal suffrage to ruin representative bodies and through them to produce other evils, his position seems to us impregnable. But it must be remembered that politics is not a science of demonstration. We may point out a tendency, but there are always so many forces at work that we cannot be sure how far the tendency will produce its extreme logical effect. Nothing is so certain as that an elective judiciary in a city like New York tends to produce corruption on the bench; yet nothing is more certain, either, than that the judiciary here is to-day, after two generations of elective judges, better than it was twenty-five years ago. Nor can it be assumed that because democracy is introduced in a country, and a generation or two later we find a great many tendencies at work which all seem to point to the disruption of the ties of family, to the undermining of the foundations of property and contract, and to rendering life and liberty insecure, and corrupting the administration of justice, all these consequences are the results of democracy only. Divorce is rife among the well-to-do classes in this country, but it has not been forced upon them by universal suffrage.

Mr. Lecky draws a picture of the state of society in this country which is far from flattering, though it does not differ from that which is reflected in the press every day, and leaves it to be inferred that it is more or less a consequence of universal suffrage. We should be inclined to say that it was the consequence of a great variety of causes, and that of the amount of weight to be given to universal suffrage in producing the result no man can judge. Besides this, the argument from consequences is a weapon which the believer in democracy can also use. If it is to be assumed that the present condition of the most advanced societies of the world is to be attributed, as a whole, to the spread of democratic ideas, we must, to judge fairly of the effect, go back at least to the condition in which the world was while privilege still ruled it. We have also an example of that world still left, existing on an enormous scale, in the Russian Empire. If we go back a hundred and fifty years, it existed all over the world. The old world was not governed democratically, but by the very classes which in theory should always produce fitness, ability, and zeal in government—the educated, the holders of property, long-established families. These classes had the power, and, what is more, had enjoyed it for ages, and were supported in its enjoyment by churches which had a hold upon conduct such as no religious bodies now have. Had they provided even decent government for mankind, democracy might never have established its claim to a hearing. As it was, they produced for justice widespread tyranny and corruption, for peace constant war, for liberty and happiness endless misery among large classes of those dependent on them. The equality of man was no doubt a dream, but it awakened the world, and, bringing democracy with it, set on foot those stupendous changes which have made the world of to-day, if not a paradise, at least a place where we are free to make of our lives what our faculties permit.

We have not a word to say against the truth of the picture of the evils of the state of society in which we live, but inasmuch as the old system produced a condition of things to relieve the world from which democracy had to be invoked, and inasmuch as democracy appears to be established as firmly on its throne as autocracy or the privilege of the educated minority ever was, we are thankful to believe that even the baleful and poisonous influence of ignorant and irresponsible suffrage is counteracted by other forces powerful enough to triumph in the end, and to justify those who still refuse to believe that man's inevitable alternative is either anarchy or privilege resting on force. If universal suffrage were potent enough to blot out again the freedom and justice and equal rights to attain which whole generations have laid down their lives, then would our last state be indeed worse than the first; for even hope would be gone.

LAST POEMS OF MARGARET OF NAVARRE.

Les Dernières Poésies de Marguerite de Navarre, publieés pour la première fois, avec une introduction et des notes, par Abel Lefranc, secrétaire du Collège de France. [Publication de la Société d'Histoire Littéraire de France.] Paris: Armand Colin & Cie. 8vo, pp. lxxvii, 461.

In 1547 there was published a collection of compositions in verse—they scarcely deserve to be called poems—entitled 'Les Marguerites de la Marguerite des princesses.' This Margaret, "the pearl of princesses," was that Queen of Navarre, sister of Francis I., whose name in literature is distinguished chiefly as the author of the 'Heptameron.' Any one who has read aright this last-mentioned work, and has judged it intelligently, feels little surprise in finding that "les marguerites" of the Queen are chiefly expressions in various forms and at considerable length of the sincerest religious emotion. Mingled with poems of this character are others of a less serious cast, but all have such fervor and such tenderness that they reflect as in a mirror the sweet and noble mind of their writer.

The "Marguerites" were reprinted twenty years ago under the editorship of M. Félix Frank, and met with warm appreciation among their modern readers. That the four beautiful little volumes contained all Margaret's important poems was not questioned. It was known that some minor ones still remained among the manuscripts of the Arsenal and of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and extracts from them had been given by one and another student of the Queen's works; but no one suspected that a considerable part, and not the least interesting, of her poetical writings was still unknown. The discoveries that are made in the great libraries of to-day by literary explorers have a blending of chance and research that is the perfection of good fortune, and he would be a dullard who did not sympathize with the emotion M. Lefranc confesses he felt when, working five years ago at the Bibliothèque Nationale, he found in his hands a manuscript which no man had read, it would seem, since, three centuries and a half ago Jeanne d'Albret laid its leaves in an iron box with solid fastenings.

They were her mother's last writings; most of them probably composed in the less than three years that elapsed between the death of King Francis—the blow which killed Margaret—and her own death in 1549, at the not old age of fifty-seven years. And it is not strange that as Margaret, during this very period, had made a selection of her poems and given it to the world, her daughter should have felt that these were not then to be published, and, putting them away, put them out of her thoughts. One can easily believe that the expressions of her mother's eager, open, tender, feminine intelligence did not appeal to the rigidities and severities of Jeanne's masculine nature; and whether Margaret was or was not a Roman Catholic in her belief, she was a true Catholic in the larger sense, while Jeanne was a true Protestant, to whom Margaret's immense and persistent liberality must have been entirely unwelcome. Nowhere does Margaret's generosity of intellectual appreciation find fuller and finer expression than in these Last Poems. So her daughter locked them up; and now they are unlocked. As we read them

now, it must be with shame that the heights from which Margaret speaks are still so far above the common paths of the world; but this sweet, clear voice that sings this perpetual song of Love, Love, Love, will, it cannot be doubted, find responsive hearts.

Margaret's iteration and reiteration of the need of Love, the joy of Love, shapes itself into a "comedy" contained in this volume with a gracefulness and fineness unusual for her. For it must be said that her verse for the most part is very inartistic: weak in form and sadly wordy. Every word is gracious, but there are so many of them! A great deal of her verse is only serious doggerel, and has no poetic quality. She evidently wrote it as easily and as carelessly as one talks; it is, in truth, simply rapid talking to herself, and, just because it is so, it is a singularly interesting reflection of her mind. But this little "comedy"—"une Comédie jouée au Mont de Marsan, le jour de caresme prenant mil cinq cens quarante sept, a quatre personnages, c'est assavoir la Mondainne, la Superstitieuse, la Sage et la Raine de l'amour de Dieu, bergère"—this little "morality" has great charm. The four lovely women who circle about one another, with mutually clasping and unclasping hands—La Mondainne, who loves her body, and asks to be asked why, and says why in the sweetest manner; La Superstitieuse, who is going on a holy pilgrimage; La Sage, who knows that man is both body and soul; and La Raine de Dieu, a shepherdess who feels

"Qui vit d'amour a bien le cueur joieulx"

—these fair figures, and their courteous and pretty and wise and high sayings, take the heart captive. M. Lefranc has noted that Margaret inclined to make use of the form of dialogue, and remarks with discernment that this form was better fitted than any other to show forth all the "nuances" of her thought (and, it may be added, the many sides of her thought), and, also, to save any necessity of formulating explicit personal conclusions regarding the subjects of universal interest she treats. This may be observed in the 'Heptameron,' where the conversations are far more interesting and important than the stories to which they serve as prologues and epilogues.

But the longest and most important poem in this volume—175 pages long—is a narrative entitled "Les Prisons de la Reine de Navarre," in which phrase the "de" may be taken to mean not "the work of," but strictly "of," the prisons in which had been imprisoned the Queen of Navarre—"My Prisons," as she herself thought of them. It is not material prisons of which she writes—she was never literally a prisoner; but, perhaps because the imprisonments of others had throughout her life been a cause of anguish to her, she is apt to use the figure of spiritual prisons. For example, in a letter to her nephew Henri II., written just after the death of the King, her brother, she speaks of her many sufferings:

"Sans riens compter maladie et ennuys
Les jours mauvais et les fascheuses nuictz
De moy, des miens voiages et prisons,
Pertes, regrectz, crainctes et trahisons."

In more than one passage of the poem now spoken of is the sentiment expressed with ardor, "Ubi spiritus, ibi libertas," and it may be mentioned, in passing, as an interesting little fact, that this motto is worked on several pieces of tapestry executed by Margaret herself (who had pleasure always in this sort of work, and did much of it), and is especially to be remarked on a dais of black velvet and crimson satin which belonged to her, and was very probably made by her own hands. This piece of work is called in several 16th-century inventories of the Château de Pau (where apparently it is still in existence) the "Dais des Prisons rompus," which gives it a close connection with this poem, and is a confirmation of the poem's authenticity which it is surprising that M. Lefranc does not point out.

The story she tells here is of three prisons successively dwelt in by her—three delightful prisons, in each of which she was perfectly happy—the prison of Earthly Love; that of Ambition, Riches, and Pleasure, or, in general terms, of Worldliness; and the prison of Science—that is, of Earthly Knowledge. From each of these prisons in turn she is delivered by the Grace of God, and each of them in turn becomes not hateful to her—never that—but something inferior to the liberty, the perfect liberty, she at last attains in the Love of God. The details, too numerous to be here entered upon, are often of great interest, especially in the portion describing her rapturous enjoyment of Learning, which is all fragrant with the fresh breezes of the Renaissance. The whole poem is a Renaissance rendering—the Renaissance checkered with the Reformation—of the subject-matter of Tennyson's "Palace of Art," and in conception it is more subtle, more profound, and far more sincere than the modern poet's picturing of the dealings of the Divine Spirit with the Human Soul. Not musical in sound, it is singularly musical in thought—that is, its "motives" are music-like in their vague yet piercing suggestiveness.

It is addressed, almost unquestionably, to her second husband, Henri d'Albret, though under the disguise of a man addressing a woman. This disguise Margaret often adopted, and it was more permissible in her day than in ours, when a width of intellectual scope is granted to women such as Margaret could not claim without apparent presumption. Another reason, also, probably influenced her in this instance. Her first prison of Earthly Love she describes as of her own creation, the walls made impassable and the bolts and bars riveted for his sake whom trustworthy eyewitnesses of her life say she loved at first with tender passion, as was her nature, and treated to the last with admirable respect, through all the sad twenty years of their union, though he (eleven years, alas! her junior) showed her constant disregard and unkindness. From the beginning, probably, the one who was loved was the man, the one who loved was the woman, and till the world recognizes that this is great Nature's will, there must be something of mortification for the woman in this relation, and Margaret's assumption here of a man's dress is easily explicable.

In the closest possible spiritual connection with this first "prison" is another poem of twenty-one "dixains," "Les Adieux"; her adieus to all the dear delightfulnesses of her love. She speaks now in her own person, uttering such poignant grief with such magnanimous sweetness and noble tenderness that these pages are certainly among the most touching ever written by a woman. Among the other "poésies" of this volume is a long dialogue between the Queen and her dead brother, and a "comedy" on his death, "sur le trespas du Roy." The last words of the "comedy," sung by all the personages, "Si bona suscepimus de manu Domini, mala autem quare non sustineamus, sicut Domino placuit? Ita factum est. Sit nomen Dei benedictum"—these words are echoed from every page of the Queen's writings. And, such being the case, the mysticism, the obscurity in which she often veils her lofty aspirations, is of small consequence to those who care for her chiefly as a peculiarly womanly woman. Those who care for her as a *thinker* (M. Lefranc, for example) must needs pull the cloth hard—so hard that it almost or quite cracks. To speak of "the splendor of her intellect," as some of her editors are pleased to do, is as unfitting as to talk of "the splendor of her beauty," as they also do. Her plain face, where the vigor of the great Valois nose was blended, in her youth, with the timidity of her small eyes, and, in her age, with the kindliness of her mobile mouth, charmed by its expressiveness, and was in harmony with the Bearnais costume, almost the dress of a widow, which she always wore, even at Court, after the death of her only son. In like manner, the charm of her verses, robed in their quaint phraseology, is largely a matter of sentiment; their value is dependent on the reader. A somewhat intimate knowledge of her life is needed to place one in sympathetic relation with them. There are scarcely a dozen pages which, from their own merits, reward attention and deserve permanence. Her verses are as mortal as herself, for they are herself. In comparing her effusions with those of George Herbert, with whom she had much in common, one recognizes what "the Elizabethan age" did for its minor poets. Margaret was trained in the school of Marot. Traces of her reading appear in this volume, as in her other works, especially of her studies of Plato and Dante. She refers by name to Dante, and a fine passage of the "Prisons," the meeting of the traveller among supernal things with "un vieillart" is a (perhaps unconscious) copy of the "veglio solo" of the first canto of the "Purgatorio."

One becomes almost as prolix as herself in writing of her; it is because, as M. Félix Frank has well said, "she was one of those rare beings who are loved in death through the mists of ages."

My Confidences: An Autobiographical Sketch Addressed to My Descendants. By Frederick Locker-Lampson. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

To a certain extent this book disarms criticism. It is not, we are told, intended as a contribution to literature, but simply to preserve for the writer's own descendants such little notices and anecdotes of two or three of their progenitors as will probably be interesting to them, if not to the public; and if they are printed in a volume, instead of being left in manuscript, it is because this is the only way to assure their preservation. He even doubts whether the present inheritors of the name will care much about them, but projects his vision into a dim future when, to some remote descendant of an antiquarian turn, they may be precious fragments of salvage. This is a quite intelligible feeling. If the present writer possessed an authentic record to the effect that an ancestor of his own once saw Ben Jonson at the Mermaid, and heard him say, in his big voice, "Drawer, more sack," he would be immensely proud of the fact, and would be pained to think that it could ever be totally forgotten.

Mr. Locker came of a family respectable rather than distinguished—London men of business, with some literary tastes. His grandfather entered the navy, rose in the service, at one time had both Nelson and Collingwood under his command, and seems to have been one of the best specimens of that lost type, the old sea-captain. Mr. Locker's father was attached to the navy in a civil capacity, and an interest-

ing letter from him is here given, describing an interview with Napoleon at Elba. His wife was a daughter of the Rev. Jonathan Boucher, a distinguished divine, and a rather conspicuous figure in Maryland colonial history. Mr. Boucher was eminent not only for piety, learning, and eloquence, but for his undaunted and uncompromising loyalism. His last sermon was preached at Annapolis, when Revolutionary passion was wildest, and with a pair of pistols lying on the desk, and concluded with a defiant "God save the King!"

Mr. Locker himself was born at Greenwich Hospital, of which his father was a resident commissioner, in 1821. His parents intended him for a professional career, but the boy, though a good cricketer, and with rather a knack of turning off English verses, could never take kindly to Latin; so that scheme had to be given up, and a clerkship was obtained for him in the Admiralty. Here it was that he made his first public venture in poetry with 'London Lyrics,' light, easy, and graceful pieces, which are still pleasantly remembered, and deserve to be. These brought him to the notice of Thackeray, who asked him to write for the *Cornhill*. His marriage, in 1850, to Lady Charlotte Bruce, a great favorite at court, introduced him to very distinguished people indeed, and seems to have wrought an improvement in his fortunes, as the Admiralty drops out of sight, and we find him travelling like a man of leisure, wintering in Italy, and collecting rare majolica and *editiones principes*, to say nothing of paying £100 for a missing leaf of the First Folio. Even early in the sixties this sort of thing took a long purse.

After the death of his wife, in 1866, followed by the mention of his remarriage (to Miss Lampson) in 1874, the book loses much of its autobiographical character, and is made up of little disconnected sketches of persons and occurrences, apparently written for separate publication at various times. The last chapter, in which he describes himself in a pleasant country home, cheerfully awaiting the end, is at once pleasing and touching; and the whole book, if a little disappointing, leaves one with a distinct image of a bright, cheery, and amiable personality.

The Story of the Indian. By George Bird Grinnell. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 270.

In this volume Mr. Grinnell has brought together his recollections of the manners and customs, religion, etc., of certain tribes with which he seems to have lived. His object, so we are told, was "to give only a general view of Indian life"; and if, in carrying out this plan, he has found it necessary to descend into particulars (as, *e. g.*, when describing scenes he has witnessed and repeating stories he has heard), it is because "the concrete example conveys a clearer idea of an event than an abstract statement, and because the story of the Indian should not be told wholly from the point of view of a race alien in thought, feeling, and culture." To this explanation of his purpose and of his proposed manner of work there can be no objection. In fact, the knowledge which long association with the Indians has given him of their character, has enabled him to prepare an account which differs, in certain respects, from the usually received ideas, but which may, perhaps for this very reason, help us to understand the methods of thought and lines of conduct that characterize our red neighbors.

Take, for instance, what is said of their ideas of marriage and about the position of woman among them. Instead of being the drudge and slave she is sometimes painted, we find that she occupied a well-defined and "respectable" position, and that not only was she consulted upon household and family matters, but that (p. 107), upon occasion, she was called into the tribal council and her opinions asked. Unquestionably, her life was hard and full of toil, and so, for that matter, in early times, was the life on the frontier of her white sister; but, in spite of certain drawbacks, she seems to have found time (pp. 26, 46, etc.) to gossip, dance, and gamble, and, on the whole, she managed (p. 47) to get a good deal of pleasure in life. Even in her marriage, the presents (p. 40) which passed between the parents of the contracting parties, and which are usually spoken of as the price paid for the woman, sometimes found their way back to the newly wedded pair. Evidently, in a case of this kind, there was no question of bargain and sale. It was simply another, and, so far as etiquette required the presents to be of equal value, an ingenious, way of increasing the dowry with which the young people began housekeeping. But even if this were not so and the marriage was a virtual sale on the part of the woman's father, as it sometimes was, there was a foundation of common sense in the Indian's view of the matter. "Marry a man who is willing to give something for you," said an Omaha mother to her daughter; and whether we regard this gift as a measure of the woman's value or of the man's love, it is, perhaps, as satisfactory a test as are the protestations that often, under similar circumstances, pass current with us.

In the matter of religion the account is not so clear. As well as we can gather from our author's somewhat incongruous statements, the Indian's pantheon was inhabited by an indefinite number of gods, or rather supernatural agencies, of different degrees of power. They were neither uniformly good nor bad, but sometimes one and sometimes the other; and they could be placated by prayers and sacrifices. All nature was alive with them; and every Indian had some such power—medicine, it is generally called—to watch over and protect him. Thus far all is plain sailing, and, as it agrees with what we know of Indian ideas, we accept it. But when we are told (p. 202) that before the Pawnees had been greatly changed by contact with civilization, they regarded *Atius Tirawa*—the head of their supernatural hierarchy—"as an intangible spirit, omnipotent and beneficent," we respectfully call a halt, for the reason that ideas like these belong to a phase of development in advance of that which the Indian had reached. With all due respect, we prefer, on this point, to follow Dunbar, who tells us (in his sketch of the Pawnees), that "it was very doubtful whether their conception of Ti-ra-wa could be rightfully called a conception of a spiritual being at all. It was rather an indistinct being with certain human attributes indefinitely magnified." "All success," we are furthermore told, "was regarded as an expression of his favor, and all disappointment or failure as a betokening of his disapprobation. He was changeable like themselves"; and although "stoutly affirming that they loved him a great deal, yet they evidently feared him," which they would hardly have done if he had been looked upon as a purely beneficent being.

Naturally enough, in a volume consisting in part, as this does, of "many memories" of different tribes, slips and incongruities are almost inevitable. Accordingly, we are not surprised to find not only that there is an occasional clash between certain "general views," but that there is also, at times, a flat contradiction between some particular general view and its concrete example. Take, for instance, the statement (p. 54) that the buffalo must have been well-nigh invulnerable to the stone-headed arrow, and it cannot be reconciled with what we are told (p. 152) of the power of the bow in old times. Moreover, it does not agree with what Cabeza de Vaca and others tell us of the trade in buffalo robes, which, in early times, the Indians of the plains carried on with their neighbors. So, too, the struggle for existence, severe as it may have been in certain quarters (pp. 53, 56), can hardly have been general if the Southeastern tribes (p. 248) "found little or no difficulty in supporting life." Of the same character and even more objectionable is the assertion (p. 125) that, within the historic epoch, the Indians, in war, killed "women and children as gladly as men," etc. The statement is general, and yet not only is it not true of certain tribes east of the Mississippi, but on p. 139 we are told that the Piegans, in a skirmish with the Crows and Gros Ventres, in which they were victorious, killed the men but took the women and boys prisoners, and, we may add, adopted them.

These instances (and there are others of the same sort) indicate the character of the conclusions to which we object; and our purpose in calling attention to them is not so much to criticise this particular volume as it is to sound a note of warning against the danger of indulging in generalities. Like ourselves, the Indians, considered either as individuals or in their tribal capacities, differed in many respects; and while these differences were of degree rather than kind, yet it would be difficult to give expression, save in the broadest possible terms, to a formula that would include all of them. Thus, while it is probably safe to say that there was but one phase of civilization from the St. Lawrence to Panama, yet if called upon to depict the constituent elements of this civilization in phraseology that would apply to tribes differing as widely as did the Iroquois and the Aztecs, we should find it as impossible as it would be to represent home life in Fifth Avenue and at the Five Points on one and the same canvas.

The History of the Australasian Colonies. By Edward Jenks. [Cambridge Historical Series] Macmillan. 1895.

As Prof. Jenks remarks in the opening sentence of his preface, "No sane person would attempt to write a complete history of Australasia in 300 pages." Within the limits that he has assigned himself his own work is admirable. It is clear, condensed to a necessary if almost fatiguing extent, thoughtful, unprejudiced, and characterized by a refreshing absence of rhetoric. We have set before us in a brief form the circumstances of the foundation of each of the Australasian colonies, with the difficulties it had to contend against, and the story of how they were successfully overcome till present prosperity was reached. If we find it hard to remember distinctly all that we read, the fault lies not so much with the author as with the necessity he was under of telling many things in a small space, and also with a certain sameness in several of the facts that he relates. Concise as he is, his last chapter, that on "Present Day Questions," is the only one that strikes us as inadequate, and here he has obviously retrenched, owing to "limits of space, already somewhat exceeded."

The histories of the different Australasian colonies have been in the main similar and not startlingly eventful. The first stage was usually military rule, penal settlements, and a small free population which for a time did not raise its own means of subsistence. Soon the number of immigrants increased, as they became self-supporting, then prosperous; while some governors greatly helped, others rather retarded progress. After a time, colonists were appointed to the Legislative Councils, which were given a certain authority; later, they were elected to these councils, and finally granted their present nearly complete self-government. Among the most important dates of this development are 1788, when the colony of New South Wales was founded; 1805, the year in which the wool-growing industry began; 1851, when gold was discovered. In 1823 we find the first Australasian constitution, in 1842 the first representative one. In 1855-56 responsible government was introduced into all the colonies except West Australia, which did not get it until 1890, being also the last to be abandoned as a penal settlement (1865), and even then not by its own desire but in deference to the clamor of its neighbors. The next great step will be some sort of a federation.

In a century the progress of Australia has been most remarkable. Mr. Jenks thus comments on it and its results:

"In this colonization there has been scarcely one of the difficulties which have threatened other attempts. The colonists have (with trifling exceptions) been all of one nation. Save in New Zealand, there has been no serious native opposition to face. The mother country has poured out her treasure and her brains for the service of her favorite children. No tax has been laid upon Australian industry for the benefit of English merchants. The outflowings of a populous and a free country have provided a generous stream of vigorous immigrants. A genial climate and a fruitful soil have rewarded honest effort with a liberality which is the best incentive to further effort. . . . Therefore the immediate prosperity has been great. But it does not follow that the prosperity has been without its dangers. The success of Australian endeavors hitherto has produced a buoyancy which too often degenerates into recklessness, a generosity which is sometimes perilously akin to extravagance. The good results which, in really sterling characters, follow upon a period of struggle and adversity, have not had an opportunity of manifesting themselves in Australia. The visitor is struck with the absence of originality in the life. It is almost a reproduction of English life a few years before. Instead of stepping forward ten years, as he expects, when he lands on the shores of Australia, he seems to have slipped ten years back. The so-called originality of Australian politics amounts principally to this, that the reform party in Australia has succeeded in doing what the reform party in England has only tried to do. There are few new ideas; the colonists have brought a fairly complete stock of ideas with them, and they have seen no reason to change them."

One point that we must be careful not to forget is the difference between New Zealand and her sisters; a difference in climate and in natural features, as well as in the character and number of the natives with whom the settlers have had to deal; therefore "the development of New Zealand has been at a slower rate than that of Australia, though on much the same lines. But even this difference is a factor of vast importance, for a different rate of development produces a different character of development."

Another fact is especially deserving of attention: British colonies, in distinction from those of other countries, are popularly supposed to be due almost entirely to unrestricted private enterprise. The history of Australia does not help to confirm this view. "New South Wales, with the costs of transport, assistance to free emigrants, provision against famine, salaries of civil and military officials, expense of public works, and other items, is reputed to have cost the mother country, in the first thirty-four years of its existence, no less than ten millions sterling." In return, the squatter was not allowed to appropriate the spot on which he settled. "The Crown quietly assumed the ownership of Australian land; and the assumption stood the strain, not merely of the rush for sheep pastures, but, which is far more wonderful, of the rush for gold. The advanced guard of the exploring colonists might burst into country never trodden by the foot of white man; but they could claim no acre of it except through the grant of the Crown." As for paternal care and legislation,

"at first the whole community lived upon Government rations. The Government supplied seeds and tools for the farm, and took all the settlers' produce at a fixed price. Often it engaged in farming operations on its own account. Medicine and clothing were dispensed from the Government offices. All the public works were undertaken on the initiative and carried out under the supervision of the Government. This state of things lasted at least until Macarthur showed what could be done by individual enterprise; and there is little doubt that it has given a powerful impulse to what is now called the State Socialism of the colonies. When the colonists took the administration into their own hands, they found a Government machinery capable of being used for all kinds of economic purposes, and a community long accustomed to look to Government for help and direction in economic enterprise."

A Handbook of British Lepidoptera. By Edward Meyrick, B.A., F.L.S., F.E.S., Assistant Master at Marlborough College. Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo, pp. 844, numerous figures.

THIS volume will be a surprise to the many in this country who have known of the author only as an earnest and successful worker in the lower families of the Lepidoptera. It is by far the best work of the kind, in its comprehensiveness and completeness, that has been given to the public. Stainton's 'Manual of the British Butterflies and Moths,' which has been a standard for nearly forty years, will be, to a great extent, superseded by it. The amount of information that has been condensed into this handbook (it can be held in the hand without the slightest fatigue) is marvellous. By its aid, any student of British Lepidoptera will be able to name his specimens with accuracy, to learn of their structure and be directed in their classification. The descriptive text of each one of the two thousand and sixty-one species, through a rigid system of abbreviation, has been limited to an average of a half-dozen lines, followed in most instances by a description of the larvæ in three or four lines, the time of their appearance, and the habitat, in all cases indicating such as occur in North America. Analytical keys lead readily to the larger groups, to families, to genera, and to species. Keys so complete have rarely, if ever, been given. The illustrations of venation and other structural characters of many of the genera have been drawn from the author's personal observations. An introductory chapter, treating of structure, classification, etc., is especially satisfactory.

A marked feature of this volume is the new classification, now for the first time published in its entirety, based on the author's study for years of the Lepidoptera of the world. To those of us who have not, during the last few years, been watching closely the forces at work in systematic entomology, particularly among the Lepidoptera, in their upheavals, disintegration, and reconstruction, it is rather startling to be asked to ignore the long familiar division of the Lepidoptera into "Butterflies" and "Moths"; to find the butterflies, as "Papilionidæ," flanked on each side in the middle of a volume, by moths, and next to the Pyralids—the Geometridæ, Sphingidæ, Saturniadæ, and the Notodontidæ, with others, grouped into a superfamily of "Notodontina"—the Ægeridæ among the "Tineina"—the stout-bodied Cossus of nearly three inches expanse of wings among the diminutive "Tortricina"; and, finally, to learn that the Lepidoptera, in all their beauty, variety, and seeming high rank, have their origin in the low, degraded, case-inhabiting aquatic larva of a caddis-fly. But all these incongruities and surprises must be accepted if it be admitted that a natural classification is preferable to an artificial one. A system would be natural if based on resemblances of allied genera and species resulting from community of descent, leading upward from the oldest to the latest developed. Mr. Meyrick holds that, beyond any doubt, the peculiar venation and other structural features of the wings of the Micropterygidæ—a small family of minute moths—show them to be the ancestral group of the Lepidoptera. According to three laws of control in the development of new organs or their subsequent loss, lines of descent have been worked out and indicated in diagrams showing the phylogeny of nine superfamilies (terminating in *ina*) in which the order of Lepidoptera is divided in this volume. In each of these, the phylogeny of the several families (ending in *idæ*) is similarly given. In tabulating the genera, their ordinal arrangement indicates the lines of descent, number one being the latest developed.

It will be seen from the above that the classification adopted is in accordance with the views advanced in Darwin's 'Origin of Species.' It has evidently been carefully elaborated by the author, beyond that presented by any other writer, and, unless it shall be shown faulty in any particulars, it will in all probability be generally accepted by American systematists. From the intimate relationship of the Lepidoptera of the United States to those of Great Britain—a number of species being common to the two countries and many others differing only by minute characters—this volume will be almost indispensable to American students of lepidopterology.

The Coming Individualism. By A. Egmont Hake and O. E. Wesslau. Macmillan & Co. 1895.

WHAT the coming individualism may be is not easy to determine from a perusal of this book; but the indications are that it must be something disagreeable. Such a farrago of querulous protests, of indiscriminate censure, and of unsupported assertions as we have here is not often encountered, and any reforms that are calculated to confer upon these joint authors greater liberty than they now enjoy should be accepted with a good deal of hesitation. The reader is moved by the same sort of exasperation that is felt at the misbehavior of a spoiled child, and becomes strong in his belief in the saving efficacy of corporal punishment and personal restraint. More's the pity, for protests against "collectivism" are badly needed in England, and it would be a matter of no great

difficulty to make them effective; but so long as reformers persist in making reform odious by means of intemperate language and ill-considered assertions, so long will they fail to add to their numbers.

Yet whoever has patience with the mannerisms, or ill-mannerisms, of this composite authorship will find that it has reason on its side. The "Factory Acts" of England are the objects of a socialistic faith that amounts to fanaticism, and are constantly appealed to as demonstrating the necessity of restraining individual liberty by the state. As a matter of fact, the prosperity of the working classes of England was caused by free trade and not by restriction, and improved conditions of labor would inevitably have come if there had been no factory acts. So far as these acts were unquestionably beneficial, they did not restrain liberty, but overthrew a monstrous form of slavery—the apprenticing of pauper orphans to mill-owners. So far as they interfered with liberty, they were sturdily opposed by John Bright, and, until his character can be destroyed, the policy of the factory acts will require argument as well as dogmatic assertion to establish its wisdom.

One of the most amusing instances of the working of the protective measures which are creeping into English policy under the influence of the socialistic craze is afforded by the Merchandise Marks Act. The theory of this act was that the English would buy more English goods and less of foreign manufacture if they knew their origin, and hence it was prescribed that all foreign goods dealt in by English traders should be branded with the name of the country where they were made. The result was that the foreign customers of English merchants had their attention called to the fact that many of the goods which they bought were made in Germany and other countries, and it naturally occurred to them to dispense with the English middleman and to order directly from the foreign manufacturer, with whose existence the English Parliament had been at pains to acquaint them. At present the German manufacturers not only are securing this trade, but are actually ordering goods from English makers upon the superior qualities of which they have German names and addresses marked, while the poorer stuff is sent under the English brand. Such, at least, is the statement put forth in this book; but there are more sides than one to such a question.

Nothing seems more unlikely than that the English should change either their system of dealing with the traffic in strong drink or their banking laws, but these writers are not daunted by such considerations; nor is it wholly vain to protest against the most inveterate abuses, for only in this way can they be prevented from increasing. While we may not be convinced that the abolition of the monopoly of the Bank of England is desirable, it is well to be reminded of the objections that may be fairly raised against it, and in this country we evidently need to consider the subject from every point of view. We might say the same of the drink traffic, but it must be confessed that the wisdom of the policy of loading this business with all manner of burdens is firmly established in the minds of most people.

Altogether, this book will probably impress the reader with the idea that its authors are hopelessly wrong-headed; but, for all that, it may not be wholly unprofitable reading.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, C. C. Notes of the Night, and Other Outdoor Sketches. Century Co. $1.50.
Alexander, Mrs. A Winning Hazard. Appletons.
Ancon, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part II. The Crown. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Ayres, Alfred. The Verbalist. New and revised ed. Appletons.
Balzac, H. de. The Unknown Masterpiece, and Other Stories. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Barnes, James. For King or Country: A Story of the American Revolution. Harpers. $1.50.
Bartlett, Rev. E. T. The English Bible in American Eloquence. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Bastian, A. Die Denkschöpfung umgebender Welt aus kosmogonischen Vorstellung in Cultur und Uncultur. Berlin: F. Dümmler.
Beecher, Rev. Charles. Patmos: or, The Unveiling. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Birkmire, W. H. The Planning and Construction of American Theatres. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Blair, T. S. Human Progress. W. R. Jenkins. $1.50.
Blaisdell, A. F. Southey's Life of Nelson. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50c.
Bliss, W. R. Quaint Nantucket. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Boudinot, J. J. The Life, Public Services, Addresses, and Letters of Elias Boudinot, President of the Continental Congress. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Brachet, Auguste. A Historical Grammar of the French Language. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Bright, Prof. William. The Roman See in the Early Church, and Other Studies in Church History. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Broadfoot, Major W. Billiards. [Badminton Library.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Brodbeck, Adolph. The Ideal of Universities. New York: Metaphysical Publishing Co. $1.50.
Brown, Alice. By Oak and Thorn: A Record of English Days. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Buchanan, Robert. Effie Hetherington. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Budge, E. A. W. The Life and Exploits of Alexander the Great. London: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $6.
Bumstead, S. J. The Peacemaker of Bourbon. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Carleton, William. Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry. Second Series. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Carroll, Rev. H. K. The Religious Forces of the United States. Revised ed. Christian Literature Co. $3.
Chalmers, James. The Sketch-Book. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Chambers, R. W. A King and a Few Dukes. Putnams. $1.25.
Chanler, W. A. Through Jungle and Desert: Travels in Eastern Africa. Macmillan. $5.
Chanter, Gratiana. The Witch of Withyford: A Story of Exmoor. Macmillan. 75c.
Chapple, J. M. The Minor Chord. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Chevrillon, André. In India. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Clinghan, Clarice I. That Girl from Bogota. Home Publishing Co.
Cory, C. B. Hunting and Fishing in Florida. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Crocker, Prof. F. B. Electric Lighting: A Practical Exposition of the Art. Vol. I. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3.
Cuthbertson, Clive. A Sketch of the Currency Question. London: Effingham Wilson.
Dale, Alan. Queens of the Stage. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 21, 1896.

The Week.

McKinley has not yet spoken, and it is the opinion of all his managers that he need not speak. One of them, Mr. Kohlsaat of Chicago, says: "Why should he speak? He has 600 delegates, and will be nominated before the end of the first ballot." What more do you want than that? When you ask if he is a silver-man or a gold-man, and are told that he is "sure to be nominated," is not that sufficient? The *Tribune* says the efforts to make him speak are "calumnies," that's what they are. When you quote a man's record to show that he has voted for free silver coinage, that he not only has allied himself regularly for years with the silvermen, but has stood on the floor of the House and denounced President Cleveland for using the whole power of his office to maintain the credit of the Government, and you use these quotations as evidence that such a man cannot safely be elected President unless he shall first say squarely whether he is for the gold standard or not, you are dealing in "calumnies." Why should he speak? says Kohlsaat, and all the McKinley organs echo that question, but not one of them ventures to answer another and far more pertinent question, Why should he not speak?

The answer to this is furnished in some information which the *World* has collected from the silver section. McKinley's chief supporter in Nevada, when asked to say if the delegates from that State are supporting McKinley because they consider him a "friend of silver," replies that the delegates "are earnest advocates of McKinley unless some more pronounced friend of silver can be nominated," and says their partiality for McKinley "is wholly based on his record in Congress on the financial question; though not so pronounced a friend of silver as is desirable, he is held to be acceptable as a compromise; it is not generally believed that he would veto any silver bill." In Idaho, support of him is based on the belief that "if nominated and elected he would do the cause of silver less harm than any other candidate." Mr. Myron A. McCord, who is leading the McKinley forces in Arizona, says: "I regard McKinley as the man most favorable to silver of all the candidates thus far named. His record shows it." The editor of the McKinley organ in Arizona says: "McKinley I believe to be the most favorably disposed towards free silver and Western sentiment of all the candidates." These answers are far more to the point than Mr. Kohlsaat's question, "Why should he speak?" for they answer the other question, Why should he not speak? He would lose some of those 600 delegates if he were to declare that he is the friend of gold rather than of silver. That is why it is "calumny" to ask him to speak now.

As Speaker Reed's prospects for the Presidency grow dim his wit grows bright. "Advance Agent of Prosperity!" he said to a newspaper man the other day. "When I was a boy, the advance agent of the circus would go through the country and cover the sides of the barns and the fences with the most gorgeous posters of what the circus would be." Then he pictured the procession of knights in armor and ladies in silk attire, mounted on Arabian steeds, and followed by elephants, lions, tigers, and other wild beasts in a high state of natural fury. When the circus actually came, it usually consisted of a few persons riding horseback in the usual country style, one drowsy elephant, and a few weather-stained boxes mounted on wheels and supposed to contain wild animals. "It never came up to the showbills," he added, "but there was always at least one first-class acrobat who could ride two horses at once." If Mr. Reed did not say this, it was nevertheless what he was justified in saying. The McKinley canvass has been a country-circus advertising dodge from the start. It has drawn the wondering admiration of all the undersized intellects in the country, and has been discussed by them in a practical way by the turning of handsprings and the riding of horses in all attitudes except the right one; and the movement is still going on. The "first-class acrobat riding two horses at once" has been the principal figure on the posters all the time. What a pity that Speaker Reed himself invested this acrobat with the tinsel that now makes him such a glittering attraction to all the small boys of the countryside.

Senator Teller's victory in Colorado is as sweeping as it is unique. He secured not only a tremendous endorsement in the platform for himself and his ideas, but a delegation, handed over to him ostentatiously as his personal property. The others are instructed to "act in harmony with the views of the Hon. Henry M. Teller." Why men instead of dummies should have been chosen for this purpose, it is hard to see. Even the "compliment" of an election as delegate must seem more than usually dubious under such circumstances. Such open action by a State convention is unparalleled. So also is the attitude in which Senator Teller will enter the convention. He is solemnly bound to refuse to abide by its decisions unless it decides in a way which he and everybody knows in advance to be impossible. That is to say, he will go to St. Louis as an announced bolter, and yet demand a share in the deliberations of the convention. This will present a puzzling question to the convention casuists. There are some delegates whose "regularity" cannot be disputed. Yet they are regularly elected for the express purpose of thwarting and defying the convention and bolting it. This difficulty goes far deeper than a mere question of candidates—far deeper than the controversy which Conkling precipitated and which he and Garfield fought out in the convention of 1880.

A dealer in railroad bonds sends us the following extract from a letter written by his London correspondent:

> "When the Venezuela dispute is settled, and gold-standard candidates of both your great parties are nominated, there will be unprecedented sales of American securities in the autumn; history has no record of such a plethora of money as in this city at present waiting for investment."

Probably every man who has business correspondence with London or with any part of Europe has received similar letters. Indeed, the writer of the foregoing extract has merely stated as a fact, without assigning reasons, what M. Leroy Beaulieu said at greater length in the *Forum* magazine not long since—that the Old World is gorged with capital seeking investment, and would gladly send it to the United States if assured that the gold standard would be maintained and that the Government would retire from the banking business. Some people think that we do not need foreign capital. Others say that if we had free coinage of silver, we should have enough money of our own, as though silver bullion grew on trees and it was only necessary to pluck it off and make it legal tender, in order to make everybody rich. This is one of the most widespread fallacies of the day. It keeps company with the notion that silver is deprived of an inalienable right when it is denied admission to the mint, and that the admission of gold to the mint while silver is excluded, is an act of partiality and favoritism contrary to the principles of free government and the Constitution of the United States.

It will probably be a long time before these misconceptions are wholly uprooted, but it ought not to require much time or effort to convince people that an influx of foreign capital would be for the benefit of everybody, and especially for that of the borrowing class and the wage-workers. Borrowers are interested in getting money at the lowest rates, and these are to be obtained by the abundance of capital in the loan market. To wage-workers

an abundance of capital means plentiful employment. That "Industry is limited by capital" is one of the maxims of political economy. It means that industry cannot exceed the limits fixed by the food, clothing, implements, and materials existing at any time for the support of labor during the period of production. If anybody thinks that industry can go beyond this limit, let him try and see how long he can work without eating and how much he can produce without other tools than his own hands. *A fortiori*, the more food, tools, and materials we have, up to the point of absolute saturation, the more employment there will be for labor. Consequently, anything which removes a barrier to the introduction of foreign capital is a boon to the working class and to the borrowing classes. One such barrier, and the principal one, is the doubt still surrounding the silver question.

A movement has been started by a number of shipbuilders on the Atlantic Coast to get the two leading parties to favor the policy of "discriminating duties." These people are not satisfied with the absolute prohibition of foreign-built ships from American ownership, but they want a higher rate of duty placed on goods imported in American ships than in foreign ones. Since successful shipping requires cargoes both ways—exports as well as imports—it follows that if foreign countries should adopt the discriminating policy, the American ships would make their outward voyages in ballast. As this would be the condition of the foreigners in respect of the inward voyages, there would be no gain, on the whole, to the American shipowner, but a loss to both consumers and producers. The petitioning shipbuilders say that all that they want is just enough discrimination "to create a *preference* for American ships, in order to give them the carriage of American commerce." What is American commerce? It is the sum total of our imports and exports. Of course, we can give bounties from the public treasury to the carriers of the outward-bound cargoes, but we cannot give any preference as to such cargoes by discriminating duties. Only the foreign governments can do that, and they would be very likely to retaliate. In any view of the case, discriminating duties are a fraud on the public, and they ought not to be tolerated or even considered by the national Democratic convention, which the shipbuilders are principally trying to influence, any more than a new tariff on wool.

The Bar Association of the State of Michigan adopted resolutions the other day in favor of a permanent court of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between nations of the English-speaking race, and decided also to organize a propaganda to push the movement until it should be carried into effect. A committee was appointed by the arbitration conference at Washington to continue the work, and this committee,we understand, is now actively engaged in the duties assigned to it. Hardly anybody can be found who is opposed to the project; even those who think that it is impracticable say that they would favor it if a safe and sure way could be found to carry it into effect. The most gratifying response was given by President Cleveland to the committee which presented to him the action of the Washington conference. Everything seems so favorable to the movement that nothing can prevent its success except mere inertia and the common belief that it will now go of itself. Unfortunately, no good cause ever goes without pushing. The action of the Bar Association at Grand Rapids should be imitated in every State in the Union.

Congressman Fowler of New Jersey made a very pointed address the other day to the committee on banking and currency, of which he is a member. This committee consists of fifteen of the ablest men in the House, yet they cannot agree about any thorough-going measure of currency reform, although they have reported some small amendments of the national banking act. The reason why they are "all at sea" is that the country itself is in the same predicament. Mr. Fowler is a believer in what is called a credit currency as distinguished from a secured currency. Yet he hits the nail on the head when he says: "To suppose that the people of the United States will give up a secured currency in a day, a week, a year, or a decade even, for a credit currency is a most violent presumption, even if such a thing were sound in principle." With this conservatism is mingled a great deal of ignorance, for in no country, past or present, have the masses of the people ever been able to grasp the principles of finance or form any sound opinions thereon. Mr. Fowler proceeded to discuss the old Suffolk Bank system of New England and the present systems of Canada, Scotland, France, and other countries where an elastic credit currency prevails. The usual answer to arguments based upon the experience of other countries is that a credit currency may work well in other parts of the world, but would not do for us. This Mr. Fowler rightly considers an impeachment of our civilization and a declaration that we are unfit for self-government and self-control. "Would any man seriously contend," he asks, "that the president, cashier, or board of directors of a bank would be more foolish in loaning the notes of a bank than its deposits, when circumstances will bring them to its counter for redemption with the certainty and promptness of the checks drawn against deposits?" Mr. Fowler's whole argument betrays a mind well grounded in the principles of money and banking and fully competent to give them expression.

Gov. Morton has not yet signed the bills which the Legislature passed providing for the payment of the fifty-one men whom Superintendent Aldridge appointed in the Public Works Department in defiance of law, and he may well hesitate about giving them his approval. The amount of money involved is about $30,000, and there is a practical certainty that in the end Aldridge will have to pay this out of his own pocket. He has no legal claim against the State, and there is no chance that the courts will hold that he has. He knew perfectly well what he was doing when he appointed these men. The new Constitution went into force on January 1, 1895, and on April 15 of that year the Governor and the Civil-Service Commission decided that, under its provisions, the employees in Aldridge's department must come within the civil-service regulations and be subjected, before appointment, to competitive examination. Aldridge refused to take this view, though advised by legal authority to do so, and appointed his fifty-one subordinates without examination and in defiance of the law. The Comptroller refused to pay these men, and Aldridge carried the matter into the courts. The Court of Appeals decided against him in its now famous opinion, in which it took the ground that the civil-service laws were so strongly intrenched in the Constitution that the Legislature could not reach them. Aldridge then had the Legislature pass a bill referring the question of payment to the Board of Claims. The Governor signed this, but it was discovered to be useless because contrary to the Constitution. Then Aldridge had fifty-one bills passed, providing for the payment of each employee separately, and these are now before the Governor. If he signs them, they will undoubtedly prove to be futile, for the Comptroller will refuse payment again, and the courts must sustain their former ruling.

The tributes paid by various city officials and the press to the late Deputy-Comptroller Storrs are no doubt just and deserved. He appears to have been a most valuable public servant, assiduous, trusty, and a complete master of all the matters falling within his province, and of many lying outside it. So indispensable had he made himself by his knowledge that his tenure of office was made secure by the sheer dread, on the part of his superior officers, of what might happen to the city's business without him. But we think that Comptroller Fitch and other zealous guardians of the American, as distinguished from the Chinese, system of appointment to office should not have failed to point to Mr. Storrs as a warning example of that terror of all true patriots —an "aristocracy of office-holders." A man steadily in office for forty years must surely have become arrogant, lazy, igno-

rant, and careless. We say he must have become so, because we all know that permanency of tenure inevitably results in those evils, and we are really incredulous to hear Mr. Fitch testifying that the late Mr. Storrs was extraordinarily industrious, and courteous and painstaking to a degree. This seems to us a dangerous admission. Simple-minded people will be led to ask why it would not be a good thing for all public officers to be kept in their positions, instead of being turned out just as they begin to understand their duties. We cannot too carefully guard against such insidious undermining of our institutions.

The governmental difficulties into which the Cuban war is plunging Spain are imperfectly appreciated in this country. In Prime Minister Cánovas's cushion the financial thorn is undoubtedly the sharpest. The war is costing $6,000,000 a month; upwards of $80,000,000 will have been spent by August. Gen. Weyler holds out no hope of subduing the rebellion short of two years' time. Where is the money to be found? With Cuba all the while steadily approaching ruin, Spain's security for borrowing is impaired. So is her commerce with the island, the prosperity of her merchants and artisans depending upon it, and therefore their ability to bear increased taxation. Spain has confessed bankruptcy once within the past generation, and the Cuban war, if much prolonged, seems bound to drive her again to similar straits. Why, then, does not the Government grant Cuba home rule, or go back to the policy of Prim and renounce the island outright as a possession which, Spaniards privately admit, is now little but a source of trouble and loss to them? We suppose no party or form of government in Spain could do that and live. The sentiment of national dignity and honor seems now to attach itself chiefly to the retention of Cuba. Spain may be impoverished, but she will maintain her lofty tone to the end, like the decayed nobleman in Valdés's novel, who had but one shirt to his back, but who did not for that cease to bear himself with fierce pride. Spain, in fact, appears to be able neither to subdue Cuba nor to govern it; neither to keep the island nor to let it go.

Sir William Harcourt's attack on Cecil Rhodes in the House of Commons, followed up later in an address to his constituents, serves to show the division of sentiment in England over the complicity of the Chartered Company in the Transvaal conspiracy. On the one hand there is a widespread and keen sense of humiliation that the country should have been compromised, in the eyes of the world, by officials who acted like sordid stock-jobbers, and whose plots came so conspicuously to grief. But, on the other, there is alarm at the vast property and political interests involved in any action that might be taken to punish Rhodes and cripple the company. It is the latter feeling which ties Chamberlain's hands, and apparently commits the Government to a waiting policy. "Something must be done," cry Harcourt and Labouchere, but that only means, say the other side, that, as Lord Palmerston said was always the case when that cry is raised, you want us to do something foolish. Cecil Rhodes is unquestionably the ablest Englishman in South Africa. The development and consolidation of English rule in that region, and the building up of the great property of the Chartered Company, are due more to him than to any one else. What about the interests of the more than 14,000 shareholders in the company—more than 4,000 of them being foreigners? Have they not a right to be consulted before any action is determined upon which may ruin them? That is what is said, and it cannot be denied that there is force in it. But the indecision of the Government which way to turn is undoubtedly making political capital for the Liberals.

The Tory Parliamentary programme, as outlined by Mr. Balfour in the Commons, is shrewdly conceived. First the education bill is to be passed, and, as all the Irish members favor it, a smashing majority is expected. Then the agricultural-rating bill is to be taken up—a choice bit of confiscatory legislation, as Chamberlain described it thirteen years ago and as the *Economist* terms it now. The Liberals and the Irish will fight this bill tooth and nail, but just behind it will lie the Irish land bill, which, with some trifling amendments, all parties approve. But they cannot have it, Mr. Balfour will keep telling them, unless they stop opposing and debating the agricultural bill. Let that slip through and there will be a good chance for relieving Irish tenants; otherwise, no one knows when anything can be done for them. These are clever tactics, but the main confidence of the Tories, after all, is their great Parliamentary majority. They are as majority-mad as our own Republicans. They think they can do anything they please. After all the damaging criticisms that may be made upon their measures, they have 150 majority, and what are the Liberals going to do about it? But veteran politicians are not disturbed by this sort of talk. Sir William Harcourt told the National Liberal Club the other evening that he had seen too many majorities of his own disappear, and too many majorities of his opponents melt away, to be either very much elated by being in the majority or depressed by finding himself in the minority. A majority, he said, was very much like a fall of snow, which might possibly come, but was absolutely certain to go. So he warned the complacent Tories not to put their trust in a majority which, like so many others, was bound soon to "join the majority."

The rumor from London, fortified by the language of the Liberal organs, that the party is going formally to abandon Irish home rule because of the support given by the Irish in the House of Commons to the education bill of the Conservatives, has had a good deal more importance ascribed to it than it deserves. Since Mr. Gladstone's retirement and the defeat of his bill, home rule has been nothing but a pale ghost. The dissensions among the Irish would have finished it, even if Liberal interest in it had not been almost completely destroyed by the large majority received by the Tories after the Lords had thrown it out. A measure that is certain not to be passed in the lifetime of anybody now in politics, is not likely to remain long in sight even in a party programme. No matter what anybody says, everybody knows that home rule is dead. It needed both Gladstone and Parnell, a united Irish party, and a fiercely discontented population in Ireland, to give it any vitality. Gladstone and Parnell are both gone. In the absence of any stimulation from above, the popular demand for home rule has for the moment been appeased by the successful working of the new land laws. But its greatest enemy has been the divisions of the Irish representatives, who have been fighting like cats and dogs for two years, and giving as deplorable accounts of each other as two hostile Southern editors. This has already greatly disgusted the English public, and would have turned away the attention of all active Liberals from home rule, even if there were the remotest chance of passing such a measure within the next quarter of a century.

The retention of home rule on the Liberal programme has been for some time only nominal. It is there because it has been there, and for little other reason. As a matter of fact there is more real sympathy between the Tories and the Irish than between the Irish and the Nonconformists. The principle of authority, or leadership by somebody, finds much more favor both with the Irish and Tories than with the Liberals. Then, the Irish have never hesitated to make terms with the Conservatives when they could get anything out of them. The educational system provided by the new bill is far more important to the Irish Catholic clergy than anything, short of home rule, the Liberals are ever likely to offer. When one considers that the Tories are in power till 1902 for certain, and possibly as long again, and that they are completely independent of the Irish for their majority, the wonder is the Irish have not been even more eager than they have been to bargain with them, on the old plan of getting all they can out of the English, no matter of which party.

McKINLEY'S SILENCE.

THE question what currency the nation shall use hereafter is the most important question which has come before the American people since the war. It has only a business aspect. You may love and honor silver or gold as much as you please, you may weep in silence over "the dollar of the fathers," but when you leave your chamber and go out into the cold world with your dollar, you find that no one cares a cent about your feelings. All to whom you offer it ask you brutally, What is it worth in gold? And when you speak of gold, some cynical wretch is sure to say, What is exchange to-day? To venture in business, to start a house, to enter into a partnership or enter into any operation requiring time, it is essential you should know what the currency of your country is to be for at least five years to come. Next to this comes the question, What will Congress do about the currency as it exists to-day? If you cannot get an answer to this, the next in importance is, What will the next President do with regard to any legislation Congress may pass with a view to deteriorating the currency? If this next President should be McKinley, you have the answer to this one question already, so long as he does not change his mood. In 1890 he said, in substance, in debate, that he would not prevent Congress from deteriorating the currency if it chose, and he abused Cleveland for interposing his veto between such legislation and the country. Said this great man in debate:

"A single voice, a single man, elected to execute the laws, not to make them, commanded the majority on that side of the House to be silent, and they were silent. [Applause and laughter on the Republican side.]

"As I said a moment ago, we are after practical results. [Derisive laughter on the Democratic side of the House.] We propose to give to this country what gentlemen upon the other side of the House could not do; what you did not dare do for four years. We propose to give to the country a silver bill that will take all the silver, practically, of the United States and make it available for the uses of the people."

So we know what he would do on one question—if he does not change his mind; but whether he will change his mind nobody as yet knows, and he will not speak because if he did so he would offend so many people.

We learn from the *Tribune* that "the reticence of self-respect" is the proper and polite name for Major McKinley's refusal to answer any question touching his position on the money question. It is the more important to have a good name for this thing because of "the impression, now grown into a conviction," that McKinley "will be the Republican candidate" for the Presidency. What to call the refusal of such a person to state his opinions on the leading question of the day we never knew until now. It is to be called "reticence of self-respect." We thought that this was the name for the refusal of a private man to state his opinions. If we went into such a man's office and asked him what he thought on the currency question, we have always supposed that he would be justified not only in refusing to answer us, but in expelling us from his premises, using no more force than was necessary for the purpose; and that, when putting us out, he might observe that self-respect made his reticence necessary. But it now appears that the term is also available for the use of candidates for high office, who do not wish to let people know what they think until they are nominated, while it is still not available for small private places. If, for instance, a clerk applied for a place, and pleaded "reticence of self-respect" in support of refusal to tell who was his last employer, and what he thought about theft and forgery, he would still be dismissed as a crank; but when a man asks to be made President of the United States, he may still say that his dignity will not allow him to mention his views about the matter which most nearly concerns the people of all classes and conditions, and will be in a sense his special care in case he should be elected.

But, alas! this plea is not open to Major McKinley of Ohio. The trouble with him is that he has not been "reticent." He is "short" of self-respect, as they say in the Stock Exchange. He has spoken, and spoken profusely, on this very matter on which the people now wish to hear him. He has already declared himself what is called "a silver-man" by every means within his reach. If he now keeps silent, it is with the view of making believe, by a species of fraud, that he is not a silver-man. He wants every silver-man in the country to suppose he is a silver-man, and every gold-man to suppose he is a gold-man. We know that he wishes us to suppose that he is a silver-man because he has spoken freely on that subject; and we know he wishes us to believe him a gold-man because he would otherwise produce once more his silver reflections. Consequently his reticence comes too late.

In 1890 he called on the House in strenuous terms to pass the silver-purchase act of that year. He wanted to purchase $4,500,000 monthly to encourage silver. He condoled with Bland, "a free-silver man as we know him to be," yet powerless to pass a free-coinage bill, and compelled by the dictation of the President to sit silent. In 1891, in a speech at Toledo, O., February 12, he declared:

"During all of his [Cleveland's] years at the head of the Government he was dishonoring one of our precious metals, one of our own great products, discrediting silver and enhancing the price of gold. He endeavored even before his inauguration to office to stop the coinage of silver dollars, and afterwards, and to the end of his Administration, persistently used his power to that end. He was determined to contract the circulating medium and demonetize one of the coins of commerce, limit the volume of money among the people, make money scarce, and therefore dear. He would have increased the value of money and diminished the value of everything else—money the master, everything else the servant."

Or take this extract from a speech of his made at Findlay, O., September 27, 1894:

"The Democratic party has been in control of every branch of the Government since the 4th day of March, 1893. Its legislative branch has been in session for more than twelve months, yet it has given us no silver legislation whatever, except to strike down the Sherman law at its special session called for that purpose, and in response to the urgent recommendation of a Democratic President. The party that struck silver down, and gave it the severest blow it ever had, cannot be relied upon to give that metal honorable treatment."

In fact, he began to work and vote for silver as far back as 1877. He has been doing it steadily down to this year. There is no more confirmed and steady silver-man in the country. We do not say that he was a silver-man through fraud or selfishness. He was probably a silver-man through sheer stupidity and ignorance. He has no more idea of the laws of currency than one of his negro delegates at St. Louis will have of the higher mathematics. We are far from railing at him for this. It is not every man who understands currency, and the quality of a man's brain is fixed by the Creator. But the attempt to give the country to understand at this date that he is really not a silver but a gold-man, or a heavenly-money man, and that he is keeping silent now through dignity, and not through fear of being found out, is shocking. It is revolting. Every man in the community who has children to bring up and a moral sense of his own, ought to rise against it and bring to naught this attempt at imposture.

He ought to rise against it for two reasons. One is, that to give the sanction of the popular vote to such an attempt to allow candidates for the great place which McKinley seeks, to "lie low," no matter what their antecedents may have been, until they found out how the convention was going, would really be putting the Presidency up at auction to be bidden for by the leading knaves of the community every four years. The other is, that the particular question in the arena to-day is far too important to allow of any delay or subterfuge about it. The convention will not meet till next month; the election will not be held till November. The politicians have at last got hold of the currency of the country, and are using it as a stake in their miserable game, and mean to do so for six months, and cover the whole land with fraud and humbug. Will the business men permit this? Are they to be satisfied with the assurances of Chris Magee and Gen. Alger, when the candidate himself, the only man who knows, dares not tell his countrymen what he thinks on the most momentous question which, except the war, has been submitted to the American people since the Revolution? Will they not speak out at this crisis for frankness, for loyalty, for truth, and for honesty, as well as for the gold standard—the honest measure?

PROSPECTS OF A BOLT.

THE news from Ohio and Illinois touching the course of Democratic politics does not improve the prospect of a sound-money platform at Chicago. In Illinois the organization of the party was taken away from Senator Palmer and his friends by the "snap convention" of last year. That was an unfair and irregular proceeding, but it served the purpose of its promoters. It put the Democratic party of the State into the hands of Gov. Altgeld, who has attached his fortunes to the silver wing of the party without any apparent reason except that he can annoy President Cleveland more in that way than in any other. As for Ohio, the Democracy of that State has been on the wrong side of every money question that has come up since the war. Last year Senator Brice kept it straight by a supreme effort, but the money question was not then of paramount importance as it is now. It is much to be feared that the party will now go as it went in the days of old Bill Allen —that is, for the poorest kind of money there is any chance of getting.

It behooves the gold-standard Democrats in all parts of the country to contemplate their position in case the party at Chicago votes for free coinage, by the United States alone, at the ratio of 16 to 1. That, as everybody knows, means the single silver standard. The pretence that it means bimetallism is not maintained by any honest person. Whether bimetallism could be maintained by an international agreement is a matter of dispute. Very few persons think that it could be preserved at the legal ratio of 16 when the market ratio is 30; but, however that may be, there is no prospect of an international agreement. Both the gold-standard people and the silver-standard people are tired of talking about international agreements, and, even if that were a hopeful solution of the difficulty, it could not be reached in time for this year's campaign. The day of straddles is past. There is nothing to do but to vote for one standard or the other. For office-seekers this is a dreadful predicament, but for business men and for the public in general nothing could be better than to have this question put before the country so that it shall be voted on fairly and squarely.

The silver standard will never be adopted by this country. No party can hold itself together which sets out to produce that result. No party which aims to reduce the dollar to fifty cents can avoid a prodigious bolt. There may be a bolt in any case, and bolting may extend to both parties, but it is certain that if either of them declares for free coinage at 16 to 1, there will be a dismemberment of the organization of that party, with the prospect that the fragments will never come together again. Moreover, the division will not be a sectional one. It will run through all the States east of the Rocky Mountains certainly, and through those of the Pacific Coast probably. There is no chance of the Republican party making a declaration of that kind. There is every probability that it will pronounce for the gold standard outright in order to offset the bad impression made by McKinley's straddling. Any bolt which may follow at St. Louis can be easily reckoned with. It will be of small dimensions, of a purely sectional type, and will not put the party in real jeopardy as a bolt of the other kind would put the Democracy.

We should not apprehend any harm to the republic from a bolt in the Democratic party, not even if it were a thunderbolt. Both the old parties long since outlived the objects that called them into being. Whether they are longer useful for any purpose may well be doubted. If this question could have been submitted to a popular vote at any time the past winter, while business men opened their newspapers each day with fear and trembling lest they should find the country involved in some war without a cause, the verdict would have been overwhelming that both parties deserved perdition, and that anything which should dissolve and disperse them would be heaven's blessing to us all. For this reason we have not looked with alarm upon the formation and growth of the Populist party. By bringing the seeds of disintegration into the other parties it has promised to clear the ground for new political divisions based upon living issues, to disestablish the old machines, and to awaken the dormant patriotism and unused talent that find no place to work for the country under the tyrannical and corrupting boss system. The Populists have pretty well sapped the Democratic party in the South, and that is the reason why it is now going for silver and fifty-cent dollars. Why should not all the believers in that doctrine range themselves under one banner, and vote for one candidate? Then all who are opposed to them will range themselves on the other side. The advantage of such an alignment is that each man will then know what he is fighting for, and can work with some assurance that the blows he strikes will tend to produce the result he aims at.

It may be said that if a Democratic bolt takes place without any Republican bolt of corresponding size, the bolters will contribute to the election of McKinley and the enactment of a new McKinley tariff. The answer is that it will not be the bolt, but the bad Democratic platform, that will do the mischief. The election of the Republican nominee will be assured, and the only question for Democrats to decide will be whether this result shall be accompanied by an open revolt, or by abstention from the polls, or by quietly voting the Republican ticket. It would be much the better policy for the sound-money Democrats to walk out of the convention and make a public declaration of their reasons for doing so. One reason for taking this course is that the disintegration of the Democratic party will promote the breaking up of the Republican party also. There are plenty of differences among Republicans as to silver, greenbacks, and the tariff, which will find room for expression whenever the Democratic pressure is withdrawn. The two parties have braced each other up for many years. When one of them actually falls, the other cannot remain standing very long. Moreover, Republican success at the polls does not necessarily mean another McKinley tariff. There are obstacles still in the way of such an enactment, especially a shortage of votes in the Senate. In any case a McKinley tariff is a curable evil, as we have already seen, while a fifty-cent dollar is not.

ONE ISSUE DISPOSED OF.

CONVENTIONS for the choice of delegates to the Republican national convention have now been held in all the forty-five States of the Union. The platforms adopted in these conventions, particularly those held in the important States of the North, have been examined with interest for the light that they might cast upon the drift of party sentiment regarding the live questions in our politics, and particularly the currency issue. One feature, however, common to them all, has escaped notice, although it is really most significant. We refer to the entire absence of any allusion to the issue which, in one phase or another, has been visible and prominent in Republican platforms in every Presidential year since the party appeared on the national stage. The sectional question, growing out of slavery, is not so much as mentioned anywhere.

The first Republican national convention, in 1856, assembled in response to "a call addressed to the people of the United States, without regard to past political differences or divisions, who are opposed to the repeal of the Missouri compromise, to the policy of the present [Democratic] Administration, to the extension of slavery into free territory." In every Presidential campaign during the forty years from that time to this, either slavery or questions growing out of slavery—as, the reconstruction of the Union, the conferring of suffrage upon the former slaves, and the attempts to protect them in the exercise of that right—have occupied a front place in Republican platforms. The contrast between four years ago and the present year is most striking in this respect. In 1892 Benjamin Harrison was President, and aspired to a reëlection. The Republican convention in his own State of Indiana was therefore naturally held early, meeting at Indianapolis on the 10th of March. During his administration a desperate attempt had been made to strengthen the existing federal election laws by the passage of what came to be known as the Force bill. This issue was put first in the platform adopted at Indianapolis, which began as follows:

"The Republicans of Indiana, in State convention assembled, believing that a continua-

tion of the Republican party in power is essential to good government and the development of the material resources of the country, hereby reaffirm our devotion to the principles of the party as set forth in the platform adopted at the national convention in 1888, and we declare: That a pure ballot and a fair count are necessary to the maintenance of our republican institutions and the liberties of our people," etc.

Throughout the North, Republican conventions imitated the example thus set by their Indiana brethren in pushing the sectional issue to a front place. Pennsylvania and Ohio adopted the same plank on the subject, avowing "belief in a free ballot and a fair count," and affirming that, "unless intelligent and patriotic sentiment accord these rights to the humblest citizen in every section of the country, it becomes the duty of the federal Government to secure them by Congressional enactment, under the authority conferred by the Constitution." The Republicans of New York "denounced the treatment of the colored people in the South as barbarous, and continued (in defiance of the laws and the federal Constitution) for the sole purpose of perpetuating Democratic control of that section"; and they proceeded to "tender to the people thus oppressed our cordial sympathy and our earnest efforts for the amelioration of their condition." Every State platform framed in the North had a plank on this question, and when the delegates chosen by such conventions assembled at Minneapolis, they adopted a platform containing this general party deliverance:

"We demand that every citizen of the United States shall be allowed to cast one free and unrestricted ballot in all public elections, and that such ballot shall be counted and returned as cast; that such laws shall be enacted and enforced as will secure to every citizen, be he rich or poor, native or foreign-born, white or black, his sovereign rights guaranteed by the Constitution. The free and honest popular ballot, the just and equal representation of all the people, as well as their just and equal protection, under the laws, are the foundation of our republican institutions; and the party will never relax its efforts until the integrity of the ballot and the purity of elections shall be fully guaranteed and protected in every State."

A Democratic Administration has been in power for four years, supported during the first two years by a Democratic Congress. That Congress repealed the federal election laws, and thus put North and South, white and black, ex-master and ex-slave, on an equality. The experiment has been tried long enough fairly to test its workings. The result is that, beginning with the platform adopted in Ohio, the State which expects to furnish the candidate this year, every Republican State convention has omitted all reference to "a pure ballot and a fair count," the "oppressed colored people in the South," and the necessity of legislation to secure every citizen "his sovereign rights." Indeed, the one reference to the subject found anywhere in the country was the protest against any attempt to reopen the question made by the Republican State convention in Texas, composed largely of colored delegates, which adopted this pointed resolution:

"We view with satisfaction and pride the rapid growth of Republican sentiment in the South, and, relying on the force of a healthy public opinion demanding fair and honest elections, believe that further legislation on this subject by Congress is undesirable and unnecessary."

The return of the Democracy to complete control of the Government in 1893 has not brought all the benefits that were reasonably to have been expected. But the Cleveland Administration has rendered the nation one immense and enduring service by for ever eliminating the sectional issue from our politics.

THE NEW GALLERY.

LONDON, April, 1896.

THE day has gone by when the Grosvenor Gallery, or the New, which came to take its place, was the headquarters of any one special group of artists. Indeed, if a gallery were set aside for the purpose, the Independents, or Secessionists, to fill it with their work would be hard to find. The Pre-Raphaelite following has dwindled into insignificance. The Glasgow men are quite willing to scatter their forces, each sending his pictures to the exhibition most likely to accept them. Even the members of the New English Art Club have ceased to flaunt their rebellion in the face of the public, settling down to sober accomplishment. The result is, on the one hand, a fresh access of dulness in the never very gay London shows; on the other, a better chance that honestly good work will not be overshadowed by the eccentric, whether in subject or treatment.

This year's New Gallery, which has just opened its doors, is really but little more than an overflow from the Royal Academy. But there is one great difference: the best places on the line are not reserved, as at Burlington House, for the productions, however incompetent, of certain privileged men. Besides, the rooms are smaller and less crowded by a heterogeneous array of conflicting colors and designs. Much of the work that is most charming, and makes the charm most keenly felt, would simply not be seen at the Academy, where refinement of method counts for little. The work to which I refer more particularly is to be found among the landscapes. It is a curious thing that the influence of Constable and Bonington seems at last to be reaching England by the very roundabout way of France. The impression that Constable, slighted at home, made upon the Frenchmen of his time, has been pointed out again and again. He had substituted nature for the old classical convention, and, across the Channel, there were men but too ready to follow where he had led. Bonington was still more of a power. Delacroix paid eager tribute to his genius, which was as frankly acknowledged by others to whom his name was unknown. Gigoux tells how Gros, all unconsciously, called him "master" to his very face while Bonington was still a student in the great Frenchman's studio. But in England his work and Constable's made no such stir; for their own countrymen they were never masters. They and the Norwich School were promptly forgotten; and if Turner, thanks to Ruskin, was remembered, it was as a name, not an influence. Now and then artists like Mason and Fred. Walker, or North or Cecil Lawson, seemed to be endeavoring to rescue landscape painting from the depths of ineptitude into which it was fast sinking, but in vain. And the worst of it was that the more inept the landscape, the more strenuously its painter insisted upon his adherence to the traditions of what he was pleased to call the English tradition. But many of the younger men have studied in Paris. In England the work of the Romanticists, who were the legitimate successors of Constable and Bonington, is becoming more familiarly known, and there is no question that, within the last few years, there is a marked change for the better. Indeed, I think the excellence of the landscapes the one noteworthy feature of the present collection at the New Gallery.

It is not so much that individual pictures are good, though several of them are, as that the general standard has been raised, that attention has been turned to more legitimate artistic problems. Where the object was once to crowd a canvas with as much detail as it could hold, or perhaps more, now there are a few English artists who concern themselves with the aspect of the scene they paint, with harmony of color, with rightness of values. They have learned to prize simplicity and breadth and freedom of handling above niggling and ill-considered smudging. They seek to compose a picture rather than to make a painted photograph, a literal transcript of nature.

It would be useless here to write out a list of names in order to establish the truth of my assertion. One will serve as well, and, after all, no exhibitor answers my purpose more forcibly than Mr. Edward Stott, a young man whose reputation has hardly yet spread from his fellow-artists to the general public. He has taken a simple domestic subject, quite in sympathy with English popular traditions. "The Old Gate," he calls it, and he shows three tired horses coming home after the day's work, a boy mounted upon the first, while, on the open gate, a small girl is perched, and another stands at its side. Beyond is the long, low, red-roofed barn, fowls gathering under the shadow of its wall. In the description it sounds as though this picture might be one of the characteristic water-colors of William Hunt. But Mr. Stott has not troubled to tell a silly story or to discover sham sentiment, as Hunt would have done. To him the subject has been nothing but an excuse to record a lovely effect of light. The low rays of the setting sun fall, with transfiguring glory, upon the face and jacket of the girl who stands, and, here and there, on the horse and the boy on its back; far away, to the left of the barn, stretches a tender, luminous sky. Figures and details are all enveloped in the magical atmosphere of the hour, and the artist has known how to concentrate attention upon this effect, and how to give to his impression the serenity, the feeling of completeness which is never missing from the true work of art. One will watch Mr. Stott's future career with interest. I wish there were space to speak at length of Mr. Arthur Lemon's "Campagna Romana," with the vast desolate plain sharply defined in the clear Italian atmosphere, and yet the idea of almost illimitable distance so well expressed; of Mr. Peppercorn's soft, silvery gray impressions of evening; of some half-dozen other landscapes which give genuine distinction to a not very notable show.

But the good work is not entirely confined to the landscapes. There is a fine portrait of Countess Clary Aldringen by Mr. Sargent. If it is not one of his pleasantest, the fault probably was his sitter's, not his. It is a full-length, and the tall, slight, self-conscious figure in

white evening gown has just risen from the sofa as if to give greeting to an arriving guest. The mouth is partly open in a set, acid society smile, the right arm is ready to be extended; the pose and expression are wonderfully natural and, one feels instinctively, characteristic. The white of the gown, painted with immense vigor and vivacity, tells deliciously against the pale rose of the sofa, behind which hangings fall in heavy folds. And the woman herself stands so well within the room, which is so unmistakably filled with real air, that most of the other portraits in the gallery seem no better than lay figures painted in the flat. It has not the beauty of Mr. Sargent's lovely "Lady Agnew," nor the dignity of his "Miss Rehan," nor, again, the spirit and go of his "Carmencita"; but it is a very distinguished performance, immeasurably more accomplished than the work that surrounds it.

It is a strange contrast to turn from Mr. Sargent to Sir Edward Burne-Jones, whose canvases show but too plainly the infinite labor which they have cost him. To tell the truth, he is not at his best this year. In both his pictures he has been at much trouble to carry out an unpleasant color scheme, which does not help to reconcile one to the reappearance of the wan, mystic figures one knows but too well. In the first, "Aurora,"

"Day's harbinger
Comes dancing from the East."

She is merely his Psyche, his Venus, his Virgin under another name. She wears rose-gray draperies, hard and cold as the gray walls between which she winds her way; and she dances to so sad a measure, she clashes her cymbals with such wistful weariness, that one might well dread the coming of the day thus heralded. Never was there a more despairing Dawn, nor one less beautiful. "The Dream of Launcelot at the Chapel of the San Grael" also is without the loveliness of decorative design that might compensate for lack of harmony in the color.

Mr. Watts, who is always prominent at the New Gallery, has scarcely been more successful. His work, like Sir Edward Burne-Jones's, always commands respect even when it borders upon failure. But allegory must sometimes prove a snare for the painter, and his figure of "Earth" is so coarse in form (which was no doubt intentional), the fruit and flowers she holds in her arms present so muddy an arrangement of reds and browns, that one cannot but wish he had thought less of his allegory, more of his picture. He has, besides, a "Time, Death, and Judgment," statuesque in its composition, but otherwise disappointing; and two little pictures of Adam and Eve, before and after the fall—a subject so hackneyed in art that a much more original conception and treatment than his would be needed to give it interest. For the rest, there is nothing to note, unless it be the fact that to M. Fernand Khnopff, as to Mr. Watts, mysticism or symbolism has proved a pitfall. His one picture, "Des Caresses," which represents a leopard-like sphinx and her lover, he has filled so chock-full of esoteric meaning that he has forgotten to find expression for it in the striking decorative arrangement which he once accustomed us to expect from him. Few are the artists strong enough to indulge in ideas.

N. N.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—VI.

PARIS, May 7, 1896.

ONE of the men who owed their importance to Barras was Réal, who played such an important part in the Empire. He was a lawyer, and did not miss one of Barras's soirées at the Luxembourg. He had made himself notorious in the case of Babeuf, the Socialist leader of the time. It is curious to notice the part which is always left to women in the Memoirs of Barras. "One day," he says, "I received a visit from a friend of mine who was also a friend of Réal's, Mademoiselle or Madame de Châtenay, for her quality of canoness gave her the right to be called Madame [the Memoirs of Madame de Châtenay have been recently published, and I shall soon have to give an account of them, as they possess real interest]. She was a person of much *esprit*, and even more erudition; a true Benedictine." She came to speak in favor of Réal, and recommended him for the office of Commissioner of the Directory in the Department of the Seine. "You, Barras, to whom France owes the finest things in the Revolution, who are the father of the most distinguished citizens and soldiers that honor our country—for did you not make Bonaparte, Hoche, Talleyrand, Fouché, etc.?—I do not answer for those whom I don't know particularly, but I do answer for Réal." There were good reasons why our canoness took so much interest in Réal, as her Memoirs will show. Barras was moved by Madame de Châtenay, and it must be remarked that he does not suggest that she employed with him the means which were employed by others, and on which he dwells with so much complacency and cynicism in his Memoirs. Réal was appointed, and "there you have one more actor," says Barras, "whom I introduced on the scene."

Barras observes, on this occasion, that the personages cited above "all put themselves forward by means of women's influence." Bonaparte was the first:

"We have seen his manœuvres with Josephine and his marriage in order to have command of the army of Italy. Then Talleyrand; we have seen how he was helped and kept up by Madame de Staël. We now see Réal, in a secondary sphere, using the same means. . . . I will make here a sad reflection on their conduct. After having used women in the interest of their ambition, they were all ungrateful; they squeezed the lemon and threw away the peel."

Talleyrand was, says Barras, more than ungrateful, he became hostile:

"Judged by what she [Mme. de Staël] told me when I saw her again in 1814, she did not doubt that Talleyrand was the prime mover in the persecution she had to suffer. 'I had become insupportable to him,' said she laughingly, 'as Agrippina was to Nero. . . . I had given him bread literally, my dear Barras, before you made him minister on my recommendation; what had I not done for him? Remember my importunities. Well, if he could have treated me as Nero did Agrippina, he would have done so; he would do it still, and why? Because I gave him bread and made him minister."

One of the agents of Louis XVIII., of the Prince de Condé, of the English Government (this class of secret agents is not content with doing its work for a single person or party), was a man called Fauche-Borel, a bankrupt bookseller. He had received large sums for communicating directly or indirectly with the most important public men and bribing them in order to bring them over to the royalist cause. Fauche-Borel had persuaded the Pretender and the foreign cabinets that Barras, the General of the 9th Thermidor, of the 13th Vendémiaire, of the 18th Fructidor, was the most vulnerable. He wrote to him from Wesel, under the name of Frédéric Borelly, saying "that he had important revelations to make to him which interested France and the Directory." He wished to have passports for Paris or to have sent to him, on the part of Barras, an agent who possessed his entire confidence. Barras showed this letter to the Directory the day he received it. The Directory judged "that it was important not to neglect this proposition, and to send an agent." Talleyrand, then Minister of Foreign Affairs, was consulted; he chose for agent of the Directory a person who saw Fauche-Borel at Wesel, but obtained no communication of any importance. The Directory decided that another should be sent with a letter from him. Barras sent a M. Guérin with the letter desired by Fauche-Borel. He said in this letter: "You can safely give the bearer all the information and all the documents which you announce to be of great interest for the Republic, the Government, and for myself in particular."

We find in the Memoirs a letter which Borelly wrote to Barras on the 17th Vendémiaire, year viii., with "letters-patent from the King appointing a commissioner for the proclamation of the monarchy." The Viscount de Barras was named High Commissioner; a month after Louis XVIII. should have taken the reins of government Barras was to receive as an indemnity "the sum of twelve millions of livres tournois—ten millions for himself and two millions which were to be divided by him between his coadjutors in the work of the restoration." Barras says that the correspondence and the letters-patent were communicated to the Directory. Fouché arrested a certain Monnier, whom Barras characterizes as the correspondent of Wesel. Barras's secretary Botot appeared before the Directory, his name having been used at Wesel; the secretary "disavowed everything." The secret register of the Directory would perhaps dispel the mystery of these negotiations. What seems clear, notwithstanding the protestations of the Memoirs, is, that Barras was open to an offer, and that he was thought to be so by his colleagues of the Directory. In his memoirs Gohier, one of the Directors, does not express any doubts on the subject. He says that there were in the Directory two traitors; that while Sieyès was working for a dictatorship—the dictatorship of Bonaparte and himself—Barras was conspiring for the monarchy. "The moment when this Director was to unfurl the royal standard was fixed, the day on which this conspiracy was to break out was marked; and if the movement failed, it was because Sieyès's movement prevented it." The allusion is to the famous 18th Brumaire, the day which witnessed the foundation of Bonaparte's power.

In volume iv. of Barras's Memoirs there are many interesting details concerning what may be called the preliminaries of the 18th Brumaire. Barras's ambiguous conduct during this period may be explained by the fact that he was carrying on a sort of double policy; he certainly knew the projects of Sieyès and Bonaparte, but he was conspiring probably also on his account. He was somewhat deceived on the subject of Bonaparte's prestige, and he seems to have been surprised when he found, after Bonaparte's return from Egypt, that, to use his own very energetic expressions, "la France se précipitait vers une existence nouvelle." The prestige of the "échappé d'Égypte" was growing every day, and Barras himself had become more and more unpopular and disregarded. When convinced that Bonaparte was the man of the day, he abandoned his own projects and cut the threads which he had thrown across the frontier in the direction of the Pretender. It was too late—Bonaparte had

seen through him; he did not like Barras any more than Barras liked him, and the reasons for this mutual dislike are obvious. Josephine was a sort of living reproach which stood between them.

On the 8th Brumaire, ten days before the *coup d'état*, Barras had at his table Moreau and Bonaparte; the conversation turned on the political situation. Barras recognized the necessity of a dictatorship; he confessed that he was himself "usé pour la circonstance," and pronounced the name of a general, Hédouville, by way of sounding Bonaparte. The effect was terrible. Bonaparte fixed an angry look on Barras and soon went away, determined to work with Sieyès only. He felt, however, some hesitation; he knew that Barras had much decision and courage, having seen him at Toulon on the 13th Vendémiaire. They saw each other any times. Talleyrand and Réal tried to induce greater harmony between them. In Barras's opinion the return of Bonaparte furnished the means of procuring an amelioration of the constitutional system; instead of a Directory of five members, it was necessary to have a single President who should have the power of dissolving the legislative chambers. Napoleon said to Barras, "It is either you or Sieyès," and seemed at times to leave him the choice. Barras did not choose; he invented difficulties, and finally it was agreed among Bonaparte's supporters that they would say to Barras's supporters, "He is with us, but wishes to show himself only after the business is done." It was also agreed that Sieyès should be amused and flattered to the end, and that Bonaparte should be made First Consul, with the addition of two other Consuls who would be merely his lieutenants.

On the 16th Brumaire the friends of Bonaparte met at the house of the President of the Ancients. It was agreed that the two Councils and the Directory should be transferred to Saint-Cloud, and that the proposition should be made by a committee of the Ancients. The details of the *coup d'état* are well known. The removal to Saint-Cloud was voted in the early morning, and General Bonaparte was charged with the necessary measures for the protection of the national representation. All the troops in Paris were placed for that object under his command. The decree of removal of the legislative chambers to Saint-Cloud was sent officially to Barras. Two of the Directors, Gohier and Moulins, went to the Luxembourg to join him; they were already abandoned, even by the troops which usually guarded the Luxembourg. Talleyrand arrived, after the departure of Gohier and Moulins; he acted the part of the Tempter: the republic was in danger, Bonaparte had no other thought but to save it. Sieyès, the two Directors who had just left Barras, understood matters; they had resigned and were going to join the Ancients at Saint-Cloud. "I open my window," says Barras; "I give a look on the Rue de Tournon and vicinity. I see soldiers going to the Tuileries, the people accompanying them with shrieks of support and encouragement. I can no longer conceal the truth from myself. I determine my course with the resolution I have often shown in difficult times." He writes and sends in his resignation as Director. And so the curtain falls upon him. He probably did not think that it would fall for ever, and that his political career had come to an end.

Barras, after having given in his resignation, left immediately for his country-house at Grosbois. It was there that he heard the details of the *coup d'état* of Brumaire, which gave to Bonaparte a real dictatorship. "The conspirators of the two councils divided among themselves the power and the fortune of France under various names more or less serious; some called themselves senators, some others tribunes, or even legislators. It was their way of making people believe that there still remained a national representation in France." Two days after the *coup d'état*, Bonaparte sent Fouché to Grosbois to ask Barras what place he would like to have in the Government. Barras took him over his garden and said to him: "This is the only place I now wish to occupy." He wrote to Bonaparte a letter in which he said that his determination to leave public life was irrevocable. Had there been a secret compact between Napoleon and Barras? Did Barras, as his contemporaries believed, receive three millions as the price of his resignation as Director? Why did Barras accept no post, diplomatic or military? Did he simply receive money? Did the price of his resignation remain in the hands of Talleyrand, as Barras intimates in a note? "My resignation, of which I have told the story without any reservation, involved no money offer. . . . I declare that if any sum was paid by Bonaparte for this object, it remained wholly in the possession of Talleyrand." There remains a mystery hanging over all these points; what is certain is, that Barras disappears as a political actor on the 18th Brumaire; exit Barras.

We see him after this date going from place to place, from Grosbois to Brussels, from Brussels to Provence, from there to Rome, always under the eye of Fouché's police, filled with a bitter hatred of Napoleon. The close of volume iv. is a prolonged satire on the Emperor. Barras uses his remaining strength in obscure intrigues and conspiracies; he applauds the treason of Bernadotte, of Moreau; he triumphs with the Russians and the Allies during the campaign in Russia and in the invasion of France. He ended his life during the Restoration in 1827, ignored, forgotten, in great affluence, protected by the Government of the Bourbons, who never forgot that, before the 18th Brumaire, Barras had been ready to prepare their return to France.

Correspondence.

CHRISTINA ROSSETTI'S MEMORIAL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A memorial to the late Christina Rossetti, the gifted poetess whose fame is world-wide, will be placed in Christ Church, Woburn Square, which she attended for nearly twenty years.

Sir Edward Burne-Jones, who was a life-long friend, has consented to prepare the designs for a series of paintings in the reredos, and to superintend the work in its progress, if a sum sufficient be raised.

A first list of subscribers has been printed which contains the names of W. M. Rossetti, Mackenzie Bell, Sir William Jenner, the Bishop of Durham, Ada Swanwick, and others.

It is believed that there are many in America who will with pleasure contribute to the memorial, and I beg to add that donations may be sent to the Christina Rossetti Memorial Account in the Bank of England, Threadneedle Street, London, or to Yours truly,

J. J. Glendinning Nash,
Vicar of Christ Church, Woburn Square, and Chaplain to the Marquess of Londonderry, K.G.

92 Tower Street, London, May 4, 1896.

Notes.

Zola's 'Rome' is on the eve of being brought out in English by Macmillan & Co., who announce also 'A Collection of Problems and Examples in Physics,' by C. P. Matthews and J. S. Shearer of Cornell.

The New Amsterdam Book Co., 156 Fifth Avenue, have in press 'Political Parties in the United States, their History and Influence,' by J. Harris Patton, M.A.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will unite in one volume Mr. David A. Wells's *North American Review* article on "The Relations Between the United States and Great Britain," ex-Minister Phelps's Brooklyn address on "The True Monroe Doctrine," and Mr. Carl Schurz's Washington address on "Arbitration," under the general title, 'The United States and Great Britain.' The same firm have nearly ready 'Abraham Lincoln,' the *Herald's* thousand-dollar prize poem by the Rev. Lyman Whitney Allen; 'A Venetian June,' by Anna Fuller; and 'Will o' the Wasp; A Sea-Yarn of the War of 1812,' by Robert Cameron Rogers.

'Ice Work, Present and Past,' by Prof. T. G. Bonney, and 'Green Gates,' a New York novel, by Mrs. K. M. C. Meredith, are announced by the Appletons.

George Bell & Sons, London (New York: Macmillan), have issued, in the Bohn Library series, a cheaper edition of T. Keane's translation from the Russian of Alexander Pushkin's 'Prose Tales,' noticed in these columns a couple of years ago.

The translation into English from Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu's third and last volume of 'The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians' has appeared from the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons. This volume is devoted to the religion of Russia. It is impossible to speak with too high praise of the manner in which the author has treated this most delicate and difficult topic. A foreigner, a member of the Russian Church's great rival, he might easily have overstepped the limits of truth, delicacy, and good feeling. But, with a few trifling exceptions which might be taken by a person occupying another point of view, his statements may be accepted as fair and correct within mortal bounds of error. This volume should do much to remove divers deep-seated errors and widely spread convictions as to the Russian Church and the Government's attitude towards it and towards the dissident sects which have long existed, or are constantly springing up like the mushroom, faddish sects of our Western world. We should like to mention, in particular, as examples of the author's sympathetic comprehension and justice, his characterization, on p. 38, of the peasant and Christianity; on p. 106, of the Russian images; and on pp. 92, 109-110, of the Church music. The translator's remarkably fluent English is marred by the defects which we analyzed at length in our review of the first volume in the series, and which often render the chronology or sense chaotic.

Before the death of Prof. Herbert Tuttle of Cornell University, in the summer of 1894, it was known that prolonged ill-health had impeded the completion of his 'History of Prussia'; and the information that only a portion of the fourth volume had been written was received with sincere regret, but without surprise. This portion, however, amounted to a half of the projected volume; it was ready for the printer, and Mrs. Tuttle has done wisely in giving it to the public (Houghton, Mifflin &

Co.). The period covered—the opening campaigns of the Seven Years' War, from the seizure of Saxony to the victories of Rossbach and Leuthen—is of exceptional interest; and, in spite of the author's repugnance to any show of enthusiasm and his dread of anything approaching "fine writing," the story holds the reader. The volume is fully up to the level of its predecessors: it exhibits the historian's characteristic merits—care in attesting the facts, clearness of presentation, sanity of judgment, and sobriety of expression. Like the previous volumes, it is minutely indexed. Prof. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University contributes, by way of preface, a sympathetic sketch of Prof. Tuttle's life and labors.

Mr. Percy Fitzgerald has been revising his 'Life of Sterne,' which is now published in two neat volumes by Downey & Co. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons). The changes and additions are so great as to make the present edition a new book. Many documents relating to Sterne have come to light during the last twenty years, and with no advantage to his character. Indeed, the most important thing about this edition is the biographer's change of attitude towards his subject. The fresh letters and a careful study of Yorick's Journal (soon to be published) have brought Mr. Fitzgerald almost to Thackeray's estimate of Sterne. "Yorick's Journal . . . is fatally damaging; exhibiting a repulsive combination of Pharisaical utterances and lax principle. This would seem to show that Mr. Sterne was something more than the mere 'philanderer' he described himself to be. . . . It may be always fairly presumed that licentious writing is almost certain to be followed by life and practice as licentious." Mr. Fitzgerald is very well up in Sterne's love affairs, and does not consider that *Qui ne changera pas qu'en mourant*, at the end of a fond letter, means much. The people of York, who were scandalized at 'Tristram Shandy,' would have collapsed on reading the correspondence of their clergyman. Externally, the most interesting portions of Sterne's life were his visits to London and Paris. Mr. Fitzgerald's chapters on these episodes are admirable. Paris was decidedly more congenial to Sterne than Sutton. "Among the French in Paris he gave full reins to his natural spirits; and to them his peculiar temper seems to have been very acceptable. . . . 'I laugh till I also cry,' he wrote, 'and in the same tender moments cry till I laugh; I Shandy it more than ever.'" It must have been worth while to see Sterne in the full tide of hilarity. He is fortunate in finding a biographer who does him justice without wronging the public by a paradoxical defence of his behavior. Mr. Fitzgerald's book, in its supplemented and reconsidered form, will doubtless remain the standard life of witty and volatile Shandy.

The Chicago University unites with the Early English Text Society in publishing a new MS. of Lydgate's 'The Assembly of Gods.' The issue constitutes the first monograph in a series of English Studies to be published by the University, and is at the same time to be a regular issue of the English Society. The editor is Dr. O. L. Triggs, whose doctoral thesis the critical part of the work constitutes. Dr. Triggs's book on Browning and Whitman, a study in Democracy, was noticed in these columns three years ago. It is a far cry from Whitman to Lydgate, but we dare say an exhilarating one. At all events, while Dr. Triggs's earlier book, though often original, was marred by mistiness and nonsequaciousness, the author now employs a much severer method. The poem itself, which the editor assigns (*contra* Dr. Schick of Heidelberg) to Lydgate's second period, is a typical mediæval allegory of 2,000 lines, and in theology, mythology, and construction is neither more nor less conventional than most. The avowed aim of the poem, to find a common ground of accord between reason and sensuality, is realized: "in the fear of death all accord—Lydgate, Reason, and Sensuality." The editor adds six chapters of critical apparatus, throwing emphasis on the last chapter, which discusses allegory as a literary *genre*. Somewhat miscellaneous here is the collection of materials, but these are informed by a fine feeling on the editor's part for the vital bond between literature and life.

Dr. Bloomer's 'Life and Writings of Amelia Bloomer' (Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.) is a husband's unaffected memorial tribute to his wife that must command respect. Mrs. Bloomer's life was almost uneventful. She was perhaps the second woman in this country—Mrs. Swisshelm antedates her by one year—to found and conduct a paper of her own (the *Lily*), and she fought out in her husband's printing-office the principle of woman's right to set type. The promotion of temperance was her chief aim in life, and she was also fairly prominent among the woman-suffrage writers and speakers; but she will be remembered by the word she unwittingly added to the English vocabulary, though she did not invent the "Bloomer" costume, was not the first to wear it, and abandoned it with the same independence with which she adopted it. She celebrated her golden-wedding anniversary in "a black satin costume *en train*, with gray damascene front, crêpe lace in the neck, diamond ornaments." The "costume," while she wore it, brought upon her no personal odium or annoyance, and she lived to see a race of women bicyclers far outstripping, in their approach to the male costume, her modest innovation. Her activity on behalf of the soldiers in the war was like that in the other causes (including the church) which interested her. Mrs. Bloomer came of Rhode Island stock, was born in central New York in 1818, and died in Iowa, her final home, in 1894. Her life is typical of the New England spirit, in its permanent and its migratory aspect, and her labors belong to a class, not specially interesting in themselves, which are all the time honeycombing old prejudices and abuses, and preparing the way for great statutory, institutional, and social reforms.

In turning the search-light of modern science upon the problem of woman's mental capacity, as compared with that of man, M. Jacques Lourbet, in his 'La Femme devant la Science Contemporaine' (Paris: Alcan), has not disposed of the question for all time to come, but he has given a clear account of its present status. The proof that the dogma of woman's irremediable intellectual inferiority receives no support from recent biological and psycho-physiological discoveries was worth establishing. The subject has been touched upon by nearly every writer on the woman question; historically it has been very fully treated by Mrs. Eliza Burt Gamble, in 'The Evolution of Woman'; but M. Lourbet's treatise belongs rather with Havelock Ellis's 'Man and Woman,' as the most comprehensive from the purely scientific point of view.

Joseph Turquan's 'Les Soeurs de Napoléon' (Paris: Librairie Illustrée; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is an attempt to define the influence which the three princesses, Eliza, Pauline, and Caroline, had on the fate of the Napoleonic dynasty. That influence was, according to M. Turquan, evil and destructive, and he ascribes this effect to the immoral lives of the trio. Indeed, the story smacks strongly of the *chronique scandaleuse*, though the author takes pains to assure us that this is not his fault, but the inevitable consequence of his effort to paint true portraits of the Emperor's sisters.

The third and fourth volumes of 'Discours et Opinions de Jules Ferry' (Paris: Colin & Cie.), edited and annotated by Paul Robiquet, are devoted to the speeches made by Ferry on educational questions. On these he could claim to speak with authority, having thrice held the position of Minister of Public Instruction, and having striven steadily to place education within the reach of every French citizen. The fourth volume contains, in addition, two speeches on foreign affairs, but the real interest of the volumes lies in the educational debates, especially those on the education of girls, and on compulsory lay teaching in primary schools.

The Belgian writer, Ferdinand Loise, gives us, in his 'Histoire de la Poésie mise en rapport avec la civilisation en Italie' (Paris: Thorin & Fils) the third volume of his complete work on the history of poetry. This work is practically new, having been extensively rewritten and considerably enlarged. Among the additions are the introductory part, analytical summaries of the great Italian epics, and a review of nineteenth-century literature. The passages quoted are followed by translations usually very close to the spirit of the original.

Prince Alexandre Bibesco's 'La Question du Vers français et la Tentative des Poètes décadents' reappears in superb dress (Paris: Fischbacher). It is interesting to reread this plea in favor of French verse as used by all the great poets of France, albeit the attempt of the Decadent poets has ceased to attract much attention, if any. By far the larger part of the arguments put forward by Bibesco on the one hand, and by Psichari and Anatole France on the other, turn on the question of the so-called mute *e*, which is very far from mute in verse and often emphatic in song.

Félix Hémon, whose edition of Corneille is deservedly well thought of, has collected, in 'Études Littéraires et Morales,' first series (Paris: Delagrave), a number of articles which have already appeared in reviews, and his study of the early comedies of Corneille which is prefixed to the edition above referred to. The closing article, on Brunetière and Bossuet, possesses much interest.

M. Munier-Jolain, who delivered an excellent course at the Sorbonne on eloquence at the French bar, has published his lectures in book form under the title 'La Plaidoirie dans la Langue française' (Paris: Chevalier-Marescq & Cie.). It is a distinctly valuable addition to the knowledge of this form of eloquence. The period covered is from 1400 to 1700, and the evolution of eloquence at the bar—its merits and its defects—is fully examined and clearly stated.

The exact history of the word "socialisme" has not been very well known, and much time has been spent in the search for its first appearance in the French language. In a recent study on 'L'École Saint-Simonienne' M. Georges Weill points out what he thinks may be its origin. The *Globe*, an early organ of St. Simonism, makes use constantly, he says, of the word "social"; but the term "socialisme" is found in it only once, namely, in an article in the issue of February 13, 1832. The editor, M. Joncières, declares that the poetry

of Victor Hugo merits admiration in spite of its purely personal character, and then adds: "Nous ne voulons pas sacrifier la *personnalité* au *socialisme*, pas plus que ce dernier à la personnalité." The respective words are in italics in the text, which indicates, as M. Weill thinks, that they are unusual. It will be observed that the sense of the word "socialisme," in the passage quoted, differs somewhat from that in which it is now employed.

The sixteenth volume of the admirable series of *Indici e Cataloghi*, issued by the Italian Ministry of Public Instruction, is a Galilean Bibliography embracing 2,108 works of the philosopher or pertaining to him. It precedes a speedily forthcoming analytic index to the entire collection of Galilean MSS. possessed by the Central National Library.

A quarterly periodical, *Ex-Libris*, is projected for July by the Washington Ex-Libris Society. The magazine will, of course, be illustrated. The edition will not exceed 300 copies. Subscriptions at $1.50 (for this country, $1.75 abroad) may be sent to the society's treasurer, Mr. W. H. Shir-Cliff.

American tourists familiar with our Summer Schools may be tempted, by the announcement of the eighth Summer Assembly of the National Home-Reading Union at Chester, England, from June 27 to July 6, to combine sight-seeing with a comparative study of institutions. As in this country, various lectures (one on "Samuel Pepys and his Music," by the organist of Chester Cathedral, others on the geology and botany of the district, on Mediæval Monastic Arrangements and on Gothic Architecture, with a local squint) are attended with neighborhood excursions, to Hawarden Castle, Llangollen, etc. The Duke of Westminster will preside.

The first woman who has received the permission of the Minister of Public Instruction to attend lectures in the University of Munich, Bavaria, is Miss Ethel Gertrude Skeat, daughter of the well-known editor of Chaucer's works. After pursuing a four years' course of study at Cambridge, Miss Skeat passed her examination in natural science with distinction, and obtained a prize in the form of a travelling stipend; during the past nine months she has been engaged in geological and palæontological researches under the direction of Prof. Zittel in the Munich palæontological collections, which are especially rich in rare fossils. Probably no objection will be made to her candidacy for an academical degree.

—One of the most curious among the many quaint and out-of-the way volumes included in the "Galatea Collection" of books about Woman, now being catalogued at the Boston Public Library, is a work consisting of two thick volumes, bound in vellum, devoted to the saintly women of the early Christian Ages who lived in solitude among woods and mountains. The title is 'Le Eroine della Solitudine Sacra, overo Vite d'alcune delle più illustri Romite Sacre, del P. Maestro Girolamo Ercolani.' It was printed in 1654 at Bologna, with four different commendations of approval, in Latin or Italian, on the part of the priesthood, as might well be the case, seeing that the author was prior of the convent of S. Agostino at Bologna. The thirty saints whose lives are recorded range in the date of their deaths from about the year 3, when the first, namely, Elizabeth, mother of John the Baptist, is reported as having died—although the worthy prior declines to name the exact day of her demise, but says that the *Martirologio Romano* places it on the 5th of November—to the latest, "Geneviefa Palatina," princess of Brabanza, who died April 2, A.D. 750. The biographies are in Italian, with many marginal comments in Latin and citations from the fathers; but the most curious characteristic is afforded by the pictures. Each of the thirty heroines of solitude is portrayed in her favorite retreat—either hut, tent, tree, or rock, according to the preference of each; some text from the Vulgate being usually inscribed. In some cases there are in the background houses or churches of the quaint Albert Dürer style of architecture, indicating that the sacred solitary, like Thoreau, stayed tolerably near home; but most of the scenes are laid in woods or deserts, and the heroines are often accompanied by angels and sometimes by saints.

—In the case of the mother of John the Baptist, she is sheltered beneath a rock, with her plump naked child beside her, while two winged and well-clad angels are present also, one of whom is feeding the cheery little boy out of a saucer with a large flat spoon. Mary Magdalen, with the usual voluptuous look and abundant tresses, kneels beneath a little shelter tent, the sheltering tree being inscribed with the rather doubtful motto *Satis nunquam amanti*. "Atanasia Antiochena" has a similar tent, with the more unequivocal device, *Casta placent superis*, and two angels tending her. A neat little hut shelters Thais of Alexandria, and a man of saintly aspect opens the door, greeting her with an air of surprise. Maria, the niece of the hermit Abraham, has a similar tent, near her aged uncle's; and while he prays, she is apparently reading from the Bible to a robust sinner of jovial look who leans against her door. Here the appropriate motto is *Qui stat videat ne cadeat*. The erring Maria of Egypt kneels before an aged hermit, in the forest. The virgin Ermelinda kneels alone in a comfortable little shanty, with door and window, like those our soldiers used to build for themselves during the civil war. Saint Genoveva appears with her deer. A rather apocryphal personage named Dimpna, daughter of the King of Ireland, in a thatched hut of unusual pattern, is being defended from an approach of soldiers by an apparent angel, the motto on her hut being *Potius mori quam fœdari*. "Giacchelina Romana" has a little roof half-way up a tree, just large enough to shelter her and her crucifix; there are steps leading to it, as with the little playhouses made for children in trees; close by, there is a river with vessels. Rose of Viterbo, a Franciscan, is preaching from a rock in the city square to a crowd of admiring men and women, with a zeal that Mrs. Howe might admire, and the motto says that she "speaks roses," *Vere rosas loquitur*. The Dominican Sibyl is praying at the door of her hut, while the Deity is looking down from a cloud. Lucia da Narni, a Dominican, appears disguised in boy's dress, but with locks of hair falling over her shoulders, with haloed saints around her, and the somewhat alarming motto: *Ex fœmina vir, nec vir tamen, nec fœmina, sed virago*. Most remarkable of all, perhaps, is Christina the Admirable, who sits poised on the top of a palm-tree resembling a giant cactus, whence she waves her hand to shepherds gazing from below; or perhaps Melania, a Roman lady, who has somehow procured for herself a little box like those which old-fashioned city watchmen had sixty years ago. It is just big enough for her to stand upright in, and her smiling face looks out from a peep-hole at the top, while admiring winged angels stand on each side of the box, and three little cherub heads, winged but bodiless, float in the air above. A similar box has not, alas, given sufficient protection to "VViborada tedesca," a German saint, who is seen assaulted by four Hungarian soldiers, hacking at her head with large knives, having torn off the roof of her shelter. She appears resigned. It is due to most of these solitaries to say that they are usually in good physical condition, and are apt to look as defiantly and irresistibly cheerful as if they were "Salvation lassies."

—All students of Petrarch owe a debt of profound gratitude to Prof. Giovanni Mestica for the embodiment of his twenty years' labor on the text of the *Rime* in the handsome, yet modest and inexpensive, "edizione critica" just published in Florence by Barbèra. This scholarly achievement invited an exposition too full for the present work and which is to appear hereafter; but the preliminary observations are ample for an understanding of the method employed and drudgery undergone. The arrangement of the *Canzoniere* goes back to the earlier and sole authentic, in which the "sonetti e canzoni sopra vari argomenti" are intermingled with the love sonnets. The division into two parts is determined by the year of the poet's conversion (1343) and the composition of the canzone "I' vo pensando." Beginning, however, with the sonnet "Tornami a mente," the concluding thirty-one pieces of the *Canzoniere* are ordered for the first time in accordance with plain figures found in the margin of the original Codice Vaticano Latino, No. 3195, indicating the poet's latest preference for this series. To be discussed hereafter are the reasons for these changes in the distribution in the light of chronology and æsthetic considerations. The codex just mentioned is partly in Petrarch's handwriting, but he manifestly revised and corrected the copyist's part, and exhibits a pretty consistent orthography, which has determined Mestica's general observance or reasoned eclecticism; but in his footnotes he restores the form he varies from, so that the text of this codex is reproduced in its entirety. He is also to be thanked for the pains he has bestowed with a free hand on the punctuation. This, as may be imagined, is often equivalent to a commentary; witness the note on page 299 justifying the parentheses—"(oh, che spero?)"—in line eleven of the sonnet "Rapido fiume."

—The next precious document to be examined and used in connection with the foregoing is the Codice Vaticano Latino, No. 1396, containing the *Trionfi* in addition to the *Canzoniere*, and consisting of eighteen sheets, autographic rough drafts. This has already been reproduced in print and in facsimile, but has been gleaned anew by Mestica, and the variant readings are duly incorporated in the footnotes—an enormous boon to those who would verify the editor's statement that with Petrarch the art of writing was the art of afterthought (*arte dei pentimenti*). Moreover, he has gathered in an appendix the poems not included in the *Rime*, with some not Petrarch's but addressed to him, copied in his own hand. But we have no space to indicate the minuteness with which this codex has been made completely available, nor in like manner seven other codices, which, with sundry printed editions from 1501 to 1820, have been screened for the notes. Mestica calls Marsand's *Rime* of 1819-20 the modern Vulgate, and has brought it into the comparison as an aid to those who possess or have access to this widely diffused edition. He has borrowed, with or without

modifications, some of Marsand's "arguments" prefixed to the pieces of the *Canzoniere*, but has composed some for himself, and the whole of those for the *Trionfi*. Well may he exclaim at the end, "Ecco il vero Petrarca!" and adopt Petrarch's "Hoc placet" affixed to one of the very latest of his revisions. This admirable volume is illustrated with a frontispiece portrait of Petrarch from the codex in the Paris National Library.

TIFFANY'S PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

A History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America. By Charles C. Tiffany, D.D., Archdeacon of New York. New York: The Christian Literature Company. 1895.

DR. TIFFANY'S volume takes a high rank in the series of "American Church Histories," of which it is the last instalment up to date. It suffers most in comparison with Prof. Walker's Congregationalist volume, because there we have a development of thought, while here the considerations are almost exclusively those of ecclesiastical organization and development. It also provokes comparison with other recent histories of the Episcopal Church. It deprives Dr. Coleman's 'The Church in America' entirely of its reason for existence. It has no such relation to Dr. McConnell's 'History of the American Episcopal Church,' which, though much less careful and elaborate, has an individuality which will indefinitely prolong its life, and is, as Dr. Tiffany says in his preface, "as full of wisdom as of wit." Dr. Tiffany's has perhaps even more of wisdom, but it certainly has less of wit, either because he has less by nature, or because, more careful than Dr. McConnell of the dignities of churchmanship and of the sensibilities of churchmen, he has refrained from the publication of many things which put the church, from time to time, in an amusing or ridiculous light. At the same time, he has presented as fairly and frankly as Dr. McConnell those aspects of the church in the colonial period which were shameful in the extreme. Indeed, it may be questioned whether his more serious presentation of those aspects does not make a more painful impression than his predecessors' lighter vein, delighting more in their absurdity than grieving that such things could be.

No one can identify himself with a great institution without being sensitive to its traditions, and hence Dr. Tiffany's opening chapters on Virginia and Maryland are such that every loyal Episcopalian must read them with a heavy heart. "These colonies," he writes, "became a refuge and resort for the thriftless and profligate clergy of England, who were glad to escape from their debts and difficulties at home, and whose friends were so happy to get rid of them that they aided in securing for them assured positions and salaries on the distant continent." Many details are given in illustration of this damning generalization. Writing of the clergy in 1791, Gov. Berkeley says: "But of all other commodities, so of this, the worst are sent us." They were time-serving and indifferent; earnest and impassioned only in their zeal for their full tithes of tobacco. In Virginia the punishment of ecclesiastical offences by civil penalties was a source of much trouble and weakness. "The principle of religious toleration was wholly absent." Upon the threshold of the Revolutionary troubles Patrick Henry appeared before a legal tribunal on behalf of the vestries and the people against the exactions of the clergy, and his eloquence, already brilliant, practically won his cause: the clergy got one penny damages. It so happened, therefore, that they entered on the Revolutionary period miserably handicapped, and we read without astonishment that of ninety-one clergymen only fifteen continued at their posts.

The early course of things in Maryland was even more unfortunate and scandalous than in Virginia, but it was relieved by the example of the commissary, Dr. Bray, "a man of noble and devoted character, who was drawn to the work by the denials and sacrifices which it involved." But even his heroic efforts could do little with such rotten or intractable material as he had at hand. It was a queer kind of quarantine when the question was not of cholera or of yellow fever, but "whether there was any minister on board, and if so what his demeanor had been upon the voyage." "No wonder," writes Dr. Hawks, a trusted historian of the church, "that such a bastard establishment as that of Maryland was odious to so many of the people; we think their dislike is evidence of their virtue"; and, but for the intervention of the Revolution, he contends that "the singular spectacle would have been presented of the extinction of a church established by law" without "a statute expressly depriving it of its character as an establishment"—this because of indirect legislation counteracting the greed of the clergy. The Episcopalian intolerance of Roman Catholics does not appear in any brighter colors than in Prof. O'Gorman's Roman Catholic history in this ecclesiastical series. "Maryland" (it is again Dr. Hawks who is quoted) "presented the picture of a province founded for the sake of freedom of religious opinion by the toil and treasure of Roman Catholics, in which, of all who called themselves Christians, none save Roman Catholics were denied toleration." Meantime, "The Roman Catholics and dissenters looked with contempt on an establishment so profligate in some of its members that even the laity sought to purify it, and yet so weak in its discipline that neither clergy nor laity could purge it of offenders."

From Maryland the narrative passes to New England. The situation there is given admirably in the words of Gardiner, the English historian: "The problem, as it presented itself to men of that generation, was not whether they were to tolerate others, but whether they were to give others an opportunity to be intolerant to themselves." In colonies actuated by this principle the Episcopalians stood little chance of life and growth. The sea change which the Puritan temper suffered in crossing the Atlantic as affecting "our dear mother, the Church of England," is left quite as inexplicable as it has always been. Apart from the smaller numbers, the scandals of the clergy were much less numerous than in the South. Dr. Tiffany does not, with Dr. McConnell, credit the difference to the example of the Puritan clergy, but that example probably had much to do with it. At their best, however, the Episcopalian conies were a feeble folk; at the close of the Revolution there were but four Episcopal ministers in Massachusetts, and only six in all New England.

The Rhode Island section is one of the most interesting in the book, made so by the Bishop Berkeley episode and by the semi-civilization of Narragansett County, which had all the brilliant and superficial aspects of a Southern community—its slaves, its lavish hospitality, its festive cheer. At Providence, one of the baser sort came in, but he was "forced out of the church in time of service by an extraordinary gust of wind," and afterward "hall[d] out of the pulpit" by his people for breaking open the church door, and other irregularities. In New Hampshire and Maine the beginnings were extremely weak and slow. In Connecticut the dramatic incident was the simultaneous secession of the entire faculty of Yale College and one other Congregationalist minister from the Congregational to the Episcopal Church. It is true the faculty consisted in 1722 of the President and one tutor, but we have the authority of President Woolsey for believing that "greater alarm would scarcely be awakened now if the theological faculty of the college were to declare for the Church of Rome, avow their belief in transubstantiation, and pray to the Virgin Mary."

In the New York chapter (where the name of Jacob Leisler, the anti-Jacobin Revolutionist, is spelled "Leslie" every time), there are interesting details concerning the building of the first Trinity Church. Six pounds towards the steeple was contributed by Jews. Three hundred pounds which had been raised for the redemption of slaves in Algeria, and had not been spent because the slaves had escaped or died, was obtained from the town authorities, and the wardens were granted a commission for all "Weifts, Wrecks, and Drift-Whales." In New York the general conditions were much more favorable to the Episcopalians than in New England, and they succeeded before long in laying deep the foundations of that supremacy in the city which they still enjoy, thanks in good part to the enormous appreciation of lands given to Trinity Church in 1705—"the Queen's farm, a tract of land extending all along the river from the present site of St. Paul's Chapel to Christopher Street." The interest of the New Jersey origins centres in the personality of Thomas Talbot, a zealous missionary whose labors were as unselfish as they were incessant. He was an ardent advocate of American local bishoprics, and there is a rumor that he procured consecration for himself as Bishop of New Jersey. Dr. Tiffany agrees with the best authorities in discrediting this rumor, which is engraved upon Talbot's mural monument in St. Mary's Church in Burlington. But it is impossible to follow the course of Dr. Tiffany's narrative through all the colonies. In Georgia we encounter John Wesley at a time when he was a High Churchman of the extremest altitude and endowed with a plentiful lack of common sense. Dr. Tiffany is very kind to his melancholy failure, and not a little blind to Whitefield's horrible complicity in the introduction of slavery into the colony and in the partial support by slave-labor of the Orphanage whose founding was, we are told, "by far the most interesting and valuable act of Whitefield in Georgia."

Having concluded his survey of the colonial period, Dr. Tiffany sums up the history and its lessons in an effective manner. The disabilities were immense: thriftless or too thrifty and profligate clergymen, the lack of native ministers made compulsory by the necessity of their going to England for ordination, the lack of episcopal oversight and discipline. The attempts to procure bishops are recited, and the reasons operative against them are stated fairly; nowhere more so than in the words of the original Adams: "There is no power less than Parliament which can create bishops in America. But if Parliament can erect dioceses and appoint bishops, they may introduce the whole hierarchy, establish tithes, establish religion, forbid dissenters, make schism heresy, impose penalties extending to life and limb as

well as to liberty and property." It was the alliance of Church and State that handicapped the colonial Church in this particular, and indeed at almost every point. Entirely free from State control, it would have had a much more honorable career, a much more conspicuous success.

Dr. Tiffany's book is divided into two nearly equal parts: the colonial part extends to p. 289, and the part covering the period 1785–1895 to p. 560. In the second part we have first an elaborate study of the endeavors to organize the church simultaneously with the organization of the national Government. In these endeavors Dr. White of Philadelphia was the most active and controlling spirit, and yet the final outcome was not a little different from his original anticipations. Evidently the church was much less sensitive to traditional authority then than it is now, so radical the changes that were suggested in the prayer-book and in the government of the church, some of which, and not the least important, were finally adopted. The story of the struggle for episcopal consecration is retold through all the weary length of its amusing, strange, and sometimes sordid complications. It was certainly a queer performance for Seabury, an ardent loyalist, on British half-pay till his death in 1796, to obtain consecration from the Scotch non-juring bishops when the English bishops would not accommodate him. Evidently this action of the non-jurors forced the hand of the Anglicans, and it is interesting to note how narrowly the American sect escaped the loss of any foreign consecration whatsoever. The party was considerable who thought it could be dispensed with altogether, and, if it had been from necessity, the damage would perhaps have been repaired without much difficulty. But oh the difference to those whose hearts are stayed on the unbroken line of apostolical succession!

The organization of the church was not the signal for any sudden access of prosperity. The period from 1789 to 1811 is set down as "A Period of Suspended Animation." But the next twenty years were "A Period of Aroused Self-Consciousness and Aggression." Next came "A Period of Internal Conflict," the conflict incidental to the differences of High Church and Low and to the "Memorial" of Dr. Muhlenberg, looking to an extension of episcopal functions and a more elastic use of the church service. As between High Church and Low, Dr. Tiffany sails with an even keel. It would be difficult to say to which he more inclines. A more generous appreciation could not be had of either party from the most eager partisan. But when in the concluding part, 1865–1895, "A Period of Positive Advance," the Broad Church is described, the appreciation has a warmth of feeling which we cannot err in taking as an indication of the writer's individual position. The impression made by this description is confirmed by the beautiful and effective characterizations of Dr. Washburn and Phillips Brooks. These characterizations are two of many in the book that are extremely well conceived. Dr. Muhlenberg's "Memorial Movement" is called "a movement more significant than any other which has appeared in the Church's history," and the slow but sure appropriation by the church of the memorial ideas is heartily applauded.

In the treatment of the relations of the church to the nation during the war, Dr. Tiffany is more the ecclesiastical politician than he is anywhere else. "The Episcopal Church as an organization had from the beginning determined to keep aloof from party politics." But the slavery question was not a question of party politics. It was a great moral question divisive of the political parties. As much as possible is made of the apologetic resolution passed by the General Convention of 1862, promising the prayers of the church to the Government in its deadly peril. Concerning slavery the church as such was always silent, while individual clergymen were not wanting in downright opposition. A pathetic circumstance was the calling of the roll of all the bishops in the general conventions during the war, none answering from the South.

In the later history there are many interesting details on which we cannot touch. What we miss is any indication of influence upon the church, for good or ill, of the wonderful expansion of natural and critical science which has synchronized with the expansion of the church since 1865. Dr. Tiffany reserves for his climax a hopeful prophecy of the good times coming under the ægis of the "Quadrilateral" of the Lambeth conference. Judging from the action of the last General Convention, it would appear that the disposition of the Episcopalians to give up something of doctrine and observance, in order to gather the other sheep into their own fold, abates as time goes on.

RECENT FICTION.

A Lady of Quality. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Strangers at Lisconnel. By Jane Barlow. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Earth's Enigmas. By C. G. D. Roberts. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

The Gold Fish of Gran Chimú. By Charles F. Lummis. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

MRS. BURNETT shows bold confidence in a widespread ignorance of Queen Anne literature by announcing that her 'Lady of Quality' is "a most curious history, as related by Mr. Isaac Bickerstaff, but not presented to the World of Fashion through the pages of the *Tatler*." The history is most curious, and there is no denying that several of its incidents may have come within Dick Steele's experience. Mrs. Burnett's assurance of her public's insensibility to literary motive, manner, and style lies in the word *as*. If Mr. Bickerstaff ever related this history, he showed commendable discretion in withholding it from a paper the general purpose of which was "to recommend truth, innocence, honor, and virtue as the chief ornaments of life." If he ever related it *as* Mrs. Burnett has written it down, it must have been on a night when, foreseeing that he should not go home at all, he sent word apologetically early in the evening, winding up,

"I am, dear Prue, a little in drink, but at all times Yr Faithfull Husband,
RICHd STEELE."

The evidence against the Bickerstaff myth is strong, and one may fairly assume that 'The Lady of Quality' is a contemporary creation by a novelist not finical about matter fit for publication, scornful of the probabilities of character and logic of events, and vainly imagining that the eighteenth-century *cachet* is given by calling women "sluts" and "wenches," men "rakes" and "wild dogs," and by peppering the pages with "odzooks," "forsooth," and somewhat archaic adjectives such as "beauteous" and "roystering."

The Lady Clorinda Wildairs is introduced at birth, bawling at her dead mother. She is the ninth unwelcome daughter of a terrible Sir Geoffry and his inconveniently prolific wife. Why ninth it is impossible to guess, since the number is not proverbially fateful, and since six of the sisters already in the churchyard lie, having therefore nothing to do with the tale. For six years Clorinda lived between the kitchen and stable, during which time she learned to ride, to kick, and to curse with great volubility and precision. She made her first meeting with her father memorable by falling on him with a hunting-crop and "language which would have done credit to Doll Lightfoot herself." Charmed by her spirit and phrases, Sir Geoffry took her education under his personal supervision, with the result that at fifteen modesty was unknown to her and decency a word without meaning. Mrs. Burnett says that at this age she "was as worldly and familiar with the devices of intrigue as she would be at forty," and, further, that she was "no more ignorant than if she had been in with some gay young springald of a lad." Eighteenth-century springalds must have been very knowing boys if to measure them by Clorinda is no slander. These points being borne in mind, we see no reason why Clorinda, being unchaste, should not, to suit her interests, assume the loftiest virtue, and, much assisted in the enterprise by the beauty to the mere indication of which pages of superlatives are devoted, should not marry in succession a perfectly noble and virtuous earl and an unspeakably magnificent duke. It would be just like her, too, and like nobody else, to murder an inconvenient lover with her favorite implement of battle, a hunting-crop, to tuck him tidily under a sofa, and, in a splendor of jewels and brocade, to sit on him, so to speak, while, with inimitable self-possession, she received the whole world of fashion, including that benevolent censor, Mr. Addison.

In all this there is no inconsistency, and, though it is a pity, it might be true. But what is not true, what is grossly false to fact and, as fiction, weak, sentimental, and ridiculous, is the subsequent development of Clorinda. This development is supposed to justify the preceding narration and to point the moral. Such use of a scandalous tale marks, even more significantly than do the artificial manner and extravagant style, the wide, wide difference between Mr. Bickerstaff and Mrs. Burnett; it points to the amazing conclusion that Mrs. Burnett is not conscious of having exposed vice, but believes that, from the beginning, she is seriously occupied in delineating the progress of a possibly faulty mortal towards the glory of a full-blown angel. Such moral obliquity is too sad a subject to dwell upon, and the only relief is in the thought that even the feeblest minded reader may be saved from infection by the human instinct to reject a miracle to which the narrator has failed to give an air of veracity or even plausibility. The most serious result of the publication of 'A Lady of Quality' that need be anticipated is a deluge of publications from lady novelists all solemnly declaring that, in order to live long and happily and to achieve an epitaph recording superlative nobility and purity, it is quite imperative for a woman to commit every sin mentioned in the decalogue.

Hunger is doubtless painful to Ryans, Finegans, and Raffertys who carouse on a spoonful of tea and exchange jokes over the last potato, but it doesn't appear so, and that is one of the reasons why people may read 'Strangers at Lisconnel' at night and face destiny with some degree of cheerfulness next morning. All writers of Irish fiction emphasize the cheerfulness and wit of the peasantry, but Jane Bar-

low has a preëminent talent for showing these qualities as God-given compensations for centuries of struggle with dire poverty. It would almost seem that it is more by their unconsciously heroic philosophy than by their irrepressible combativeness that Irish peasants have been saved from perishing of despair. Miss Barlow's work is as natural and free from effort for literary effect as fiction can be without falling flat and dull. The incidents that enliven the changeless routine of life at Lisconnel are the passing by or temporary sojourn of a thieving tinker, a visionary scholar, a soldier, an idiot or "quare one." These incidents are less valuable for themselves than as a means of bringing out character and encouraging conversation in Lisconnel. The most noticeable points of character are kindness, family affection, and loyalty, and an inextinguishable interest in the neighbors, while the conversation is full of wit and plentifully seasoned with wisdom. The Irish have always been fortunate in writers of song and story capable of expressing the heart of the people, and never more so than in the case of Jane Barlow, whose work is both a profound and sympathetic study of Irish human nature and a notable contribution to fiction in the English language.

In the silent Canadian forests and sea-born Tantramar marshes one might hope, if anywhere, to be rid of 'Earth's Enigmas,' but it is just in these lonely, lovely places that Mr. Roberts has found riddles plentiful and profound: why unconsidered trifles are mile stones of destiny; why gratified ambition turns out Dead Sea fruit; why the happiness of young love is smitten in an instant by tragedy; why superstitions are often justified by facts, and why no man can always believe his own eyes or any evidence of his senses. Fortunately Mr. Roberts has not attempted to analyze the inscrutable or to explain the inexplicable. His tales are objective, tales of moral and physical courage, of accident from floods and high tides, of fights for life with wild beasts, and of terror, of supernatural omens and portents. His questions are matters of inference, and it is possible to read the tales without suspecting any far-reaching speculation. The incidents and scenes fit each other admirably, and the characterization is strong, clear, and interesting. Sometimes the beauties and wonders of nature are overwrought, but the defect is excused when we remember that a poet of nature is struggling with the limitations of a plain prose tale. Much more surprising than decorative excursions are the vivid presentation of rough and primitive people, and a vigorous directness at critical moments which we are accustomed to find only in very accomplished writers of prose fiction.

The incidents narrated in 'The Gold Fish of Gran Chimú' occupy a very short space of time, and are novel and touching. The moment chosen is that when independent seekers for buried treasure in the dust and mould of Chimú are expecting an order to desist, or else to go on at a price which shall benefit only the Peruvian Congress. "It's a fool's law, a thief's law—but if they pass it there it is. When I'm in a country I obey its laws, crazy though they be." So spoke the scientific American mummy-miner, and ordered his slaves to dig for all they were worth until it was known for certain that the obnoxious law had passed. "This law is meant to rob our few scholars of their collections; if one were to find even the *Pez Grande*, it would rob him even of that. There is no remedy; either to find it before the law shall pass or not at all." So sighed Don Beltran, the only gentleman of Peru who deigned to work, and himself descended into the pit in pursuit of the fabulous treasure which would redeem his fallen fortunes and scatter his enemies. Such integrity deserves reward and gets it, but not until the law-respecting scientist has shown his skill in the manly art of self-defence, and Don Beltran sounded the depths of despair. An entertaining sequence of incidents is as much as should be expected in a tale of strange adventure; here we have that, and, besides, the unexpected—the display of a great many emotions and passions and intellectual qualities. The spirit throughout is alert and gay, and the sympathy with delicately strung natures charming; even the literal translation of a foreign idiom (a very dangerous experiment) adds to the grace and naturalness of Mr. Lummis's tale.

BRUCE'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF VIRGINIA.—I.

Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century: An Inquiry into the Material Condition of the People, based upon Original and Contemporaneous Records. By Philip Alexander Bruce. Macmillan & Co. 1896. Map. 8vo, pp. xix, 634, 647.

VIRGINIA has not been fortunate in her historians. Among the earlier writers, Stith and Girardin possess merit, and the latter enjoyed the assistance of Jefferson. Among the later, Brown's 'Genesis of the United States' takes a high rank because of its original documents. Apart from these examples, the faults of superficial investigation, partially concealed by rhetoric or rhapsody, have marked the so-called histories, making a dreary and unprofitable field for the student unable to revert to the original records. It was in a questioning mood that we took up the volumes of Mr. Bruce, for they deal with the earliest periods of Virginia history—the first settlements and ninety years subsequent; periods which have been rendered hazy by tradition and surrounded by a halo of romance. As we read on, it soon became evident that the writer possessed and had applied unusual capabilities for performing his task. He is a Virginian, of keen observation, and not terrified by the drudgery of original investigation. Manuscript as well as printed authorities have been carefully studied, and this labor has resulted in what must be regarded as the best record of the early economic development of a colony, the best history of the early agricultural growth of any State in the Union. As a mere history it would stand high; as a description of the economic system of Virginia it possesses even greater merits, explaining, as it does, by this method Virginia's peculiar place in the colonial system of the seventeenth century. Even more truly is it an essential contribution to our national history; for in early Virginia, devoted to the culture of a single commercial crop, and drifting into the employment of slave labor only, are to be found the germs of that institution which determined the political and commercial position of the South in the Union until overthrown by the civil war.

Lest this judgment be considered too high, it may be well to point out a few instances where the author's enthusiasm for his subject has carried him into excess of statement. The question of the trustworthiness of Captain John Smith may be regarded as an open one. He is one of the first, and, indeed, most interesting writers on the condition of the early settlement; but it seems to us that Mr. Bruce accepts too implicitly the early chroniclers. Virginia, as described by them, is a very garden spot, with boundless agricultural possibilities. But these men were sent out by a company which was formed for profit, and it was their interest to paint as pleasing a picture as they knew how. Their letters and pamphlets are to be taken with allowance, and rather as "circulars of information for intending emigrants" than as scientific records of actual conditions. It is not till they mistake the caterpillar for the silkworm (i., 368) that Mr. Bruce offers a warning against the exaggeration of the early notions. Even after eighty years of planting, the settled parts of the colony "bore the aspect of a wilderness."

Another excess of Mr. Bruce is in the multitude of detail with which he surrounds each division of his subject. This is an amiable excess, and it may truly be said that the author is never overwhelmed by his facts to the obscuring of his narrative. The wide research and admirable combination of material prove what he can do; but the reader is at times repelled by a too minute regard for what is incidental to the subject. This has involved a danger of losing the sense of relative importance of matter. Individual instances are heaped up in the case of secondary as well as of primary topics. In this direction Mr. Bruce's labors have been so exhaustive as to leave little for those who may work over the same territory.

In the large number of topics covered by Mr. Bruce, two easily lead in interest, the culture of tobacco and the system of labor. Had the soil of Virginia, easily obtained by barter or force from the Indians, been as generally fertile as the early settlers represented it, and had the planters enjoyed favorable markets, we might have looked for a varied agriculture. Having satisfied their own immediate needs for food, they had few markets for grain, while it was soon found that in tobacco they had a staple export at once profitable and easily marketed. The Indian had cultivated the plant with success, and John Rolfe, who married Pocahontas, was the first colonist to attempt its growth. Within four years the plant had become one of the great crops of the colony, and in 1617 was cultivated even in the streets and market-place of Jamestown. It was soon the only crop, the measure of value and medium of exchange, an object of legislative solicitude, and a monopolizer of colonial effort. The "right" of planting was discussed. The number of stalks to the family, the distance between stalks and number of leaves to the stalk, the size of hogsheads, and the mode of inspecting the dried leaves, were some of the details regulated by law in an attempt to restrict the product and improve its quality. The culture influenced the taking up of the land whose fertility it exhausted, and sustained the entire social system of the settlements, together with their external relations.

This concentration of effort upon a single commodity led to important results. The planter, seeking his own gain, increased his production to such an extent that the marketable crop was generally in excess of what English consumption required, and he was obliged to look elsewhere for a sale of the excess. On the other hand, no effort of King or Parliament to create a market could keep pace with the increasing production. The importation into England of Spanish leaf, a better article than the Virginian, was restricted or pro-

hibited; the planting of tobacco in England was rigorously forbidden. Two policies, however, prevented an equilibrium in this trade. The King must have his customs, and to secure that the planter was enjoined from disposing of his tobacco in any market other than the English. The merchant marine must be encouraged, and for that the planter must ship in English vessels. It was, then, not to a free market that the Virginian brought his goods; he was not free to choose his market or his carrier, or to fix his price. That was all done for him by law and by custom, by tariff regulations, and by agents or factors acting at a distance and too irresponsible to feel the full sense of duty to their clients. Lastly, with his production regulated by colonial laws, his sales hampered by English policy, the planter could be made to suffer for his loyalty, as when he proclaimed the son of the beheaded Charles, and could be made to pay for the extravagances of the King or his representative in the colony, or for the profit of the merchant who held a lien on his future crops. All competition except among the planters themselves was destroyed.

Such a system was too oppressive, and led to evasion and smuggling, the natural protests against arbitrary laws so contrary to real interest. In 1663 the loss to the English customs on tobacco shipped to Holland was estimated to be ten thousand pounds sterling a year, and every enforcement of the customs and navigation laws brought a threat of ruin to the planter. The price of his product sank to less than a penny a pound, and Maryland competed on such terms as to place him at a disadvantage, rendering nugatory all efforts to restrict production. The prices fluctuated widely from year to year, and no forecast of market could be made. Beginning with 1680 a crisis was reached, and, in the general desperation, riots were fostered, resulting in the destruction of plants in the vain hope of affecting prices. Later the value of tobacco did increase, and the planter secured some advantage. Year after year passed with nothing to depend upon save this lottery of tobacco-culture. Throughout the century the authorities sought by rewards and threats to induce some diversity of crops, such as hemp, flax, the vine, or silk. Liberal bounties were offered and skilled workers specially imported to serve as pioneers and teachers. All was in vain. The planter preferred to live miserably by tobacco rather than in comfort by any other means, and was rich or poor according to the price of this staple. In its consequences there could be no better illustration of the evils of state interference with economic law than the attitude of Parliament, merchant, and planter towards the tobacco plant.

German Songs of To-day. Edited, with an introduction and literary notes, by Alexander Tille, Lecturer on the German Language and Literature in the University of Glasgow. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

It is the purpose of this volume, as stated in the preface, "to provide American students of German literature with a representative selection from the lyrics of the New Empire." In the rapid evolution of natural science and the interest in social problems, the editor recognizes the two mental factors which determine the character of modern German lyrics and distinguish them from the romantic poetry prior to 1870. It is, of course, absurd to maintain that any segment of the circle of human interests is insusceptible of poetic treatment, for this proposition, as Pater has said, is "always liable to be discredited by the facts of artistic production." This volume, however, contains no "facts" tending to discredit such a proposition with regard to science and sociology. Indeed, it would seem that our so-called modern tendencies have been peculiarly unfortunate in the quality of their exponents, and it is the ungracious duty of responsible criticism to condemn the present collection of songs as depressing and unwholesome, in no true sense representative, and altogether repugnant to lovers of the high-minded muse whose function heretofore has been to elevate, to purify, and to delight.

Probably no collection of poems was ever brought together which did not, both by sins of omission and of commission, offend those most familiar with the field covered. This book will not prove an exception. Many a lyric gem and many an honored name will be missed. None of the poems is to be found here which have endeared the fine-grained and entirely modern poet Ferdinand von Saar to the hearts of his countrymen, nor is there any example of the strong and simple verse of Johanna Ambrosius, a modern among moderns, whose name is now known in every German home. On the other hand, there are poems here which, for various reasons, we think ought not to have been included. There are some strong poems, but they are painful; clever ones which are cold; pretty ones but feeble; and others, although of excellent workmanship, are most unpleasantly flavored. Some are not poems at all, but merely versified documents. What place, for instance, in a book of songs have the rhymed aphorisms of Nietzsche and his German editor, Fritz Koegel? Their presence is explained, but not excused, by the fact that Mr. Tille has charge of the English edition of Nietzsche's works.

In this circumstance we have the explanation, also, of the unrefreshing atmosphere which pervades most of the book. Under the pretentious heading "Modern Life," our attention is directed to drunkenness, disease, and death. The voice of the "under-paid and over-worked" is heard again, shriller and less touching, more sociological and less poetic, but as dreary and hopeless as when it sang the "Song of the Shirt." "Modern Love" is presented to us largely as an affair of the senses, and some even of the more delicate love lyrics seem to be accompanied by a significant wink. Otto Hartleben displays a marked distaste for men who never got drunk at midnight nor yielded to the solicitations of dark eyes. But we look in vain for some dim reflection of the playful grace of Goethe's "Morgenklagen" or Philine's song, which alone can rescue the frankly erotic lyric from repulsive mediocrity. The third rubric is "Modern Thought." Modern thought seems to consist for the most part of pessimistic sentiments of a strongly anti-Christian tendency. Indeed, the hatred which some of these young poets manifest towards God and the institutions founded in his name is extreme. Here, too, we miss the saving charm: there is none of that fierce indignation at God's injustice which lends to the defiant outbursts of Omar Khayyám their Promethean dignity. These are rather the utterances of young and unformed minds, boasting of their intellectual strength.

That this collection does represent certain phases of German life and thought during the last twenty-five years cannot be denied. These tendencies, however, do not characterize the period. They are aberrations, ending sometimes in imbecility, of which in our own day examples are not lacking, or correcting themselves in the sobering process of the years. To select the poems of hot-headed youths and middle-aged gentlemen with diseased wits as representative, is to wrong literature much as some of our American cities wrong municipal government by electing incompetent and semi-criminal men to represent the body of just citizens. It is encouraging to hear from many lands the protest against an opinion which, by reason of insistent iteration, has been gaining ground, that our end of the century is distinguished from other times by its materialism, pessimism, and hot clamoring for "a freer life of love." These things are neither new nor specifically representative; degeneration is not endemic, and Germany still has poets who can give utterance to her nobler and truer aspirations.

Mr. Tille's introduction is ingenious and thoughtful, and he has made an honest effort to render justice to the uplifting tendencies in German thought. Accordingly the book contains some genuine poetry, but most of it was written by men of the last generation. Fontane's "Die Brück' am Tay" is a spirited poem which thrills with the terror of that great disaster, and haunts the imagination with its weird rush. Two or three pretty love lyrics reveal the grace of a day which is not yet dead, and now and then is heard an earnest voice which speaks for decency and duty. But the sad feature of the volume is that its compiler seems to feel no repugnance for the age of which he presents a lyric portrait so unlovely, nor does he seem to be conscious that the life of the new Empire could have had any better exponents. One would think that a scholar who considers Arno Holz the greatest lyrical genius the Empire has yet produced, would have preferred to edit the poems of another time or people. Goethe, who judged his countrymen with sober objectivity, advised:

"Freunde, treibet nur alles mit Ernst und Liebe; die beiden
Stehen dem Deutschen so schön, den, ach! so vieles entstellt."

It is the German in his disfigurement to whom Mr. Tille has introduced us.

Lectures on the Council of Trent, delivered at Oxford, 1892-'93, by James Anthony Froude. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

The fruits of Mr. Froude's Oxford professorship are now being given to the public. The present lectures, although the earliest of the three courses which he was allowed to complete, are the last to see the light. There are thirteen of them, twelve intended for the usual academic audience and the last for the general lecture-hearing public. In fact, this distinction might as well have passed without mention, for Mr. Froude's manner is never academic. Even more than in the case of the lectures on Erasmus, one is led to wonder just what serious students could do with these. Seven of the twelve lectures do not touch the Council at all, but are a review of the general conditions of Europe and of the course of events leading up to the eventual proclamation of the Council. It is in general reviews of this sort that Mr. Froude is always at his best. His strength is not in the careful weighing of historical evidence, nor in the detail of a continuous narrative, but rather in the skill with which he presents one side of a great question, and groups in this presentation all the aspects of a given time which favor his view. Any one familiar with

his method might almost have predicted just what he would say here. It is the well-known touch-and-go process, without reference to authority, without pretence of non-partisanship, but, after all, with great steadiness in the underlying purpose.

On the whole, one must admit that the point of view is in the main sound and clear. The estimate of the dangers to Europe from the overgrown Catholic system is at all events supported by so vast an array of facts that it no longer needs apology. One-sided this presentation doubtless is, but it is a side that has at least a right to be boldly and strongly stated. If there be something grotesque in the idea of Mr. Froude as a teacher of youth in historical method, it ought to be remembered that his academic honors were a matter of very late adoption, and that the standards of academic appointment (at the English universities) in the field of history have seldom been very exacting.

The most vivid impression one gets from those lectures which treat of the Council itself is that of the deep-seated opposition between the strict curial party and the numerous interests of the Church as represented elsewhere. For instance, the ancient antagonism between the Curia and the episcopate—an opposition never to be overcome and never even dogmatically disposed of until the Vatican Council—is emphasized here at every point. Further, the national interest, especially as represented by Charles V., is given credit for all it deserves in its efforts, ineffectual though they were, to keep the curial party from its greatest extravagances. Charles is plainly the author's hero, and this not merely for the sake of the causes he is promoting, but for the qualities of the man himself. He is the one person in the great drama of the Council who seems to estimate justly the multitudinous forces of European politics and feeling. He, above all others, demands the Council, and he keeps his hand upon it, through his representatives, both at the Council itself and at the Curia. His failure to influence it was, perhaps, as much as anything else the cause of that break-down in his working powers which drove him from the stage just when a strong hand seemed most sorely needed.

The volume on the Council can hardly attain the popularity of that on Erasmus, since it lacks the element of unity, and does not make up for it by any amplitude of detail which might commend it to the student seeking information as to the tangled diplomacy of the late Reformation period.

Military Letters and Essays. By Capt. F. N. Maude, R. E.—*Cavalry Studies from Two Great Wars.* [International Military Series. Edited by Capt. A. L. Wagner, U. S. A.] Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Co. 8vo, pp. 303, 267.

Capt. Wagner is doing a service to military students in making use of his opportunities as instructor at the Leavenworth Infantry and Cavalry School of the Army to edit and republish papers on the art of war which have attracted serious attention in Europe and in this country. Of the two volumes named above, the first is a series of papers written by Capt. Maude, late of the Royal Engineers, for the benefit of officers of the Bengal service when he was on duty in India. As a whole, his papers were intended to be critiques upon the actual condition of the art of war in tactics and in weapons, with special inquiries whether the assumed lessons of the Franco-German war are those which it in fact should teach, and whether the General Staff of Germany agree with the English authorities in respect to such teaching.

Captain Maude knows his own mind, and his handling of his topics is that of a man with strong mental grasp of his subject who has reached clear ideas about it, and is dead in earnest in warning his countrymen that they are running after theories which the best military brains of the Continent have repudiated. This is especially his contention as to the current notion in English military circles that the war of 1870 established the superior value of extended-order fighting (practically skirmishing) over that of the line in two ranks in which the line officers can retain personal control of movements by that direct command and discipline which is lost when the soldier is released from the duty of keeping his place and his gait. Our own civil war had shown the disadvantages of attack in deep and narrow columns, and the absolute necessity of a more extended formation; but it was a common criticism among our officers who saw the fighting in the Franco-German war that, in many instances, the advancing lines became practically disorganized and more nearly a mob than a military unit. They lost the mobility of a body by seeking too much the mobility of the individual. In short, they had carried our extended order to an absurd and self-destructive extreme. In the desire to avoid the heavy losses of a too compact formation under fire, they had sacrificed the ability to *handle* troops with that unity of will and of action which is the soul of military power.

Captain Maude shows by his own examination of the French and German manœuvres, especially the latter, that the German staff had recognized the error, and is using a modified system of field tactics which keeps the advancing line much better in hand, and puts it nearly upon the system which our most intelligent officers had developed in 1864-5. He has illustrated his argument by widely varied studies, both of examples in the battles of 1870 and of recent field manœuvres on a large scale. He gives most interesting notes, also, of his observation at these manœuvres of the actual changes brought about by the use of smokeless powder. He finds that it does not, as was anticipated, conceal the combatants' positions, for the vivid flash of the artillery and of the musketry punctuates the setting of the lines more exactly, for an alert observer, than any smoke puff could do. No one pretending to keep abreast of progress in military studies can afford to neglect these essays. They are both able and bright, always *pat* upon the true point of discussion, and as stimulating when one differs from the author as when one agrees with him.

The second volume, the Cavalry Studies, is made up of three elaborate papers: The French Cavalry in 1870, by Lieutenant-Colonel (now General) Bonie of the French Dragoons, translated by Lieutenant C. F. Thompson of the Seventh Hussars; The German Cavalry at Vionville and Mars-la-Tour, by Major Kaehler of the German General Staff, translated by Lieutenant Reichmann of the Ninth Infantry, U. S. A.; and The Operations of the Cavalry in the Gettysburg Campaign, by Lieutenant-Colonel George B. Davis, U. S. A. The French and German papers are peculiarly valuable because they deal with the same war and with the same engagements, so as to give vivid pictures from the opposed points of view, but with, in the main, concurring criticism upon the unreadiness and the antiquated methods of the Second Empire. Colonel Davis's paper is a republication of his excellent essay to show, in connection with the others, how far our own cavalry had learned from experience, by 1863, the lessons the French studied bitterly seven years afterward.

We wish that Capt. Wagner had had enough faith in the success which his enterprise richly deserves to give the volumes more complete and attractive form from the standpoint of book-making. To issue such books without an index is a sin against the class of readers who will gain most profit from them, and who will long for an easy mode of reference to each criticism and to each fact, each incident of each field, and each organization and officer whose movements and whose conduct point the argument. Then some maps for the first volume are a necessity. The four in the second are admirable, and if a similar number of good ones had been inserted in the first, its value would have been multiplied. If only a single good topographical map of the vicinity of Aldershot had been given to illustrate Capt. Maude's excellent description of the sham battle of the English troops there, it would have been a boon to the reader and made the reading much more profitable. We would fain believe it would have made the publication more profitable also.

Russian Politics. By Herbert M. Thompson, M.A. Henry Holt & Co.

Mr. Thompson is a member of the English Society of Friends of Russian Freedom, of which there is a branch in this country, and of which he furnishes the circular and an appeal in an appendix. To those who are acquainted with the views, objects, and methods of this society, this suggestion sufficiently indicates the tone of the book—in a measure. We say "in a measure," because, on the whole, the author is inclined to stop short of offensively partisan denunciations. Nevertheless, had he exercised a little more reserve in that particular, had he not seized upon opportunities for strong expression on matters where much more information is needed than is at the command of a foreigner who has neither visited nor studied Russia, his book would have been much stronger and more valuable. We assume, from the internal evidence, that he has not been in Russia, and that his information has been obtained exclusively from the books which he quotes and from one of the Russian exiles now established in England. It would have been more fair to give the other side a hearing in court before passing a final, condemnatory verdict, or to have refrained from comment altogether, and rested the case on the evidence quoted. One point must be mentioned, to the author's honor: he gives the source of his information in every case, and the hints thus afforded to the reader who desires to study any special phase of the question in greater detail are very useful. The volume is, in fact, a compilation, and one of the best compilations which we have seen for a long time. There is nothing abrupt or scrappy about it. Its five maps, which show the ethnographical distribution of the population, the natural agricultural zones, the Jewish pale of settlement, the genealogy of the imperial family, Russia before the time of Peter the Great, and the final partition of Poland, are of great value and interest to any one who studies Russian topics.

But Mr. Thompson makes mistakes which are incompatible with a profound knowledge of Russian history and with personal knowledge of the country. On p. 20, for example,

he says: "The middle of the thirteenth century saw their [the Tatar] invading hosts devastating with fire and sword as far north as Novgorod." The Tatars never got to "Lord Novgorod the Great," and that haughty republic remained unconquered until the time of Ivan the Terrible, when that Tsar humiliated it, three centuries after the date here mentioned. On p. 38 we read: "The building of the Kremlin at Moscow was begun under Ivan III. The Kremlin takes the place, in the chief Russian cities, that the Acropolis did in those of ancient Greece; but as Russia is a flat land, the Kremlin could not be stationed, as the Acropolis used to be, crowning a hill and overlooking the city." Russia is, on the whole, a flat country; but Moscow is built on a series of undulating hills, of which the one crowned by the Kremlin, as it overlooks the city, is the highest. The Kremlin of Nizhni-Novgorod, also, is on a hill. It would be well, in a second edition, to correct such errors as Stephen *N*avorski, for Yavorski; General *O*renteln, for Drenteln; Biren *and the* Duke of Courland, for Biren, Duke of Courland; Schlusseburg, for Schlusselburg—errors which have, probably, their origin in the American version, as well as *The Christs*, for *the Christ's*. The description of the Russian church as "that woodenly formal pietism," and so forth, is neither true nor kind; and the reader's mind involuntarily reverts to the law which prevents the accession to the throne of England of a Roman Catholic when he meets this sentence: "According to a barbarous custom which still obtains, a princess marrying the heir to the Russian throne undergoes 'conversion' to the Greek communion, and is very often rechristened by another name." Such a remark, on the part of an Englishman, is decidedly indiscreet—it lays him open to retort, and it contains an untruth: no one who belongs to a Christian church and has received baptism therein is ever "re-christened" on entering the Russian Church, though the future Empresses do receive names which their subjects can master, after saints whose festivals can be celebrated, for the enjoyment and repose of the people. The author makes one good point, in his discussion of the peasant. He says: "The average consumption of alcohol in Russia is less per head than in western European countries, which seems to dispose of the idea that the Russian peasant spends his substance in riotous living, and ruins himself by excessive drinking."

The authorities which our author quotes are of very varied quality, and from each he draws what he requires to enforce his argument—and, generally, only that. Such a book must, of necessity, present a one-sided view of matters; but its interest is undeniable. One wonders whether an Englishman or an American would relish or respect a book on his own country made up on the same principle, and whether the printing and reading world would not breathe a sigh of relief if only those people who really know Russia were permitted to write and dogmatize about it, or compile tomes from other tomes about it!

Southern Quakers and Slavery: A Study in Institutional History. By Stephen B. Weeks, Ph.D. [Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.] Baltimore. 1896.

THE title of Dr. Weeks's book has the merit of understatement. He has really prepared, with great industry, a summary account of Quaker settlements at the South, their rise and decline, in connection with their relations to slavery and a consequent migration to the Northwest. It is only on p. 198 that the title recurs, as the heading of the ninth chapter. The proverbial dryness of Quaker annals has been felt and expressed by this investigator, but he has contrived to make his narrative anything but dull, and the work as a whole, with its map, is a valuable contribution to our religious and political history. That the Southern Quakers, as soon as they had completely divorced themselves from slaveholding (which was not till after the Revolution), were in a delicate position may be inferred. They threw their weight in favor of modifying the statutes directed against emancipation, and evaded them in a manner by assigning their own freedmen to a committee which held them till it could transport them to the North. In a society, however, whose normal condition was one of war between the dominant and the subject race, the Quakers, as men of peace, had no proper place. If they remained, they had to contrive a *modus vivendi* with the institution which they detested (pp. 242, 297), and whose growing power, both State and national, forbade them to expect any enlargement of their own denomination by accessions from the North. "There was found to be but one effective protest against the system—migration." Their material inducement to remain after the country north of the Ohio was fairly thrown open to settlement was much diminished, and in the end a great movement from the seaboard to that fertile region took place in the wake of the freedmen already dispatched thither. Dr. Weeks traces these shiftings with certainty and particularity. What follows belongs to the history of the "Underground Railway," for in Indiana and Ohio the newcomers were at liberty to speed the fugitive on his way to Canada, and this liberty they used while braving the terrors of the constitutional power which was on the side of the oppressor. In Georgia and South Carolina the Quaker societies have quite gone out of sight; in Virginia they reckon but a few hundreds; in North Carolina they still count for something, though this State was foremost in the migration.

> "The largest and most progressive meetings found in North Carolina to-day are not among the representatives of the native stock, but among those who came in from the North during the eighteenth century. . . . Most of these new settlers were from Pennsylvania, but some had delayed a few years in Maryland; some were from New Jersey, and some from Nantucket. . . . [Their] motive was distinctly economic. Their movement is parallel to that of the Scotch-Irish" (pp. 95, 96).

Among these, from Pennsylvania, was the family from which sprang Samuel M. Janney, the historian, most prolific of Southern Quaker writers; from Nantucket, the stock of Levi Coffin, whose active aid to fugitives after he removed to Cincinnati is related in his Reminiscences; from New Jersey, the kinsmen of Benjamin Lundy. The manumission societies formed in North Carolina from 1816 to 1835 were supported though not controlled by Quakers. Some of those in North Carolina were organized by Charles Osborn, others (as also in Virginia) by Lundy. Osborn was a native of North Carolina, who removed near the end of the last century to Tennessee, where he began his anti-slavery labors. These, though not to be despised, do not entitle him to Dr. Weeks's excessive praise as "one of the greatest of the anti-slavery agitators." His main service was in paving the way, by his *Philanthropist*, for Lundy, upon whose appearance Osborn fades into the background. Nor was the latter "the first man in America to proclaim the doctrine of immediate and unconditional emancipation." That high honor belongs to the Rev. George Bourne, and he an Englishman.

Dr. Weeks would probably have dwelt more upon Lundy's labors had our Jerseyman been a Southern Quaker. It would have been interesting to note, in connection with the certificates (in 1802) from South River, Va., to "Concord Monthly Meeting, Northwest Territory [Ohio]," that it was precisely to this meeting that Benjamin Lundy was dismissed in 1809 from Hardwick and Mendham Meeting, N. J., instead of to Westland, Pennsylvania, as first contemplated; Westland being a stopping-place for the Ohio migration. Dr. Weeks enables us to perceive that Lundy's new associations were with Friends fresh from the pit of slavery, and hence calculated to arouse his interest in the subject and to ground him in his abhorrence of the system. We may also remark that Thomas Lundy removed in 1796 from Ringwood Monthly Meeting, N. J., to Westfield, N. C. Dr. Weeks records migrations from this monthly meeting to Ohio, though no Lundy is among them; but the name occurs on the list from Mount Pleasant.

Theoretical Chemistry. By Walter Nernst, Ph.D. Translated by Charles Skeele Palmer, Ph.D. Macmillan. Pp. xxvi+697.

KNOWLEDGE of the general laws and conditions of chemical change has made enormous advances, the last few years, through the systematic study of the interrelation of physical and chemical phenomena; and Physical Chemistry, practically a new branch of science, is the result. Hence the "Theoretical Chemistry" of to-day is a very different thing from that of only ten years ago. Not only are its bounds much extended, but the point of view is largely new, and one from which a more comprehensive survey and wider generalizations are possible.

Dr. Nernst's work, in the original, met with a most hearty reception in Germany and among those who keep in touch with German science, to whom the author's reputation as a brilliant worker in his chosen field was well known. It gives a clear and critical account of the achievements and principles of physical chemistry. Without aiming at such a complete record of data as is given in Ostwald's 'Lehrbuch,' Dr. Nernst has endeavored to present a thorough description of those results which possess the most general significance or give promise of attaining it, and of those hypotheses which have thus far proved of value. Hence a great mass of material which now has only historical interest is omitted. The Rule of Avogadro, "which seems to be an almost inexhaustible 'horn of plenty' for the molecular theory," and the Doctrine of Energy, are fittingly emphasized as the most important foundations in the theoretical discussion of chemical phenomena.

The subject is divided into four "books," whose titles will indicate in a rough way the scope of theoretical chemistry at the present day. Book I. is on "The Universal Properties of Matter," and has chapters on the gaseous, the liquid, the solid states of aggregation, the physical mixture, and dilute solutions; Book II., on "Atom and Molecule," deals with the theories of atomic and molecular constitution of matter, the determination of molecular weights, the constitution and structure of the molecule, dissociation of gases, electrolytic dissociation, etc.; Book III., on "The Transformation of Matter," includes chemical statics and

kinetics; and Book IV., on "The Transformations of Energy," discusses thermo-, electro-, and photo-chemistry. The work is an exceedingly successful presentation of a difficult subject, and is characterized by thorough mastery and marked independence of treatment. It is full of suggestiveness and stimulus to the student of chemistry.

On account of its sterling value we were prepared to welcome a translation which should render it accessible to English-speaking chemists whose German is weak or wanting; but we must confess to a feeling of great disappointment when we opened the volume before us. It is a pity that the translation should not have fallen to a more competent hand. The translator's knowledge of the two languages involved in the transaction unfortunately appears hardly adequate to the task he set himself. In a treatise dealing with such abstruse subjects, and one not merely to be read but studied, clearness and accuracy of statement are of the first importance. While the German of Dr. Nernst offers little ground for criticism in these respects, Dr. Palmer's translation is faulty to a degree which makes the book hard reading and tries the patience of the student to the limit. In his preface the translator says: "Regarding the translation, I have been guided solely by the aim to combine fidelity to the original with clearness in good English." "Fidelity to the original," according to Dr. Palmer's method, consists in painstaking, literal rendering of the German, sentence by sentence, phrase by phrase; a method which, as every student of German knows, cannot result in "good" and idiomatic English. We note also that he intimates some uncertainty of his qualifications as a translator in adding: "I am very largely indebted to the assistance of . . . in the attempt to make the sound German speak good English. The translation is submitted to the [*hoffentlich*] kindly criticism of both colleagues and students."

No criticism is really kindly which fails to point out defects. And it is in no unkindly spirit that we call attention to the shortcomings of this translation, but in the discharge of the simple duty which the reviewer owes to the public. The melancholy truth of the strictures which have been made on this translation is abundantly demonstrated by the following examples:

"If one can diminish at pleasure the adaptable volume of a definite amount of a simple gas, by increasing the external pressure, the pressure, exerted by the gas on the surrounding walls, grows continually with the diminution of volume; if one works at a temperature sufficiently reduced, there suddenly comes a point at which, by diminishing the volume, the pressure experiences no increase, but remains constant." (Page 47.)

"The question whether a well-defined chemical substance represents an element or a compound of several different elements, and in the latter case to what extent each element is contained in unit weight of the substance, this is a problem of a purely experimental nature," etc. (Page 151.)

"The fact that the molecule consists of one atom, in the case of only a few elements, where the atomic and molecular weights are identical with each other, such not being the case for all the elements, this occasions only passing doubts," etc. (Page 153.)

"Suppose that we believe, not only as has been emphasized in accordance with experience thus far, that the mutual saturation capacity is almost unlimited; but also, inasmuch as all ponderable matter attracts other matter mutually, without regard to its properties, so let us regard every two lines of force, called valences (from different atoms), under suitable circumstances, as showing only mutual action, irrespective of whichever atoms they radiate from; then it is very probable that the intensity of this action from its nature," etc. (Page 241.)

These specimens, taken almost at random, show in what measure Dr. Palmer has succeeded in his attempt "to make the sound German speak good English." They are almost worthy of a place beside the illustrations of "School English" which have recently been offered to the readers of the *Nation*.

Dr. Nernst's meaning can undoubtedly be extracted from such passages as the above by a devoted student; in other instances, however, the reader is misled by greater and more subtile obscurity, or actual mistranslation. For example: "For supposing that . . . some genius had gained an insight into the kinetic gas theory, a little before the gas laws themselves were discovered (*vor ihrer Entdeckung wenigstens zum Theil vorausgesehen hätte*); even then, as a matter of fact, the way . . . had to be levelled down by much painstaking endeavor (*in Wirklichkeit aber haben viele mühevolle Forschungen den Weg ebnen müssen*)." (Page 355.) "This ratio of the relative quantities will remain constant, even if one should wait seventeen (!) years (*dieses Mengenverhältniss blieb constant, auch als man 17 Jahre wartete*)." (Page 376.) The translator's exclamation-point is pertinent.

We add a few further illustrations of the infelicitous expressions and renderings with which the book abounds. On page 238 we are told, in regard to certain changes of affinity, that "we usually are entirely ignorant as to the whereabouts of the cause." On page 267, "This [support] sits on a heavy tripod base." On page 457 is "a pendulum which is well muffled." On page 237 "we go into a region . . . which can only be reached by a leap of a bold phantasy." *Beliebig* is sometimes "casual," sometimes "arbitrary," and again "selected." *Auftrieb* becomes "resistance"; *passiren* (traverse) is "pass by"; *mattgeschliffen* is "smoothly ground"; *zu Stande kommen*, "come to a pause"; *Sperrflüssigkeit*, "packing liquid"; *wird aber wohl nirgends leichter gemacht*, "can be easily made now or never." We find also, "nature laws," "knifepointfuls," "mass-points," "play-space" (of the molecules), and "heat-toning" (*Wärmetönung*) for thermal value.

With the publisher rests the real responsibility for the appearance of so unsatisfactory a translation. It cannot be too often repeated that, for the sake of his reputation, and for the protection of the public on whom that reputation depends, a publisher should exercise at least as much caution in the acceptance of a translation as of an original work. The translation of such a treatise as this of Nernst's must of course be the work of one who possesses a thorough mastery of the subject; but the expert should also be known to have the ability to reproduce the matter of the original in clear and idiomatic English. This is obvious enough, but in the present instance it has been strangely neglected.

The Journal of Captain William Pote, Jr., during his Captivity in the French and Indian War, from May, 1745, to August, 1747. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. xxxvii, 223. Portraits and maps.

A CONTRIBUTION of some importance has been made to the original sources of our colonial history through the publication of this journal, found in manuscript by Mr. J. F. Hurst in a book store in Geneva, Switzerland. The author, Capt. Wm. Pote, jr., of Falmouth, Maine, was taken prisoner near Annapolis Royal in Nova Scotia, which was then beleaguered by a large force of French and Indians, and was carried to Quebec, where he remained for two years in close confinement. Considering the circumstances under which the first and most interesting half—giving a description of the incidents of the march through the Maine wilderness—was written, it is a remarkable production, showing considerable literary power as well as quaint humor. The most important passage for historical purposes is the detailed account of the fight in Tatmagouche Bay, by which Capt. David Donahew turned back a force of several hundred French and Indians who were on their way to relieve Louisburg. This exploit, of which little notice has been taken by the historians, certainly hastened the fall of that place, if it was not the occasion of it. Mr. Parkman refers to the dismay of the governor and garrison at the non arrival of M. Marin's troops, but does not mention the cause of his failure. An account of the fight, however, is given in the official report of the governor, printed in the appendix to 'A Half-Century of Conflict.'

The latter half of the journal, narrating the incidents of the writer's prison life, is largely taken up with the names of the new prisoners brought in and of those who died. The largest number confined at one time was 296, and the deaths were 77. There were also marriages and births among the captives, and occasionally the monotony of their prison-life was broken by some notable incident, as the following entry shows:

"12th this Day as we was at dinner Came Into our Room Jno Simson a man yt have been In this place about 2 Years and one Susanah Boillison yt was taken with Capt Salter, these 2 have desiered mr Norton to marrey them Severel times, But having no permission from ye General, he always Refused ym therefore they came and Stood in ye middle of ye Room hand in hand before ye minister as he Sat at dinner and Declard they took Each other as man and wife In ye Presence of God and us witneses after which they had a Certificate drawn and we all Signd it Viz 12 ye minister on y° top and all y° Rest of us under him, this was y° first time I Ever Saw ye like Encouragement and permission Given, for whoreing."

There are numerous notes, explanatory of names of persons and places, as well as an historical introduction by Mr. V. H. Paltsits. We have detected a slight error in his account of Gov. Mascarene. The commander of his regiment, raised not "for service in the West Indies," but for the expedition against Port Royal, was not Col. Wanton, but Col. Shadrach Walton of New Hampshire. Accompanying the volume is an admirable reproduction of the manuscript map in the Lenox Library, made in 1749 at Gov. Shirley's request, by the surveyor Charles Morris, "of the northern English Colonies, together with the French neighboring Settlements." There are also a route-map, plans, facsimiles and portraits, and an excellent index. Of the beauty of the mechanical execution of this product of the De Vinne Press it is hard to speak in too high praise.

Pierres Gravées des Collections Marlborough et d'Orléans, etc, réunies et rééditées avec un texte nouveau par Salomon Reinach. Paris: Firmin-Didot et Cie. 1895.

THIS is the fourth volume of the now famous "Bibliothèque des Monuments Figurés Grecs et Romains." The archæological world is deeply indebted to M. Reinach for his careful republication and reëditing of all the volumes

in this series, and the latest especially will be a boon to a rapidly increasing audience. It surprises us to find that M. Reinach has been able to cram so much into so small a space, and to fix a price that puts the volume within the reach of most students who are interested in the subject. The old folio volumes were out of print, and were for the most part inaccessible to students in America. Besides that, the accompanying texts were mostly unscientific and antiquated, and could be used with safety only by those who knew well the ground they were treading. All this has been materially changed, thanks to the tireless work of M. Reinach, who has compressed the thirteen volumes (mostly folio) into the compass of one large octavo volume consisting of xv and 195 pages and 137 plates, while the cost is only thirty francs.

The reduction in the size of the old plates has not impaired the value of the original engravings for purposes of study and comparison. M. Reinach has really written a new text to these old plates; he has eliminated the stuff and padding (or, in other words, the greater part) of the original texts, and has cited the literature relating to individual gems. Indeed, the 195 pages of this volume are of far more value than the entire texts of the original thirteen volumes. We can go even farther and assert that the original volumes are now relegated to oblivion, because completely superseded by this modest publication.

And yet, in spite of all that can be said, we must warn the student that it is not safe to make unquestioning use of these plates, in which a strong element of caricature, untrustworthiness, and misrepresentation is always present. Methods of study and teaching have changed since the olden days of unquestioning faith when these plates were regarded as real boons. Nowadays true archæological research must needs be done in the presence of the originals or of casts from the originals; lacking which, photographs from the casts of gems give us the only other safe means of studying art. All engravings and mere outlines involve error and misrepresentation, involve a loss of details, of type, and an obscuring of the motive subject.

The plates of this volume need further sifting and elimination, and, in spite of the debt we owe to M. Reinach, we see clearly that the definitive publication of antique gems has not yet been made. It is a fascinating subject that calls aloud for a devoted worker.

The Number Concept; Its Origin and Development. By Levi Leonard Conant. Macmillan. 1896.

THIS volume is made up of tables of the numerals of a great many (perhaps 500) different languages, with a slight connective commentary, drawing attention to the signification and composition of the words. The shortcomings of the work are numerous and regrettable, though by no means fatal; its merits are few and simple, but considerable.

The title is a misnomer, and the author shows that his own number-concept is in a low stage of development. Numerals are not themselves concepts at all, nor do they signify concepts. They are simply a scale of vocables, which we use very much as we use a foot-rule. We apply them to a multitude, and mark how far on the scale that multitude will go. In explaining this, we explain what the number-concept really is: it is the intelligent conception of the purpose and method of the system of numerals. It is entirely unnecessary that this should, in the form of a concept, or intellectual product, be in the minds of those who use numerals. It is sufficient that they should know by experience that counting is somehow useful, that it aids bargaining, etc., and that they should be habituated to the use of a series of words in counting. The continual use of the word "concept," instead of speaking of "words" or "terms" and their "significations," is a German way of speaking, very inferior, both in logical accuracy and in perspicuity, to our English idiom. At any rate, the real subject of this book is numerals and their modes of formation.

Very little is said of the number-concept (which is really of very late development), nor of the idea which the tribes mentioned may entertain in regard to number in general; and what little is said is not worthy of criticism. Not only does the author fail to discriminate the number-concept from the use of numerals, but he also falls into a confusion of thought which must greatly embarrass his mathematical pedagogy, namely, a confusion between *number*, in the sense of the result of counting, and *multitude*. He tells us that all tribes "show some familiarity with the number-concept." Yet he mentions Bolivian tribes which are said to have no numerals whatever. Still, he says they show "a conception" of the difference between *one* and *many*. In another place, he says that the "number-concept" of ordinary people is imperfect, in that they have little sense of the different degrees of multitudinousness of high numbers. On the contrary, this has nothing to do with the accuracy of their "number-concept," or of their power of applying numerals to the purpose for which they were invented. It is true that to the mind trained in certain branches of applied mathematics the word "trillion" carries associations of rigid statistical uniformity which the word "million" lacks. Such a mind may be said to attach different conceptions to the two words; and the distinction is useful to such a mind. But this has nothing to do with the use of numbers as numbers. The person considered will put all that out of his mind when he has any definite numbers to deal with, and will perform his arithmetical calculations just like anybody else. A system of numerals is an apparatus for counting. Those numerous tribes which have names only for *one*, *two*, and *three*, which express four by *two twos*, five by *two* and *three*, etc., evidently did not count at the time their language was formed, and probably do not count now. They, like all men, recognize pairs and triplets by their configurations, fours as pairs of pairs, etc. The so-called numerals of such tribes are, properly speaking, not numerals at all. When a tribe has a numeral system based upon *five*, *ten*, or *twenty*, the evidence is that they possess the art of counting. They are quite prepared to count indefinitely as soon as they can count at all, provided they have the power, possessed by most savages, of unconsciously coining a name as soon as they need it. The limits of their numeral words mark the limits of their need of such words.

From a philological point of view, the execution of the book is slovenly. The author copies the various transcriptions of the writings from which he has compiled the lists, without explanation, and omitting all diacritical marks. We do not know whether *c* is to be pronounced *k* or *sh* or *tsh* or *th* or *dh*, whether *g* represents the German guttural *ch* or the velar *k*, whether *x* stands for *ks*, for *h*, or for the Arabic *ghain*, whether *j* has the English, French, German or Spanish sound, etc. When we remember that the English word *fox*, pronounced by a Cherokee, and transliterated according to a recognized system, but with the diacritical marks removed, appears as *kwagisi*, we see that, for the purposes of comparison of languages, this book presents nothing but an imperfect list of references. There is little notice of Semitic numerals, none of the Egyptian, and scarcely any of the Babylonian. There is no mention of the so-called Chaldean names for the Arabic figures found in Latin twelfth-century works. There is no classification by races; but North American and African languages, the furthest remote from one another in their spirit of any of the tongues of men, are shovelled in together. Of many minor faults we take no notice.

The merits of the work are that it exhibits all the modes of formation of numerals, that it shows the universality of the bases 5, 10, 20, and the non-existence of any true binary scale or any use of 6 or 11 as a base, that it affords evidence that many tribes do not count, and consequently have no proper numerical system, and that there are the greatest differences in the arithmetical capacity of races equally barbarous.

Hunting and Fishing in Florida, including a Key to the Water Birds, etc. By Charles B. Cory. Boston: Published by the Author. 1896. Sm. 4to, pp. 302.

FLORIDA is so peculiar in its geographical position and climatic conditions that it may be said to have a fauna and flora of its own. Naturalists have only gradually waked up to this fact, with the result that during the past twenty-five years almost every writer of any scientific pretensions who has studied the subject has had to describe some new species or subspecies. A formal systematic treatise on the land vertebrates, for example, would reflect an extraordinary assemblage of nearctic and neotropical characteristics, with a facies on the whole different from either. Florida, in fine, is almost as much Antillean as North American. Mr. Cory in this work first formally distinguishes the peninsular cougar, rehabilitates Rafinesque's wildcat, and adopts the particular subspecies of various recent specialists among the rodents and insectivores. The general trend of variation among both birds and mammals is toward darker coloration and smaller size, though in the latter respect peripheral parts, such as the beaks and feet of birds, may not be proportionately reduced, but rather the reverse. The Florida red bat, for example, may be distinguished as *Atalapha borealis peninsularis*, and we doubt not that the small deer of the peninsula is equally entitled to recognition as *Cariacus* (or *Damelaphus*) *fraterculus*.

The birds have been subjected to such searching scrutiny of late years that perhaps no new forms remain to be discovered, excepting estrays from the insular offing. The latter half of the present work is devoted to a systematic treatise upon the waders and swimmers. Mr. Cory is nothing if not orthodox in nomenclature; he lays firm hold of the horns of the A. O. U. altar, observes the code punctiliously, and would as soon be out of the world as out of the fashion of a "Key" to the species he describes. The birds are also very fully illustrated by means of process plates. These portraits are as a rule elegant and effective; but they vary in these respects according to the better or worse taxidermy of the particular specimens which were shot with the camera. The text in each case is a formal diagnosis,

which emphasizes differential characters in thick type, with brief notes on habitats, habits, and the like.

Aside from this, and from the mammalian chapter, as well as from a similar one on the snakes of Florida, the other half of the book is of the outing class, in the nature of personal narrative of hunting and fishing; but it also includes a considerable account of the Seminole Indians. The author is a keen sportsman as well as a good naturalist, and some of these sketches, such as that on tarpon-fishing, make very attractive reading. One good point is scored in discriminating clearly between the crocodile and alligator; and in this respect we may recall the fact that it is not many years since it was declared that there were no crocodiles in Florida, because there could not be any—the *Alligatoridæ* being an American, and the *Crocodilidæ* an old-world, type of emydosaurians. This part of the work is as fully illustrated as the ornithological portion, chiefly with hunting scenes, pictures of large game killed, and portraits of Indians. The book is a handsome one in all its appointments, and will fully sustain the author's reputation for readability, reliability, and good sense. At least one of his previous works is not less magnificent than the great Audubon folios themselves; and Mr. Cory is one of the singularly fortunate naturalists whose private means are adequate to any desired gratification of luxurious tastes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Orations: Studies in American Political History. Putnams. $1.25.
Arnold, Matthew. Essays in Criticism. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 20c.
Aucassin and Nicolette. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bailey, Alice W. Mark Heffron. Harpers. $1.25.
Barrère, Albert. A Dictionary of French and English Military Terms. Second Part. French-English. London: Hachette; Boston: T. H. Castor & Co.
Blodgett, Mrs Mabel F. Fairy Tales. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Book Sales of 1895. London: P. Cockram.
Brewster, W. T. Studies in Structure and Style. Macmillan. $1.10.
Byars, W. V. The Glory of the Garden, and Other Odes, Sonnets, and Ballads. Second Series. The Author.
Clinton, H. L. Extraordinary Cases. Harpers. $2.50.
Cody, Sherwin. In the Heart of the Hills. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.
Conant, C. A. A History of Modern Banks of Issue. Putnams. $3.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. His Honor, and a Lady. Appletons. $1.50.
Dickens, Charles. Reprinted Pieces, and The Lazy Tour of Two Idle Apprentices. Macmillan. $1.
Duer, Caroline, and Alice. Poems. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
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Eliot, George. Silas Marner. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 36c.
Eucharistic Conferences. New York: Catholic Book Exchange. 50c.
Fisher, S. G. The Making of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Hutchinson, W. H. Charles Gounod: Autobiographical Reminiscences, etc. London: Heinemann; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Irving, W. Tales of a Traveller. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Keightley, S. R. The Cavaliers. Harpers. $1.50.
Montrésor, F. F. Worth While. Edward Arnold. 75c.
Norris, Prof. Mary H. Longfellow's Evangeline. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Paine, Thomas. The Age of Reason. Putnams. $1.25.
Peattie, Elia W. A Mountain Woman. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Pratt, Anna M. Little Rhymes for Little People. New York: Lemperly, Hilliard & Hopkins.
Rennert, Prof H. A Sanchez's La Isla Bárbara and La Guarda Ciudadosa. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Schechter, S. Studies in Judaism. Macmillan. $1.75.
Sedgwick, Jane M. Songs from the Greek. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Society of Mayflower Descendants. First Year-Book. New York: J. B. Backus,
Sumichrast, Prof. F. C. de. Coppée's Le Pater. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Tooker, W. W. Cockenoe de Long Island: John Eliot's First Indian Interpreter. Francis P. Harper. $2.
Wheelwright, J. T. A Bad Penny. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 28, 1896.

The Week.

The results of the Democratic State conventions held on Wednesday of last week were rather queer. The Iowa Democrats went for the free coinage of silver by about two to one. Those of South Dakota, an adjoining State, went against it by about the same majority. On the Atlantic seaboard two conventions were held. That of South Carolina went for free coinage and that of New Hampshire against it. The battle in all four States was on this question exclusively. Endorsement of the Cleveland Administration or condemnation of it turned on the silver question. Seventeen States have now held conventions and have elected 338 delegates, of whom 172 are either instructed or are known to be in favor of free coinage, and 166 against it. This majority of six for free coinage is likely to be increased and to become decisive, unless their opponents show plainly that they do not intend to be bound by such a decision. If they make it clearly understood that they cannot be drawn or driven into the policy of repudiation, and that the money needed for legitimate campaign expenses cannot be obtained, they may be able to prevent the adoption of such a policy; but without some determined action of this kind the Chicago convention will run upon a fatal rock. The party is worm-eaten by Populism. Tillman, Altgeld, Boies, Morgan, Harris, and Bryan are Populists, with hardly any disguise. If they control the convention, the party may as well haul down its own flag and hoist that of Weaver and Peffer in its place.

The organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia says that a convention will meet at Detroit this week whose object will be to "take the tariff question out of politics," and that it will be asked to adopt as a leading principle that "the tariff levied on all goods from any foreign country into the United States shall in all cases be an amount fully equal to the difference in the cost of producing said goods in any foreign country and the cost of producing such goods in the United States." The *Manufacturer* finds several objections to this plan, notwithstanding the fact that it is in accord with the last national Republican platform, which says that "on all imports coming into competition with the products of American labor there should be levied duties equal to the difference between *wages* abroad and at home." The only difference between the platform and the Detroit proposal is in the use of the words "cost of producing" instead of "wages." The *Manufacturer* points out the fact, often referred to by the wicked free-traders, that the cost of producing particular goods varies in different places in this country, and wants to know whether the highest cost shall be taken as the basis of the tariff, and, if so, how the tariff-makers are to ascertain which manufacturer's costs are the highest. We would venture to add that it is very easy for a manufacturer to add to his cost of production, and that any one dissatisfied with the tariff could raise his expenses to any desired figure. Again, the *Manufacturer* wants to know how we could learn what the foreigner's cost of production is. "What if he should make a false report?" it asks. Of course our people would never make false reports on such a question, not even our suffering sugar-refiners. How would you prevent undervaluation? it asks. Indeed, the objections to this plan are too numerous to mention, the most formidable of all being the fact that one Congress cannot bind future ones to let the tariff question alone. In other words, the freedom of the people to deal with this question from time to time cannot be impaired. We have had attempts before this time to commit Congress to a particular tariff policy, and their complete failure, as, for example, in 1883, when Congress appointed a commission, composed of the most noted protectionists in the land, to frame a tariff, and then rejected their bill before it was three months old.

The imbecility of the Senate of the United States as now constituted was shown up to some purpose by Senator Sherman in debate last week. Mr. Sherman has been himself a glaring illustration of this during a large part of the present session, but that fact detracts nothing from his picture of the general situation. The subject under discussion was an amendment to the fortification bill offered by Senator Gorman, providing for the issue of certificates of indebtedness to run three years and drawing 3 per cent. interest, to meet the deficiencies of revenue caused by this and other appropriations of the present Congress. Mr. Sherman objected to an increase of the public debt in time of peace, and insisted that it was the duty of Congress to vote additional taxes to meet the additional expenditures. He referred to the Dingley bill that had passed the House and had been killed in the Senate by the substitution of a free-silver amendment. The Dingley bill, he said, did not meet his entire approval. It did not go far enough. If it had passed, there would probably still be a deficiency. He would vote for a tax on tea or on coffee or on anything to get the Government out of the mire in which it was embedded. He would "take the last shirt off the backs of the people of the United States rather than violate the public faith of the Government." He insisted that the Senate should not increase appropriations without providing the money to meet them, and he added:

> "When appropriation bills come to us from the House of Representatives, they are uniformly increased here, and large additions are made to them in many details. We have no right to do this. We have no right to impose obligations on the people of the United States unless we also impose upon them the burden of taxation so as to meet those obligations."

He hoped that the President would refuse to spend a dollar beyond the current receipts of the Government. If he were himself President, he would disregard all appropriations of Congress that were in excess of the regular income.

There is a difficulty in the way of applying this remedy. It would be easy for a President to say: "I have no money to meet this appropriation. The Treasury is empty; fill it and I will pay your bills." But such is not the case. By reason of a law passed while Mr. Sherman was Secretary of the Treasury, and at his instance, the greenbacks which have been redeemed are considered, not as notes paid and *functi officio*, but as Government assets, and the law expressly requires that they be paid out again. It does not prescribe any limit of time within which they must be paid, but it means obviously that they cannot be hoarded and kept back when there are lawful appropriations of Congress awaiting payment. There is now more than $100,000,000 of greenbacks in the Treasury which have been redeemed and which the law says shall be paid out again. Mr. Sherman ought to have gone one step farther and offered a bill to retire and cancel these redeemed notes and all others received in the Treasury by the same process. Such a measure would be helpful in many ways. Such a measure would not only prevent Congress from spending more money than it provides taxes for, but it would uplift public and private credit by giving assurance that a false system of finance had been definitively abandoned.

Editorially the *Tribune* continues to be in a state of great hilarity over the anxiety of business men to know what kind of a President the Republicans are going to elect. The joke is really too killing. You dear distressed bankers and merchants and investors, it expostulates with shaking sides, don't you see how mirth-provoking you are? But its news columns sponge out every word of its editorial page. It has to report "crazy Populist finance" as "likely to pass in the Senate," has to record the votes of twelve Republican Senators in favor of a bill to break down the only law which now stands between us and a 50-cent dollar, and to print the passion-

ate cry of Senator Sherman, thanking God that the President of the United States, no matter what Senate or House might do, would veto any such legislation. How truly diverting it is, under these circumstances, with the threats of such repudiating measures hanging over the country, with the certainty that there will be an enormous crop of them in the next Congress—what a capital joke it is that men should want some assurance that the next President will stand as firmly against the lunatics as the present one does! Every day, in fact, makes it more and more necessary that the next President should be known of all men to be of strong convictions and unflinching courage on every financial question; yet every day makes it more and more certain that the man whom the Republicans are "sure to elect" has neither convictions nor courage. "Crazy Populist Finance"—but no word from McKinley. Repudiation and panic predicted even by Lodge—but McKinley nobly dumb. That is the situation which gives such exquisite point to the *Tribune's* quips.

Some people are wondering at the strange flagging of interest in Cuba on the part of Congress, and are attributing it to unworthy motives. They say the whole excitement of two months ago was artificial and insincere, a mere bit of spread-eagleism, and ask, if Congressmen were so dead in earnest, why they have not kept the welkin a-ringing. But the real reason for the sudden chilling of enthusiasm has been strangely overlooked. The Cuban patriots have issued bonds, have asked the American people to subscribe to them as "a practical manifestation of sympathy," but have committed the enormous, the incredible blunder of making these bonds payable in *gold*. This shows an incomprehensible blindness to American sensitiveness. The American people is furiously determined to have the best money in the world, glorious as the flag, untarnished as the national honor, sacred, miraculous, paradisiacal money—but it is not gold. We know what to think of any man or nation that says gold. No friend of the people or of liberty will ever utter that word. The Cubans should have made their bonds payable in the mystic, wonderful McKinley money. Their choice of gold bonds makes all honest Americans and a silver Congress doubt if they are really patriots at all.

The *Horsa* filibustering case was decided at Washington on Monday, and the decision is not primarily against the Cubans nor in favor of Spain. It is simply an interpretation and application of municipal law—known as the neutrality laws. Those laws are meant for the protection of our own government and people. They do not relate, by direct intent, to our duty under international law, but are meant to prevent our citizens, or aliens under our jurisdiction, from involving us in war with other countries. Such acts as those of which the captain of the *Horsa* was confessedly guilty tend inevitably to embroil us in war if we permit them, and it is therefore of great importance that our highest court has declared them illegal and punishable. Otherwise, the power of declaring war would be lodged, not in the hands of President and Congress, but in those of filibusters. The principal point of the decision is the clear definition of what is meant, in the neutrality laws, by "a military expedition." The lower courts have held conflicting opinions, but now, of course, will be bound by the definition of the Supreme Court, which undoubtedly would cover the case of the men recently tried before Judge Brown in this city and acquitted.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the sugar-bounty cases, while it does not touch the question of the constitutionality of bounties, reverses the decision of Mr. Bowler, the Comptroller of the Treasury, and requires the payment of the money appropriated by Congress. The court holds that if Congress has made promises and induced people to incur expense which they would not otherwise have incurred, and has then actually appropriated the money to indemnify the parties, the payment cannot be stopped by an administrative officer on the ground of unconstitutionality. The Government has a right to make good a loss which private parties have incurred in good faith, relying on its promises; and this independently of the constitutionality of bounties. This was the governing consideration of the Congress that made the appropriation in question—the same Congress that passed the Wilson bill. The Government often makes appropriations to indemnify individuals who have done or suffered acts in reliance on its good faith, although in a legal point of view the payment is equivalent to a gratuity. In other words, the practice of equity is not denied to the Government by the Constitution. It would be a very queer sort of government if the case were otherwise. It would be a very odd state of things if an inferior officer of the Treasury could set up his opinions and rulings against the deliberate acts of Congress and the President. Although the question of the constitutionality of bounties *per se* was not decided, the drift of the decision is toward the affirmance of it—that is, toward affirming the power of Congress to do what it pleases with the public money. Apparently the remedy for profligate, or mistaken, or dishonest appropriations is not in the courts, but in the people. This view is not in conflict with other decisions of the court in cases where State legislatures are restrained from voting bounties to private individuals by provisions in the State constitutions.

The Supreme Court at Washington rendered a decision of much importance on May 19, in the case of the Illinois Central Railroad, Plaintiff in Error, vs. the State of Illinois. The decision is one relating to interstate commerce, and it denies the right of a State to detain unnecessarily, or turn out of it course, a train of cars destined to another State as part of a through line. The bridge of the Illinois Central across the Ohio River is three and a half miles north and east of the Cairo station. It was built at that place many years ago, the nature of the ground designating it as the most advantageous for the purpose. The through trains from Chicago to New Orleans stop at the junction three and a half miles from Cairo, and run a special car and locomotive to that city for the conveyance of passengers and baggage. The city sought to compel the company to run the through trains to the Cairo station, which would require an unnecessary journey of seven miles, and the State Supreme Court sustained this contention, under a law of Illinois which says that "all regular passenger trains shall stop a sufficient length of time at the railroad stations of county seats to receive and let off passengers with safety"; Cairo being a county seat. The counsel for the company, Judge Fentress, submitted a very remarkable brief of ninety-six pages, in which the whole question of the constitutional control by Congress of commerce "among the several States" was argued. He maintained that this power was necessarily exclusive, that such commerce was indivisible, that the railroad in question had authority from Congress and the State of Illinois to form a continuous line of communication with other States, and that it could not be compelled, under the police power of the State, to turn aside from its established through line to run to a county seat for which it provided adequate means of transportation for passengers and baggage. All these contentions were sustained by the Supreme Court of the United States in an opinion delivered by Justice Gray. The full opinion has not been published. There was no dissenting opinion.

Mr. Lyman, doubtless at Platt's instigation, deceived Gov. Morton into believing that there was not time to examine the liquor agents competitively, under the Raines bill, and that, if examined at all, they must be examined simply non-competitively, and he appointed for this purpose, out of his own head, a heterogeneous crowd of politicians—of course, like all this class, mostly ignorant and shiftless, and often dissolute. This was done in spite of the constitutional provision that the examinations must be competitive, "in so far as practicable." There was no reason in the world for thinking that the examination of these people was not practicable. The non-competitive examination was simply an evasion of the fundamental law, at which Gov. Morton ought not to

have connived. But the Lyman appointees cannot pass even the non-competitive pass examination. Fourteen out of the twenty-seven were rejected on Friday at Albany, for simple ignorance. One of them was a brother of "Jake" Worth, the Brooklyn Boss, and one was E. S. Mellen, the Brooklyn auditor. There is an auditor for you! We wonder what such a man was to audit. None of these rejected fellows can present themselves again for a year. So no time at all has been saved; the Governor, Lyman, and Platt have brought discredit on themselves, and the true character of the creatures whom they were trying to quarter on the public treasury has been revealed.

The main value of such occurrences lies, after all, in the fact that they slowly diffuse through the barrooms, gambling-houses, and other haunts of vice the novel idea that public offices are established for the benefit of the people, and are not, in the eye of the law, rewards or "plums" for working "Boys," or for ne'er-do-weels or drunken fellows or defaulters. This idea makes slow progress, but every such examination as has taken place at Albany helps to spread it. The Boys curse and fume, and want to be "patriotic" and go to war with somebody, but they will gradually cease to look on the public service as a refuge or almshouse. Some time ago a superintendent of the mint in San Francisco, La Grange by name, proved so inefficient as to let his chief subordinate pick and steal without discovery, and had himself to resign in consequence. Instead of turning his attention to some honest business, with which he was familiar, on the Pacific Coast, he started for New York, and on his arrival here had no difficulty in getting an eminent mint man, Mr. Leech, to recommend him to the Mayor as a Fire Commissioner. For what? Because he was familiar with the business of extinguishing fires? Because he enjoyed the confidence of the fire-insurance companies? Because he was an old resident of the city and familiar with its wants? Not a bit of it. Simply because he "was a brave soldier with a splendid record."

Ecclesiastical politics has had little chance to catch the eye of the public, fully intent as that eye is upon the worldly article, yet the various church conventions recently in session have, as usual, shown more than once that they could teach the politicians not a few tricks of their own trade. The Presbyterians elected their Moderator at Saratoga on Thursday by as pretty a mixing of oil and water as is often seen in gatherings of the ungodly—a "combine" of the sound and the unsound in the faith cutting out the prize from under the very guns of the conservatives. The latter are dolorously predicting a reopening of the Briggs controversy, with all the renewal of grief which that implies; but a weary public will hope for better things. Out in Cleveland the Methodist balloting for bishops had many of the characteristics of profane nominating conventions. There were dark horses, "throwing" of votes, tantalizing running up of one candidate within sight of the promised land, only to drop him hard on the next ballot, and so forth. The action of this Methodist Conference on the subject of forbidden amusements was instructive. At present the discipline forbids card-playing, dancing, theatre-going, and other sins of the kind. Several city ministers admitted that these prohibitions were a dead letter, and tended, so far as they were known, to alienate young people from the church. But still, it was powerfully argued, we cannot afford to let down our standards, or to appear to; and even if we cannot enforce the discipline, do not let us, in the name of consistency, alter it an iota. This view carried the day by a large majority, and the dead-letter laws remain dead but inviolate.

The customary return, under the corrupt-practices act, has been published in Great Britain, showing all expenses which were incurred in the Parliamentary election of 1895, and the exhibit furnishes many interesting facts for American consideration. In the first place, it is to be noted that the total expenditure falls more than a third short of the maximum total allowed by the law. There were 1,181 candidates, and the law permitted them to spend £1,025,207. They actually spent only £617,996, or but a little more than three-fifths. This has been the case in nearly or quite every election which has been held during the twenty-four years since the law was enacted, though previous to its enactment it was quite generally thought that the maximum had been made too low. The average expenditure was about £546 for each candidate, or less than $2,700, and about three shillings and eight pence, or 66 cents, for each vote polled. Of course, the total of expenditures for individual candidates varies according to the size of the constituency. The largest amount permitted in any district does not exceed $6,000, which is a mere trifle compared with what is spent in many American districts. Mr. Lodge made a return in Massachusetts after the election in 1892 in which he admitted an expenditure of $12,000. In only four of the ten American laws are limits placed to expenditures—those of California, Missouri, Minnesota, and Ohio—and in none of these States is the law enforced with the rigor characteristic of Great Britain.

The chief item of expenditure in the British returns is invariably that for the printing of campaign literature, and it is an interesting fact that, with few exceptions, the candidate spending most for this purpose succeeded in the election. The amounts spent ranged from $420 to over $2,500, and in all cases were returned by items under the requirements of the law, the expenditures being entirely legitimate. The British voter is thus subjected to a tremendous "campaign of education," fully equal if not superior to that of our most exciting Presidential elections. Our principal items of expenditure, in those States in which returns are required, are for "flags," "banners," "torches," "uniforms," "bands," and "transparencies." All these uses of money are forbidden under the British act, and if a candidate were to return $2,000 as expended for "flags," as a Massachusetts candidate did, he would lose his seat. They were forbidden in England because bribery of voters was disguised beneath them, and there is little doubt that they are made to serve a like purpose here, for the $2,000 item in the Massachusetts return was part of a total expenditure of $11,000 in a single congressional district. Moreover they are not in the least "educational." When a man spends more to gain a seat in Congress than the entire salary of the office for its term, it is not unreasonable to suspect that he concealed under his flag item some expenditures which he would not care to make public. Some of our laws are nearly as strict in their other requirements as the British act, but none of them is enforced to the letter as that act is, for want of a vigilant and determined public sentiment behind the law.

The furious obstruction offered by the Irish in the Commons on Thursday night, when the agricultural-rating bill was in committee, may have been due to a desire to placate the Liberals, or may mean nothing more than the force of old habit. It is to be noted, however, as the Irish then found out, that the new rules of the House make the old kind of open instruction increasingly difficult if not impossible. The thing has now to be done with finer art. One must have the resources and appearance of burly honesty of Sir William Harcourt to be successful in debating and amending a measure out of time, in a way not to be called down by the Speaker. Mr. Lowther himself, now Tory Chairman of Committee, who brought the rebellious Irishmen to book on Thursday, is an adept in the art of obstruction within the rules, and gave some fine displays of it in the last Parliament when the home-rule bill was pending. Mr. Balfour, however, will be able to invoke closure more successfully than Mr. Gladstone was—at least if Speaker Peel's ruling is adopted by Speaker Gully. The former held that closure could but rarely and dubiously be applied by a ministry with a majority of only 40 behind it; a majority of 150 is entitled to a swifter putting of the main question. Still, even a majority of that size cannot "jam" things through in the Commons, and the agricultural bill will no doubt be a much longer time in passing than the Government anticipate.

PLATFORMS.

THERE is a disposition among some people to minimize the importance of McKinley's silver record, in view of the fact that the platform on which he will stand will be made by others. He seeks to confirm this impression himself by declaring that the reason he does not speak about the currency is that he does not wish to forestall the platform, and his friends give us to understand he will be bound by the platform. We dislike to dispel pleasant illusions, but business men ought to understand that this reliance on the platform as a substitute for the man, or as a supplement to the man, has no foundation in the history of the instrument which passes under that name. The platform, in fact, has shared the fate of the whole nominating system. It has become an instrumentality for getting votes, with little or no reference to the real affairs of the country. It does not any longer foreshadow, in the least, the future policy of the party adopting it. It has sunk into the rank of pure, undiluted humbug. Let us give some illustrations of our meaning.

In 1872, the Republican platform denounced "repudiation of the public debt in any form or disguise as a national crime." When Congress met (it had a large Republican majority in 1874), it passed an inflation bill indefinitely postponing a return to specie payments. President Grant vetoed it.

In 1876, the Republican platform "solemnly pledged its faith to make provision, at the earliest practicable period, for the redemption of the United States notes in coin," and said that "commercial prosperity, public morals, and national credit" demanded "a continuous and steady progress to specie payments."

In 1878–79, a bill to repeal the resumption act would have passed both houses of Congress if President Hayes had not made known that he would veto it.

In 1888, the Republican platform "favored the use of both gold and silver as money," and denounced silver demonetization, but nothing more. In 1890, without the least warning, the Sherman act, providing for the purchase of $54,000,000 worth of silver bullion a year, was passed by both houses, and President Harrison signed it.

In the same year the Republicans gave through their platform "uncompromising" adherence to the policy of protection, and said it must be maintained. But they proposed to reduce the revenue by the abolition of the tobacco tax, the tax on spirits used in the arts, and import duties on articles which could not be produced at home. If further reduction were necessary, they suggested the abolition also of the whole internal revenue. In 1890, Congress passed the McKinley bill, without any notice, the provisions of which were so monstrous that in 1892 the whole country rose against it and inflicted on its authors a crushing defeat.

In 1892, the Democratic convention denounced the McKinley bill and the Sherman silver act, and adopted a "straddle" plank regarding gold and silver. As soon as Congress met, it went to work to pass a seigniorage bill, which President Cleveland vetoed, and to prepare a free-coinage bill, which did not pass because it was known he would veto it; and without the smallest notice passed a rigid income-tax bill, aimed at people earning over $4,000 a year. All remonstrances were treated with contempt, or answered with the simple assertion that "it was sure to pass." The history of the efforts of the President to get the Sherman act repealed, the panic, and the scorn of Congress for Wall Street, in which the members were freely operating, and the judgment of the Supreme Court, are still fresh in the public memory.

It will be seen from all this that the platform is no longer a political programme which either party intends to follow. It is a manifesto issued for the purpose of getting votes at the election, and, after the election, does not receive the smallest attention. Another illustration of the uselessness of paying any attention to it was furnished by the Republican party in this State last year. Its platform might have been drawn by Mugwumps, for it promised nearly everything they demand, but the policy pursued by the Republican Legislature was almost an exact copy of that pursued by the Democratic Legislature under Croker, of which this very platform complained, more particularly in the matter of indifference to intelligent public opinion.

The platform on which McKinley will be nominated will probably be an ingenious attempt to deceive both the friends of gold and the friends of silver as to the policy to be pursued by the coming Administration. But even if it comes out in an apparently satisfactory manner for the gold standard, we warn the friends of sound money against supposing that it will afford any guarantee as to the legislation of Congress. It will not receive any notice whatever after election. It will be used to influence votes at the election, and there will be the end of it. If we had trusted to platforms since 1870, this country would now be a financial chaos. We have been saved by a succession of Presidents of strong character and measurable financial knowledge. The only exception was President Harrison, who was as weak as Sherman, and, like him, sought salvation for the country in dodges.

All the tendencies of American politics since the war show that our reliance in future must be substantially the same. Congress and the Legislatures are going rapidly down hill, and are likely to be worse before they are better. They are clearly incompetent to govern a great commercial country, and we must rely, until some change occurs, on putting vigorous men of known character and opinions in the Presidential chair, not to legislate, but to prevent mischief. A movement has been made to do away with the President as a source of help, and it is said McKinley is in it himself, by insisting that Congress must be allowed to settle the financial question itself, and that the Presidential veto must not be allowed to prevent the success of its schemes. Every one knows what this means. For such a programme a person of McKinley's character and instruction is just the man, and we warn business men to look out for it. In matters of finance, until the silver and paper crazes subside and national sanity is completely restored, the President must be our main reliance, but it must be a President whose opinions have always been on the side of rationality, and with whose firmness we and the whole world are familiar. Nothing in the present canvass is more ridiculous than the proposal that the business world should accept, in lieu of the candidate's own record, "certificates" of soundness from chance politicians and "bankers" of whom we never heard before. One would suppose the Presidential chair was a butler's place, and that anybody would do for it whom Smith, the leather man, or Jones, the exchange dealer, said was a good man. To be President of the United States a man ought to be as well known as Gladstone, or Bismarck, or Lincoln, or Seward. If any obscure body will do, why do not the managers advertise and sell the place to the person who promises most, as the Pretorian Guard used to sell the imperial purple?

TWO RAILROAD CASES.

THE Supreme Court at Washington recently disposed of two railroad cases of great importance, the first involving a novel attempt to make use of the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission to help on protection; the other involving the powers of the Commission generally.

In 1889 the Interstate Commerce Commission, of its own motion and without any hearing, made an order providing, among other things, that all imports shipped from abroad to any point in the United States should be taken "on the inland tariff." Subsequently the New York Board of Trade and Transportation complained that certain railroad companies were violating this order in the fact that, whereas they charged the regular rates on property delivered to them at New York, Philadelphia, and other ports for transportation to Chicago and other inland points, they charged much lower rates if similar property came to them from Europe on through bills of lading, to be carried first by steamships and then by rail. As a matter of fact, and as appears from the opinions of the judges, this is the universal custom with all the great railroads in the country; the ocean rates from Liverpool and other European ports, which are fixed entirely by competition, govern the whole question, and every American railroad taking such im-

ports has to transport them at a much lower rate across this continent than it needs to do in the case of articles of domestic production. The railroad that does not do this loses the business.

The order consequently began to have very serious results. In the case of the Illinois Central it deprived that company (the Supreme Court says) "of a valuable part of its traffic (to say nothing of its necessary effect in increasing the charges to be finally paid by the consumers)"; the Pennsylvania Railroad was in no better plight, while it appears that competent evidence had been adduced that, if the order were to be generally enforced, "the result would be that it would effectually close every steamship line sailing to and from Baltimore and Philadelphia." The Texas and Pacific Railway, which forwards imports to San Francisco via New Orleans, determined to contest the matter, and, after a long fight, it has won a complete victory. The case is reported in volume 16 of the Supreme Court Reporter No. 22 (Texas and P. Ry. Co. vs. Interstate Commerce Commission).

The only clauses in the interstate-commerce act which could possibly justify such an interference with the business of the railroads are those which provide that all charges must be "reasonable and just"; that there must be no unjust discrimination in the case of similar services "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions"; that there shall not be any "undue or unreasonable preference or advantage" in any case; and that no more shall be charged "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions" for a shorter than for a longer haul over the same line in the same direction, "the shorter being within the longer distance." The case is so clear that, notwithstanding the dissent of Judges Harlan and Brown and Chief-Justice Fuller, we may probably consider the question settled for ever; the most remarkable thing about it is the way that the tariff was dragged into it. In fact, it looks very much as if the order had been promulgated for the express purpose of making a test case to get a decision that the interstate-commerce act was designed to reinforce the tariff and help keep out foreign manufactures.

If a railroad must charge the same on an article (imported to Chicago from Germany) between New York and Chicago as it does on every article of domestic manufacture sent from New York to Chicago, the cost of importation being by so much increased, in many cases, as already stated, the result would be a virtual prohibition of the import. This was the object of the Commission. If it costs a dollar a yard to deliver an article made in Germany to the purchaser in Chicago, while the same article costs a dollar and five cents manufactured in New York or in Philadelphia, it is clear that the article will be imported by the Chicago consumer from abroad; if the railroad rate on the imported article can be made prohibitive, then Chicago consumers will have to buy the domestic article. This, says the Commission, is protection reinforced by the interstate-commerce act. So it is, with a vengeance. But it is also the grossest discrimination against railroads and consumers, and thus, says the Supreme Court, the Commission "seems to create the very mischief which it was one of the objects of the act to remedy." Reinforcing protection it declares not to have been the object of the act.

The other case (Cincinnati, N. O. and T. P. Ry. vs. Interstate Commerce Com., 22 Sup. Ct. Reporter No. 700) is chiefly important because it lays down for the first time the principles as to railroad rates in general which the Supreme Court holds universally applicable. The case was one of unjust discrimination. It appeared that the railroad charged more for a shorter than a longer haul under similar circumstances and conditions. The Supreme Court, in upholding the decision of the Commission that this was improper, declared that, subject to the restrictions in the act, common carriers are free, as they always have been, "to make special contracts looking to the increase of their business, to classify their traffic, to adjust and apportion their rates so as to meet the necessities of commerce, and generally to manage their important interests upon the same principles which are regarded as sound and adopted in other trades and pursuits."

Taking these in connection with the other transportation cases which have come before the court in the last twenty years, it is evident that we have in the Commerce Commission a body clothed with no power to fix rates at discretion, but merely a semi-judicial board armed with special powers to prevent injustice where a plain case is made out by the facts proved. Its grotesque attempt to prohibit foreign commerce for the sake of protection, under the guise of an order prohibiting discrimination, has come to nothing, just as all previous attempts of every State commission to "run" the railroads have come to nothing. This case is also a curious illustration of the way in which, through the action of the courts, the very laws framed to curtail liberty often prove in the end a means of strengthening it. The interstate-commerce act, designed by many if not most of its framers to stop the railroads from managing their business in their own way, turns out, as it is explained by the courts, to be a weapon which the railroads can themselves use to prevent oppression of the whole community by the Commission.

THE INSPECTRIX.

Of the whole number of the inspectors of the public schools appointed by the Mayor of New York, under the new law, about a fifth are women, most of them being reappointments. Many of them are ladies well known in public charitable and philanthropic work, of different sorts. They serve without pay, hold office for five years, and their duties are to examine every school at least once a quarter, with regard to attendance, teaching, discipline, and also "cleanliness, safety, warming, ventilation, and comfort," and to report to the Board of Education any matter requiring attention.

This employment of ladies in the schools (and by ladies we mean not women conspicuous in fashionable life, but women who have been brought up in an atmosphere of intelligence and good breeding, who live in houses marked by cleanliness, order, and taste, whose associations are with people of the same sort, who show in the small field of their own households the capacity for good management of persons and property which is the key to all successful government), is of very recent growth, but we believe it has been, so far as tried, eminently successful. The former trustees did not like it for two reasons: first, because no man likes to have work committed to his care and discretion supervised by some one else, especially by a woman; and, second, because they know very well that the inspectrix was appointed because they themselves did the work badly. But the system of trustees who do not perform their trust, supervised by inspectors who have no control of them, has been swept away; the inspectors' duties are now very like those of the board of visitors which every well-managed college has, but the details covered are vastly more numerous.

In schools there are peculiar reasons why a woman is likely to do some of this work better than men, and why men really need their aid. Many of these will occur to any one who enters a public school even for the first time; half the children are girls, most of the teachers are themselves women, and these facts lead every day to questions on which a man has little or no knowledge, and as to which, in his own household, he is only too thankful to have the benefit of a woman's judgment. In fact, the most painful and distressing situation in domestic life in which a man can be placed is notoriously that of having suddenly thrust upon him, by the death or desertion of his wife, the sole management and education of a number of small children of both sexes. A public-school system with only men in charge would produce much the same kind of difficulty, but on a vast scale. The women teachers do not answer the purpose of inspectors, for they are part of the system to be inspected.

There is, moreover, one department of school administration which is peculiarly adapted for women's care, because it corresponds closely to what comes under their jurisdiction in their own households, and that is what may be called the housekeeping of the schools—the supervision of their comfort, cleanliness, and decency. No one who has not actually

gone over a school in the poorer parts of the city has any idea of the depths of slovenliness to which this housekeeping has descended. Ring the bell, and a dirty janitor emerges in his shirt sleeves from his subterranean lair, squirting tobacco juice as he comes. He is evidently a shiftless hanger-on of some ward politician, who has found a quiet place for him here at the public crib. Examine the rooms, and you will find some so dark as to suggest inevitable injury to the children's eyes; look at the chairs, and you may find some of the wrong size for the desks, so that the children are forced to sit on them in great bodily discomfort; ask the explanation of a pool of water standing in the yard, you will be told that there has been a leak in the water-pipe for several months; look into the sanitary arrangements, and they will be found not sanitary. Everywhere there is that peculiar sort of untidiness, and mustiness, and slouch which is anathema to every good woman. The condition of these poorer school-houses before the coming of the inspectrix was a training in slovenliness and disorder for every unfortunate generation of scholars that went through them. Her work thus far has mainly been to look out for matters of this kind. There will never be a time when they will not need looking after, and they are quite as important as teaching.

For ourselves we could wish that the inspectrix might invade other spheres of activity hitherto exclusively reserved to man. There is not a public building in the city which would not be the better for a report from her. Every one knows what women have done for the interior conditions of the prisons and hospitals; every one knows that it was in great part through women's taking the matter up that an interest was aroused in clean streets, of which we are now reaping the benefit in Col. Waring's administration. Oh that there could be an inspectrix for the Tombs, and for the court-house, and for the city hall, and the registry of deeds, and the police courts. Of what use have the presentments of male grand juries proved? There is not a heeler employed in them but would be frightened if he knew his building was to be inspected by some of the ladies appointed on Wednesday week.

The shocking condition of our municipal housekeeping is partly owing to Tammany, but partly also to the fact that man, left to himself, is not an over-clean or orderly animal, or one that is fond of giving much attention to the details of comfort and cleanliness. He does not perceive the fact in his domestic life, because he has a domestic inspectrix who spends a large part of the day in looking after his house. In the management of public institutions he flatters himself he can get on without her. But it is a mistake.

It really looks as if in some fields the lady inspector might accomplish some of the work which we once fondly hoped the "gentleman" and "scholar" in politics would do. She has one great advantage over him, that she does not take up the work for a living, but because she has an interest in it for its own sake, and leisure to attend to it. Her function is merely to see and report and actually shame men into correcting abuses. She cannot be reduced to silence by taking away her salary, for she has none; she cannot be "read out of the party," because she does not belong to any. Her warnings must be listened to here as elsewhere.

"THE YELLOW TERROR."

THIS is the name given by a French economist, not to the fever or the literature of the color mentioned, but to the spectre of Japanese commercial competition. It is a bogy which has for some time been looming large before the timid eyes of bimetallists and protectionists. Their doctrines are for the most part supported by arguments *in terrorem*, and it is natural, therefore, that, finding the horrors of a scarcity of money failing them, and the awfulness of foreign goods given away losing its power over the imagination, they should cast about for a new raw-head-and-bloody-bones to frighten people with. They think they have found it in the growth of Japanese industry. In Parliament and Reichstag alike, in Congress and in party convention, bimetallists driven into a corner and protectionists put to their trumps always fall back on the Yellow Terror. The historic question, conclusive against the anti-slavery agitation, "Do you want your daughter to marry a nigger?" has now to give way to the equally pertinent and unanswerable inquiry, "Do you want your daughter to play on a Japanese piano?"

The Colorado Republicans, for example, came out strong on Oriental competition. Free trade was ruining us, the gold standard was cutting all values in two, and if you didn't believe either assertion to be true, how were you going to get away from the deadly competition of "the Far East"? By jumbling three discordant propositions in one plank every doubter must be convinced. But facts are the most convincing things after all, and a long report by the British Vice-Consul at Tokio, Mr. Longford, which has just been published by the Foreign Office, and which sets forth at length the facts about Japanese industry and foreign commerce, is better worth studying than all the bimetallic orations and resolutions on the subject that were ever printed.

That Japan has greatly expanded her manufacturing and her export trade since 1872 is beyond question. The principal industry to exhibit a marked advance is the cotton manufacture. In 1888, Japan had 24 cotton factories with 114,000 spindles; last year she reckoned 58 factories and 883,000 spindles. On the cheaper grades of goods Japanese manufacturers are able to compete closely with British and American exporters in the Chinese and Indian markets. But even the miraculous Japanese have not yet learned of McKinley how to sell without buying. Their increased cotton-goods productions and exports have led directly to largely increased imports on that very account. The machinery to manufacture the goods and the ships to market them have been bought abroad. Moreover, the imports of raw cotton have risen enormously; from India alone Japan took 72,000,000 pounds of cotton in 1895. This, by the way, is of itself a hard nut for the bimetallists to crack. Indian cotton, they have told us, raised on a bimetallic standard, can be sold in gold-standard countries for twice its price, and no wonder the poor American cotton-grower is ruined. But why on earth is the Indian cotton-grower selling 72,000,000 pounds of cotton in bimetallic Japan for half the sum he could get in Liverpool? We fear a fallacy is lurking somewhere, and not very mysteriously lurking either, in this bimetallic argument.

Another bimetallic assertion fares hard at the hands of Consul Longford's facts. This is that gold countries cannot trade successfully with silver countries. You see, as President Walker has carefully explained, there is no fixed "par of exchange" in such cases, and how under heaven are you going to buy or sell goods without a par of exchange? One side or the other is sure to find itself getting cheated, and the trade will stop, of course, right there. But somehow gold-standard English and German and American manufacturers go right on selling to Japan and taking her produce in exchange, pitiably ignorant that the want of a par of exchange inevitably prevents any such operation. Of the whole foreign trade of Japan in 1895—$140,000,000—Great Britain's share was $53,000,000, the United States had $34,000,000, Germany $8,000,000. The individual merchants engaged in the business are, of course, losing money, but as they are not aware of it, the fatal nature of the lack of a par of exchange is as yet concealed from them. The foolish fellows actually think they have a par of exchange in the gold in which all their bills are payable.

The actual competition of Japan in the great lines of manufacture is not at all formidable up to the present, Mr. Longford concludes. In but few branches can the Japanese undersell the foreign product, quality for quality, and even the Japanese consumer prefers, as a general thing, the imported to the domestic article. But how about the future? Are not Japanese cheap coal and cheap labor, combined with Japanese inventiveness, to prove a real Yellow Terror to industrial Europe and America? Mr. Longford does not appear to be frightened. He points out some of the changes already observable which are sure to equalize conditions. "Wages in all classes of labor

have risen, and, while the capitalists are putting money into industries which promote a demand from Europe for manufactures, the lower classes have a higher standard of living than they ever had before." The simple truth is that unstable equilibrium in international trade relations cannot long endure. Differences infallibly adjust themselves. Inventions cannot be monopolized, or a low cost of production kept the exclusive property of one nation dealing with others. The principle that tends to equalize various trades and professions and industries, in respect of their rewards, works among competing nations. Most absurd of all is it to suppose that the alert Japanese are going to put up with less wages or a lower standard of living than they need to, with their natural earning power shown to them to be what it is. The Irish home-rule question "in a nutshell" has been defined to be "a quick-witted nation governed by a stupid people." In like manner we may say that there is and will be no Yellow Terror unless the quick-witted Japanese become as stupid as the bimetallists who talk about them.

HOW ITALY IS GOVERNED.

ROME, May 10, 1896.

IF it were possible to state in a word the essential element of government in Italy—that which is really the secret spring of official action from the highest to the lowest functions of government—that word would be "Camorra." We take it for granted that Italy is governed constitutionally because it has popular representation and a Parliament, but in point of fact there is not a stage of government in which the decisive agency in the conduct of affairs is not the power of the "Camorra," or what corresponds (as nearly as the Italian nature permits) to our "Ring." Beginning with the communal councils, in which the most minute affairs of the population are decided, there is scarcely a measure passed in which the main motive of decision is not the personal and pecuniary interests of the councillors. A relative who has been for many years in the provincial and communal councils in central Italy in which he held a large amount of real estate, assured me that it was the constant practice of the councillors to pass measures for the improvement of their personal property as measures of public utility—roads to open their estates as roads of public necessity, etc, etc.; and of course it is understood that the privilege is always in favor of the richer and to the loss of the poorer of the population. Put in terms of strict logic and honesty, it means that government, so far as taxation and financial expedients go, is a limited system of robbery. An intelligent and independent Italian once said to me, "Every Italian has in his constitution something of the Camorrist"; and he was from Piedmont, where the evil is at its minimum. In the little book by Prof. Villari, 'La Sicilia e il Socialismo,' recently published, I see the following singular declaration, and who knows Villari knows that he always speaks the strict verity:

"A Sicilian, who is also a competent teacher, said to me one day: 'In the little commune where I was born, the party in power does not pay the *dazio consumo* [the tax on all food that comes into the town or village]. Some days ago a certain man refused at the gates to pay, because he was a friend of the assessor of finance. Not being known to the customs officer, he was accompanied to the communal palace, where he was recognized and did not pay. The Opposition does not protest, because, when it is in power, it does the same. And the poor, unfortunately, always pay. My family is not partisan, does not aspire to power, is loved by all, and so never pays. But what shall I do when, arriving at the gates, they say to me, "Pass, you are known"; must I pay perforce?' Officers of the army, to whom I told the fact at table, said to me that often, and not alone in Sicily, they had repeatedly been obliged to insist on paying: 'You are a major and have the right not to pay.' 'You are commander and ought not to pay.' It is an ancient custom, and the tax-gatherer thinks it must continue. The gentleman who comes from his farm and brings a hare or a turkey in his carriage, does not pay—that is understood; the poor peasant pays for his bread."

In the provincial councils the construction of roads, when not made simply for the benefit of a great proprietor, becomes the subject of bribery, just as much as if it were in New York city, the contract being given nominally to the lowest bidder, but only nominally. In the great cities the collusion is worse. When the city of Rome proposed to construct the great embankments on both banks of the Tiber for the restraining of the floods, a building company offered to take the contract for sixty millions of francs, and the city refused, pretending to make economies by giving it out in lots; and when it had spent more than one hundred millions and had become bankrupt, the royal Government had to finish the work. In Milan, Turin, and some other cities of the north these things are measurably avoided, so the system is not always in fault; but the further south you go, the stronger the Camorra. In Naples no measure is passed without paying its contribution to the corruption fund.

In Parliament it takes another form. It is impossible to organize political parties in the Chamber of Deputies because there is always a very large proportion of the Deputies who will vote according to the appropriations made by the Ministry for expenditure in their electoral colleges, on highroads, railroads, endowment of local universities, ports even where no shipping exists, and so through all the demands of a population accustomed to be provided for at the public expense; which, after all, comes to paying all round, only much more for the waste and the Camorra. A gentleman of my acquaintance who owned a large estate in the district of which Acquapendente is the chief town, and who had constructed an admirable road through it, covering half the distance between the town and the nearest railway station, offered the municipality the use of his road if it would construct one to connect with it, in default of which, communication was carried on by circuitous and very much longer roads. The municipality refused the offer, saying that they would make the Government build a railroad, and they would spend nothing for a carriage road. But for the financial disaster which stopped all the new railways, it is probable that the Acquapendente road would have been built ere this, though for the exclusive use of a small town without commerce or industry, and which, like so many other Italian railways, would never pay the working expenses.

The organization of political parties, even on the most elementary principles of political economy, is therefore impossible, for there is always a body of Deputies, numbering probably from 100 to 150, who will vote for any ministry that promises local expenditure. The railway ring alone devours the public revenue to the amount of many millions (before the crisis and practical bankruptcy it was 200 millions annually, excess of expenditure above the receipts); and local expenditure apart from that controlled by Parliament adds much to this, from other works. Milan, again, is greatly interested in manufactures, and a partial system of high protection is established for the benefit of Milan, though the country at large is strongly interested in free trade.

It might be supposed that the Camorra must finish at the elective body of the Parliament, but in fact the throne is surrounded by a ring which no interest of the country, however sacred, has ever succeeded in breaking. This, which is known as the "palace Camorra," occupies itself with the composition of the Ministry and the secret direction of foreign affairs. It is composed of court favorites of both sexes, superior officers of the army possessing the personal confidence of the King, members of the diplomatic body, Senators, etc., and its action is immediately upon the sovereign, owing to which ministerial crises are directed, and appointment of the higher functionaries, especially in the army, is controlled. This ring is thoroughly French in its political sympathies, and has always been hostile to the Triple Alliance and to Crispi. From its pressure on the sovereign no ministry has ever been able to escape, and the latest instance of its overruling the constitutional powers was the refusal to permit the late Ministry to recall Baratieri from Africa when it was so clearly seen that he was losing all power of direction of the campaign.

Baratieri belonged to a group of political personages, Deputies and others, himself being a Deputy, and the ring at the palace had need of his influence in certain contingencies, so that what glory and consequent influence were to be got out of the war were to be gained by him as one of its number. He belonged to the Zanardelli group, and, when that chief attempted to form a ministry, had been the candidate for Minister of Foreign Affairs. The *Gazzetta del Popolo*, the leading journal of Piedmont, and the most independent and honest journal in Italy, said in its leading article on the African question: "It is said, and with too much justice, that the Abyssinian campaign has been carried on more with a view to Parliamentary and journalistic results than from true military motives. Most sacred truth! If Baratieri had not been a Deputy and of the group of Zanardelli, even designated as the Minister of Foreign Affairs, he would have been recalled long ago, and Italy would not now be mourning Amba Alagi and Abba Carima [as the battle of Adua is now called]." But if, being Deputy, he had not been one of the ring which serves the purposes of secret political combinations (one of the most important of these being to combat and paralyze the operations of the party which regards the Triple Alliance and the agreement with England as the vital interests of the country, and which has lately been led by Crispi), he would have found no support against the demand of the Ministry for his recall. As it was, it was simply the pressure of the "palace Camorra" which induced the King to refuse to allow him to be recalled.

All these things are now matters of general public knowledge, and the effect on the popularity of the King can easily be imagined. He is digging the grave of the monarchy more effectually than all the republicans in the kingdom. The professed republicans who have succeeded to Mazzini, Bertani, Alberto Mario,

and their contemporaries and associates are, with two or three exceptions, the blindest instruments in the hands of French intriguers, and France has very few friends in Italy besides them and the "palace Camorra" (with which they are also leagued by a common animosity to Crispi); so that, by a strange combination, the republicanism of France is the worst damper on that of Italy, and the momentary safeguard of the throne. So thoroughly is this condition of things known in the country that I have heard it openly said by old publicists of various political connections, that it is only the abdication of the King that can save the throne. The country begins, in view of the disasters of Abyssinia, to revolt at being governed by irresponsible and irrecognizable intriguers composing the "palace Camorra."

X.

REVENUE MEASURES IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, April 25, 1896.

REMARKABLE as has been the political movement in Japan during the last session of Parliament, the actual legislative work of the session has been more remarkable still. At no time during the past six years have measures affecting particularly the finances of the country been proposed or passed that could compare either in interest or in influence with those of the session which has just closed. Had financial bills of similar importance been under consideration in the Congress of the United States, the whole country would have been in a state of excitement; the newspapers would have vied with each other in giving details concerning the progress and probabilities of the measures, and the whole machinery of business would have been disturbed. Here in Japan, on the contrary, the public excitement and disturbance to business may be said to have been nil. One or two taxation measures were, indeed, upon consideration, opposed by certain semi-public bodies, as for instance the Tokyo Chamber of Commerce; but the opposition was half-hearted and the objections offered of an indifferent character.

This quiet acceptance by the public of measures so important cannot be ascribed particularly to any habit of submission or any other race characteristic of the Japanese people. It was seen from the opening of the session that something had to be done to devise means for permanently increasing the revenue of the Government. In the opinion of the executive, as well as of all the political parties, the expenses of the war were not to be met, except incidentally, out of the indemnity. The interest on the public debt that had augmented so rapidly during and immediately after the war had to be provided for. It was also a matter of general agreement that the army and navy were to be strengthened, and provision for this purpose had to be made at once. Lastly, the conquest of Formosa proved far more burdensome than was anticipated; and, furthermore, it was seen that the organization of the Government of the island would for some years be a drain upon the treasury rather than a resource to it. These items of increased expenditure were all inevitable features of the budgets of the coming years, and no difference of opinion existed that taxes must be devised to produce a larger revenue. If it be remembered that in Japan financial measures of importance to the nation generally originate with the Government, the Houses for the most part concerning themselves merely with criticising or modifying the bills as introduced, we have an explanation of the small excitement manifested. It was a general sentiment that the measures proposed by the Government were designed to secure as large a revenue as possible with as little friction as was compatible with existing circumstances.

The total annual revenue of the Japanese Government may be roughly put at 97,000,000 yen. The expenditure during the past few years has been less than this, at least by 6 or 7 million yen, a sum which has been employed for the most part in redeeming outstanding public obligations. The expenditure for the coming fiscal year is estimated at 152,000,000 yen, or in round numbers 62,000,000 yen above the ordinary expenditure of past years. About 40,000,000 yen of this increase, however, will be paid out of the indemnity, leaving an excess of about 14 or 15 million yen to be met by increased taxation or by the issue of bonds. The actual normal expenditure after the next fiscal year will, it is estimated, reach a figure between 120 and 130 million yen, and therefore the financial question before the last Parliament was how to devise by methods of taxation an annual increase of revenue over and above the present figure, amounting to something over 25,000,000 yen. It was impossible to augment the land-tax, as that was felt to be high enough, and any attempt in that direction would have met with the direct opposition of Parliament. What was proposed by the Government and accepted by both houses was practically the establishment of two new taxes and the increase of two old ones. The new ones are the registration and trade taxes, the others are the taxes on saké and tobacco.

To explain these four taxes properly in all their bearings would require a volume, as they have to do with conditions of production and trade that are to some extent peculiar to Japan. It is to be noted, too, that an adequate translation of the acts has not yet appeared, and until this is done various minor points concerning them must remain obscure to foreigners. At this stage, therefore, a simple outline must suffice.

The registration tax is to be levied on the registration of all lands, buildings, professions of nearly every description, companies, mines, successions, public bonds, marriages, divorces, and other legal functions specified in the act. The rate is in every case stated in the act. On buildings and lands it varies between 2-10 per cent. to 3-10 per cent. of the market value, on companies from 2-100 per cent. to 3-10 per cent. of the capital. In the case of professions, the tax takes the form of a license fee, amounting, for instance, in the case of lawyers, to 20 yen for the first registration and 10 yen for renewals. The tax is heaviest on mines. For trial operations the tax is 50 yen, for active working 100 yen, and for the sale or purchase of mining rights 50 yen. As certain registry taxes have been in existence in Japan for many years, the old ones are in every case superseded by the new law. There is also a list of exemptions, comprising especially those who work for daily wages, servants, etc. The law goes into operation from the 1st of April of the present year. The estimated proceeds of this tax are 6,800,000 yen.

The trade tax is even more complicated than the preceding. It is assessed on every kind of trade, manufacture, wholesale or retail business, and includes, besides, banking operations, insurance companies, money-lending, transportation, printing, photography, hotels, restaurants, brokerage, warehousing, and other forms of industrial enterprise. The system of assessing the tax is necessarily minute and intricate, but whether it will prove simpler in practice than it now seems, remains to be seen. The tax is generally proportioned to the amount of business done. In the case of merchants the rate is 5-100 per cent. on the proceeds of sales for wholesale transactions, and 15-100 per cent. for retail transactions, together with 4 per cent. of the rent of the premises, and 1 yen per employee. In the case of banking, insurance, money-lending, warehousing, etc., the rate is 2-10 per cent. of the capital plus 4 per cent. of the rent of the premises and 1 yen per employee. In the case of manufactures and photography the tax is assessed at the rate of 15-100 per cent. of the capital, plus 4 per cent. of the rent of the premises, 1 yen per business employee, and 30 sen per hand. There is a small list of exemptions, comprising (1) those engaged in certain Government businesses, (2) those engaged in wholesale and retail business during the first year of their enterprise, and (3) those engaged in banking, insurance, manufactures, etc., during the first three years of their enterprise. There are minute provisions for appraising the rent of premises and for computing the proceeds of sales. The law goes into effect on the 1st of January, 1897. The estimated yield of the tax is 7,550,000 yen.

The two remaining taxes are not new taxes, and were intended to be merely augmentations of existing ones, yet both are so reorganized under the new law that they can scarcely be recognized as old friends in their new garb. The saké tax bill is long and complicated, partly because there are so many varieties of this article made, and partly because the conditions under which it is produced are so peculiar. The capital point of the new system is that ordinary saké—the kind consumed by the great mass of people—is to be taxed at the rate of seven yen per koku, instead of four yen per koku, as heretofore (the koku is equal to nearly forty gallons). The tax on other kinds of saké is raised in about the same proportion. The estimated yield according to the new rate is 9,200,000 yen in round numbers, an increase of nearly double the old yield. The new system goes into operation on the 1st of October next.

The new law regarding tobacco is an innovation in Japan, and introduces something like a revolution in her system of raising revenue. Until now the tobacco tax has been in the main a copy of the American system. The tax has been assessed in the form of a stamp-tax, with the stamp affixed to the package for sale. The only difference between the two systems has been that in Japan the value of the stamp has varied with the price of the article, whereas in the United States the tax is a fixed amount per pound independent of the price. This system has been very successful in America, but in Japan there was this difficulty, that a very large amount (I believe fully one-half) of the tobacco never came into the hands of the manufacturer, but was used by the agricultural classes for home consumption without paying any tax. For this reason the revenue from tobacco has fallen far short of what it would be in America, where the cultivation of tobacco is localized and the great mass of farmers buy their tobacco from the "store." The problem of the Japanese Government was to make all consumers of tobacco pay the tax, and at the same time not to cause too much interference with the industry.

For this purpose the Government proposed to make the business of buying and selling the leaf tobacco a Government monopoly. According to the new law, all growers of tobacco

are to send in notice to the proper officials, by the end of April, of the area devoted to the cultivation of the leaf. The Government reserves the right of limiting this area if necessary. The grower is not to keep back any of this amount for his own use or for sale, unless he intends it for exportation, in which latter case he has full liberty to sell it to others under proper safeguards. By this means the Government hopes to get possession of all the tobacco raised for consumption in the country. The commodity is to be stored in Government warehouses and sold to manufacturers at fixed prices, the difference between the purchase and selling price representing the profits of the monopoly to the State. As already explained, it is not so much intended that the price paid the farmer or demanded from the manufacturer shall be very different from the present range of prices, as that the Government shall collect the tax from *all* consumers and incidentally absorb the profits of the middleman. The new system will not come into force until the 1st of January, 1898—a date not too remote, as the Government will find it necessary to establish a large amount of machinery, especially warehouses, to effect the monopoly. The estimated yield of the new system is over 10,000,000 yen, or more than twice the proceeds of the present tax.

These are the four measures that the Government has resorted to for increasing the revenue. The total receipts from these four taxes are estimated at more than 33,000,000 yen, but as the taxes to be repealed as soon as the new measures come into force amount to about 7,000,000 yen, the net increase is estimated at 26,000,000 yen. This estimate is not excessive. It is probable that as soon as the new system is in working order the proceeds will be somewhat more than this, and, with the growth of Japan, industrially and commercially, the amount will be considerably larger. For the next two years, however, the benefit to the Treasury will be small, partly because all the new taxes do not go immediately into force, partly because the new system, especially the tobacco monopoly, will require in the first instance a certain outlay from the Treasury, and partly because any new tax system requires time to be organized efficiently.

It would not be difficult to offer criticisms on the kind of taxes selected by the Government for the sake of increasing the revenue. Nothing is so tempting as to carp at the weak points of any tax or system of taxes, and nothing is so chimerical as to attempt to satisfy all classes in a community. One or two points may, however, be noted. In the first place, it is doubtful whether more time could not have been spent profitably in the discussion of four such important measures, or at least whether two of the measures could not have been postponed for consideration to the next session of Parliament. In the second place, it is questionable whether difficulties will not result from the peculiar method of imposing the trade tax. A similar tax is imposed in other countries, notably France, without recourse to the necessity of inspecting the books and accounts of any business firm or company. A system of assessment that turns wholly upon certain obvious outward characteristics (though the Japanese trade tax contains in part such features) is preferable, if it can in fairness be carried out. Lastly, it is a matter of doubt whether the tobacco monopoly was a necessity. It is likely that the Government knew what it was about when it instituted a monopoly; yet it seems reasonable to suppose that a moderate increase in the rate of the tobacco tax might have proved, within a few million yen, as productive of revenue without subjecting the tobacco industry to the great amount of official supervision which the new system demands. But these are rather incidental criticisms than vital objections. If the Government shows a disposition to administer the new system of taxes with as much impartiality and as little needless interference as possible, it will no doubt achieve as much success as any government does at present in a matter so unpopular, yet so indispensable to the nation's welfare.

G. D.

Correspondence.

JOHN COLTER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interest which always attaches to the personal history of the pioneers in American exploration is my apology for presenting the following facts concerning one of the most noted of those early characters. In a recent work* I gave a summary of what was then known concerning the adventures of John Colter, the discoverer of the Yellowstone Wonderland, and endeavored to unravel the mystery in which was buried too deeply the history of a very notable performance. Since the publication of this work I have come across two new references to Colter, both prior to the year 1820, one in an obscure chapter of an old work on Louisiana, and the other in a letter from Thomas Biddle to Gen. Atkinson, treating of the Indian trade. While this new information happily confirms the theory already worked out as to the scope and purpose of Colter's wanderings, it goes far towards filling the blanks in the existing record, and in one respect adds an original leaf to the laurel of Colter's fame.

As hitherto understood, the biography of John Colter may be very briefly stated. He was a private in the expedition of Lewis and Clark. On the return of the expedition from the Pacific, Colter secured his discharge at the site of the Mandan villages, and went back up the river with two companions to hunt and trap. In 1807 he made a long journey through what is now Northwestern Wyoming, and while on this journey discovered the peculiar volcanic country which exists near the headwaters of the Yellowstone. In the following summer he commenced trapping, with a companion named Potts, on the headwaters of the Missouri. Here they were attacked by the Blackfeet, Potts was slain, and Colter, by running the gauntlet, escaped, though by the narrowest margin and with incredible suffering and exertion. In 1810 he returned to St. Louis. He saw much of Clark, Brackenridge, Bradbury, and others, told of his adventures, was evidently believed by the more discerning, but was ridiculed by the great mass of his listeners, who derisively christened the scene of his exploits "Colter's Hell." In 1811 Colter moved some distance up the Missouri, married, and made his exit from history.

It now appears that Colter did not remain continuously in the upper country from 1806 to 1810. In the spring of 1807 he set out for St. Louis and descended the Missouri as far as to the mouth of the Platte. Here he was met by a party under Manuel Lisa, the celebrated trader, who induced him to return to the upper rivers. When the expedition arrived in the Yellowstone country, the Blackfeet Indians were encountered. Lisa was agreeably disappointed to find them not hostile, as he feared they might be on account of their experience with Capt. Lewis the previous year. But it seems that they were so sensible of the provocation under which Capt. Lewis had acted that they had not cherished the loss of their two brethren at his hands as a cause for revenge, and were ready for friendly intercourse with the whites.

When Lisa reached the mouth of the Bighorn, he set up a trading post and dispatched Colter to visit the neighboring tribes and bring them in to trade. Colter set out with a "thirty-pound pack," and travelled several hundred miles, part of the time alone, and part of the time with Indians. While in company with a party of Crows, they were attacked by the Blackfeet. Colter, in self-defence, fought with the Crows, distinguishing himself greatly. The Blackfeet were defeated with loss, but not until they had seen a white man fighting on the side of their hereditary foes.

Next year Colter and Potts, while trapping on the Upper Missouri, were surprised by a party of Blackfeet who still seemed not disposed to hostility. But difficulty soon arose, a fight ensued, Potts and two Indians were killed, and Colter made his escape.

These two encounters in which the Blackfeet suffered so signally, and, more particularly, the unfortunate appearance of especial friendship on the part of the whites for the Crow nation, as evidenced by the location of a trading-post in the country of that tribe, and by the presence of one of their number in the fighting ranks of the Crows, determined irrevocably the future attitude of the Blackfeet toward the whites. Whenever thereafter they met, it was always on terms of instant and deadly hostility.

It thus appears that the adventures of John Colter, which have hitherto seemed decidedly of the romantic and fictitious order, were the result of a definite purpose of trade with the Indians. His "route in 1807" was a simple business enterprise. His terrible experience with the Blackfeet was no fiction. His fame as discoverer of the Yellowstone Wonderland rests on a secure basis. But, with these claims to the remembrance of posterity, he must henceforth share the burden, so long borne by the great explorer Capt. Meriwether Lewis, of having been in part the cause of that malignant and lasting enmity of the Blackfeet towards the whites which, for upwards of threescore years, played so important a part in the history of the far West.

Hiram M. Chittenden.

*'The Yellowstone National Park.' 1895.

IN MEMORY OF GEORGE STEPHENS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A committee has been formed, with Sir Edmund Monson, British Ambassador to Austria, as chairman, and the Rev. C. A. Moore, late Chaplain of H.B.M.'s Legation in Denmark, as secretary, to establish a memorial to Prof. George Stephens, for many years in charge of the Department of English at the University of Copenhagen, but better known through his writings on runology. The memorial is to take the appropriate form of "a small Endowment Fund bearing his name, for the benefit of St. Alban's Church, Copenhagen, towards the founding and maintenance of which Prof. Stephens labored long and zealously."

Prof. Stephens had not a few friends in this country who have enjoyed his hospitality at the villa on Bianco Lunos Allée, and they will undoubtedly be glad to learn of this opportunity to express their regard. Subscriptions may be sent to the Rev. C. A. Moore, Gustav Adolf Strasse 6, Dresden, Saxony.—Yours respectfully, DANIEL KILHAM DODGE.

CHAMPAIGN, ILL., May 23, 1896.

Notes.

STONE & KIMBALL have transferred their entire business from Chicago to No. 139 Fifth Avenue, New York; the *Chap-book* alone having been left behind as the property of Mr. H. S. Stone, formerly a member of the above corporation. They have nearly ready 'The Purple East,' poems principally about Armenia, by William Watson; 'The Yankees of the East,' a book of letters on Japan, by William E. Curtis, in two volumes with illustrations; 'The Thlinkets of Northern Alaska,' by Francis Knapp and Rheta Louise Childe, illustrated; 'Six Conversations and Some Correspondence,' by Clyde Fitch; 'Wives in Exile,' a society novel by William Sharp; 'In a Dike Shanty,' by Maria Louise Pool; 'An Adventurer of the North,' by Gilbert Parker; 'The Island of Dr. Moreau,' by H. G. Wells; and 'Miss Armstrong's and Other Circumstances,' short stories by John Davidson.

Edward Arnold announces for June first 'George's Mother,' a novel by Stephen Crane.

A popular Life of Edison, by E. C. Kenyon, is promised by Thomas Whittaker.

Macmillan's latest announcements are 'A History of Elementary Mathematics,' by Dr. Florian Cajori of Colorado College; a textbook of selections from Chaucer by Prof. Hiram Corson of Cornell; Leibnitz's 'Critique of Locke,' translated by Alfred G. Langley; an 'Introduction to Public Finance,' by Prof. Carl C. Plehn of the University of California; and 'Embarrassments,' short stories by Henry James.

'The Continent of America: Its Discovery and Baptism,' including an attempt to establish the landfall of Columbus on Watling's Island, by John Boyd Thacher, is an expensive work about to be issued in a limited edition by Wm. Evarts Benjamin, 10 West 22d St., N. Y.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. will soon issue 'Camilla,' a novel of society life in Stockholm, from the Swedish of Richert von Koch; 'The Victory of Ezry Gardner,' a Nantucket idyl by Miss Imogen Clark; and 'The Social Meaning of Religious Experiences,' by Dr. Herron.

From D. C. Heath & Co. we are to have 'The Problem of Elementary Composition,' by Elizabeth H. Spalding, and 'Select Poems of Robert Burns,' edited by Andrew J. George.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. propose a Riverside School Library embracing a series of fifty books pertinent to the name of the series. Franklin's Autobiography, Andersen's Tales, the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' and 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' among others, will enter into this collection.

The first complete illustrated edition of Marryat's works in Danish is about to be published at Copenhagen. The translator is P. Jerndorff-Jessen, and the translation will be revised, to avoid possible technical mistakes, by a prominent Danish naval officer. This precaution would be an admirable one in the case of many original works treating of the sea, whose authors have less practical experience than the author of 'Peter Simple.'

What Mr. David Hannay has given us in his 'Don Emilio Castelar' (F. Warne & Co.) is a vivacious and cynical sketch of Spanish politics since the revolution of 1868, with Castelar only occasionally appearing as the *deus ex machinâ*, or, more frequently, the god run over and crushed flat by the machine. Of Castelar on his oratorical or his literary side, little or nothing is said; his personality is left almost wholly in the shadow. Of his political theories and political career, even, no formal account or summation is given. His name, in short, has simply furnished Mr. Hannay a peg upon which to hang his lively description of Spanish political methods and changes. This seems a little misleading, in a series specifically devoted to "Public Men of To-day"; but, after all, we think the author has chosen wisely. His long residence in Spain, and intimate acquaintance with the Spanish political character from the inside, make what he writes here of much more value than a perfunctory but more personal account of Castelar could possibly have been. For the light his incisive comments throw upon the present situation of Spain, his book makes an especial appeal to present-day readers.

'Studies in Plant Form, with some suggestions for their Application in Design,' by A. E. V. Lilley and W. Midgley (Scribners), is likely to prove a useful volume to many interested in ornamental designing. Not that the book itself is particularly good or the "suggestions" particularly valuable. The general remarks on the "principles of design" are slight, and the "concise accounts of the technical requirements of the different processes" are, though sensible, altogether too concise; but, as the authors remark in the preface, "it is seldom that the plant most suitable for a particular design is in season when it is wanted, and it is often . . . difficult (sometimes impossible) to find a drawing of the ornamental sides of many plants." They therefore conceived the idea of giving a series of somewhat simplified and decorative drawings of plant forms, supplemented by some very good and clear photographs from nature. The designs which the authors have formed from this material are not always extremely successful, but the material itself is most valuable.

Curtis & Co. of Boston, publishers of the "Copley Prints," recently noticed by us, send us a well printed little pamphlet by Ernest Fenollosa on the 'Mural Paintings in the Boston Public Library.' We heartily agree with Mr. Fenollosa's estimate of the importance, in forming a national school of art, of this effort towards monumental painting, and he says so much that we believe to be true, and so much more that we should like to believe to be true, that it seems ungracious to quarrel with his enthusiasm; but we cannot help the feeling that a greater reticence of language would have carried greater conviction. The implied comparison of Mr. Sargent to Michelangelo would assuredly strike that admirable modern painter himself as excessive, and a certain tropical luxuriance of phrase disguises the soundness of much of the criticism. Still, the criticism *is* sound and suggestive, and we recommend a reading of the pamphlet to any one who may have been tempted to think of "mere decoration" as of an inferior kind of art.

The *Portfolio* for April (Macmillan) is a rarity in that its interest is not only contemporaneous but American. We do not remember an instance, heretofore, of an American artist, resident in America, who has received the honors of an elaborate monograph in an important foreign publication. Certainly no American artist deserves such homage more than Mr. John Lafarge, who has now received it. The text, by Cecilia Waern, is well written, and is illuminated by a liberal quantity of Mr. Lafarge's own charming prose. It makes no attempt "to assign him a set rank"—it will be many years before that can be done—but is wisely confined to an account of his "development, ideals, and aims, together with a few hints as to temperament and gifts that constitute his artistic personality." By a singular oversight the date of his birth (1835) has been entirely omitted. The illustrations are numerous and well executed, and give an adequate idea of the range of Mr. Lafarge's production, if not of its quality. Whether in paint or in glass, color is such an essential element of his art that he suffers more than most painters from any form of reproduction. We regret that something more was not given us in illustration of his admirable landscape painting, some of which will, we think, finally hold the highest rank in his completed work.

M. Auguste Brachet's 'Historical Grammar of the French Language' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York; Macmillan) is practically a new work, not only as enlarged, but as having been rewritten in great part by Mr. Paget Toynbee, whose competence is well known to scholars. The book, in fact, has been brought up to date, and the results of the most recent researches embodied in it. The whole of Book I., which treats of Phonetics, and forms more than half of the volume, is entirely original. Books II. and III. have also been so largely rewritten that Brachet's own share is greatly diminished, and his Introduction alone is retained nearly in full. Division into paragraphs and the addition of two very full indices, one of subjects and one of words, facilitate the use of the book for reference purposes.

"Devant le Siècle" (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is the last *recueil* of articles by the Vicomte de Vogüé, and contains some noteworthy pages. The study of Heredia's "Trophées," that on Taine, and that on Montégut have distinct value. The article on Canrobert is touching as well. "Premier Septembre" is a realistic account of so much of the war as the writer saw, interspersed with sound advice to his compatriots.

M. George L. Fonsegrive studies contemporary literature from the Christian standpoint, and is not ashamed to say so. Another recommendation is that he speaks intelligently on the subjects he treats, and his articles, originally published in *La Quinzaine* and now issued collectively under the title 'Les Livres et les Idées—1894-95' (Paris: Lecoffre), are worth reading. It is really ideas more than the books themselves which he discusses. The following may be noticed more particularly: "Le Bilan de la Science," "Le Sentiment religieux dans le Roman," and "L'Éducation morale."

The fourth and concluding volume of Amédée Roux's history of Italian literature has just appeared (Paris: Plon & Cie.). It covers the period from 1883 to 1896. The lack of an index, so very common a defect in French books, diminishes the practical value of this work.

On May 14, 1796, Dr. Edward Jenner first performed the operation of vaccination, and in celebration of the centennial anniversary of this beneficent discovery the Imperial Board of Health in Berlin has issued a memorial entitled 'Smallpox and Preventive Vaccination' ('Blattern und Schutzpockenimpfung'). Vaccination was made compulsory in Bavaria as

early as August 26, 1807, but did not become generally obligatory in Germany before the enactment of the "Reichs-Impfgesetz" of April 8, 1874, the necessity of which was proved by the epidemic of smallpox that had raged a short time before in all the principal German cities except Munich, whose inhabitants remained comparatively free from the scourge. In 1895 the mortality from smallpox in Bavaria amounted to the fraction 0.017 of every 100,000 inhabitants; in other words, there were only seven cases and a single death. It is also shown that, with proper precautions as regards the purity of the vaccine matter, there is not the slightest danger of infection or of any injury whatever to the patient. The publication of these statistics is the answer of the Board of Health to the recent attempts in the Imperial Diet to abolish the law making vaccination and revaccination obligatory.

Members of the Faculty of the University of Göttingen have, in more than one way, in recent years shown their active interest in the advancement of woman. The articles on "Die Deutsche Frauenbewegung" by Prof. Gustav Cohn of the department of political science (*Rundschau*, March-May) furnish new evidence that the spirit of progress has found an abode in that famous seat of learning. The historical portions of Prof. Cohn's treatise are, on the whole, critical and philosophical rather than statistical (full statistics on the subject may be found in the work of Frau Lina Morgenstern, Berlin, 1895, and elsewhere), but he gives in broad outlines an interesting account of the movement during the last thirty years from the standpoint of a conservative and hopeful sympathizer.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May contains a timely article, by Capt. Maunsell, on Turkish Armenia and Kurdistan. Though mainly topographical, it gives interesting descriptions of scenery and of the people and their homes—for example, of an Armenian mountain-village which is occupied through the winter (many are deserted for the plains at this season), and whose street is covered so that the village has one common roof. "The interior is like a rabbit warren, and it is difficult for the uninitiated to grope about and escape being knocked down in the semi-darkness by cattle being driven in and out." Each house contains, in addition to the oven, a great vat for storing water in winter to prevent its being frozen. The author emphasises the importance, geographical and strategical, of the Armenian plateau with relation to the great lines of communication between Europe and Asia. There is also an interesting account of the Falkland Islands, the people, and their great industry, sheep-raising. In a population of 1,900 there is not one who is receiving aid from the poor-fund, and the average amount to the credit of the 250 depositors in the savings bank is $650.

A most adventurous journey is described in the *Geographical Journal* for May. Mr. St. George Littledale, accompanied by his wife and nephew, starting from Yarkand early in January, 1895, crossed Thibet from north to south, coming within forty-eight miles of Lhasa. Here he was compelled to turn westward, and entered India through Kashmir. Some idea of the nature of the country traversed is given by the fact that from April 26 to October 16 they never descended lower than 15,000 feet, and for four weeks of that time had camped over 17,000 feet. At times the thermometer was ten degrees below zero in the tent, and the hair was frozen to the pillow. For seventy-five days they did not see a man. Considering the inaccessibility of Lhasa to Europeans—nothing would induce the Lama Government to admit Mr. Littledale and his party—it is strange to read of the supplies which they received from this place, viz., scented soap, Wills's Bristol bird's-eye tobacco, and groceries wrapped in a queer old print of a London church. This may be a relic of the visit of Manning, the correspondent of Charles Lamb, the only Englishman who has succeeded in reaching Lhasa. The *Journal*, it may be added, incorrectly ascribes this exploit to George Bogle. Mr. Littledale made a rough, but remarkably accurate, route survey of 1,700 miles, much of it through absolutely unexplored country, discovering among other things a mountain chain with peaks 20,000 feet high. He brought back between sixty and seventy plants, found at a height of about 16,000 feet; and ten, including a "striking grass" and a fungus, are probably new to science.

The fourteenth annual report of the Dante Society of Cambridge, Mass., has for its chief accompanying paper some illustrations of the 'Divine Comedy,' extracted by Prof. Norton from the Chronicle of Fra Salimbene (composed 1283-'87), in the original Latin. These are largely concerned with historical personages, but also with incidents like the earthquake alluded to in Inf. xxiii., 37-42, in the fright caused by which Salimbene's mother left him in his cradle and hurried off with his two sisters. Resenting this in after years as a slight on his sex ("because she ought to have had a greater concern for me, a man-child, than for the girls"), he was assured that she picked them up as being larger and more portable.

The Woman's Education Association of Boston has established for the current year several scholarships for work in the summer schools, to be chiefly offered for the course in Physical Geography given by Prof. W. M. Davis of Harvard University. The sum at disposal is not large, and contributions are desired. They may be sent to Mrs. R. H. Richards, Institute of Technology, Boston, Mass. A circular issued by the Association enumerates summer courses for 1896 in eight colleges and universities, all at the East, save one (Chicago).

—Prof. Edward Channing of Harvard University has written for the Cambridge Historical Series the volume on 'The United States of America, 1765–1865' (Macmillan). In spite of a pervading impression of slightness, the book is one which may be read with some interest and considerable profit, although any attempt to give, within the narrow limits of three hundred pages, a clear and well-proportioned account of the history of the United States for a hundred years can never be quite successful unless accompanied by great skill in condensation and an unusually interesting style. Unlike most writers of similar manuals, Prof. Channing has apparently chosen to restrict himself to a presentation and discussion of leading events and important situations only, rather than to crowd his pages with facts; but while his selection shows, in general, a sure sense of the relative importance of things, he does not indicate many new points of view, nor are his comments very profound. As a history the book is of somewhat unequal merit. Much the best portion is that covering the period from 1765 to the beginning of Jefferson's first administration in 1801, which is "based on the author's own reading of the original sources"; the treatment is technical, however, rather than broad, and the discussion of the relations between the colonies and the mother country lays at least due emphasis upon the merely legal aspects of the points at issue. For the period subsequent to 1801 the author freely acknowledges special indebtedness to other writers; this part of the work, therefore, presents few points calling for comment, beyond noting that the theory of nullification is summarily dismissed as "ridiculous," and that Prof. Channing has written a very readable account of the slavery controversy without leaving the impression that he regards the struggle as one of very profound significance. We have noted but few *errata*, and none of them serious. Georgia ceded its Western lands in 1802, not in 1801 (p. 111). The Ordinance of 1787 provided for the eventual formation of five, not six (p. 114) States out of the territory northwest of the Ohio River. Washington's proclamation of neutrality was issued in 1793, not in 1794 (p. 148); and Foot's resolution in regard to the public lands was introduced in December, 1829, not "in 1830" (p. 215). The statement (p. 125) that the eleventh amendment to the Constitution "limited the power of the Supreme Court," is hardly adequate. The volume is equipped with maps and a good index, and there is a useful select bibliography.

—At the "World's Congress of Librarians," held during the World's Fair at Chicago, in 1893, it was proposed to form a union of the principal libraries of Europe and America for the purpose of publishing facsimiles of the rarest and most valuable manuscripts. The cost of reproduction was to be borne by the associated libraries, and the facsimiles were to be distributed among them. It was furthermore agreed that the enterprise should be under the direction of W. N. Du Rieu, the librarian of the University of Leyden in Holland, and that the publisher should be A. W. Sijthoff of the same city. Owing to financial difficulties, this plan was not carried into effect, and the enterprising Leyden publisher has now undertaken to reproduce these facsimiles at his own expense under the editorial superintendence of Du Rieu. The first series will consist of six Greek and six Latin manuscripts, among which may be mentioned the Æschylus of the Laurentian Library of Florence, the Dioscorides of Vienna, the Plato of Oxford, the Lucretius of Leyden, and both the Florentine manuscripts of Tacitus. The first volume issued will be the manuscript of the first eight books of the Septuagint, written in the fifth century, and formerly the property of the French councillor Claude Sarrau (deceased in 1651), and therefore known as the Codex Sarravianus. It consists of 153 leaves, of which 130 are in Leyden, 22 in Paris, and 1 in St. Petersburg. A successful reproduction of these widely scattered fragments will bring them together in a single volume, and thus render the whole codex again available by scholars. The directors of European libraries are, as a rule, exceedingly liberal in placing their manuscripts at the disposal of the libraries of other countries for the promotion of special researches. The State Library of Munich has even permitted unique manuscripts to be sent to the United States for this purpose. But such a stretch of generosity is attended with great risks and might result in irreparable loss. Nearly every large library has among its manuscript treasures a limited number of so-called *kimelia* (jewels), which are never lent, but belong to the category known in France as "manuscrits non-touristes." As the Leyden publisher announces, it is to the "reproduction des manuscrits grecs et latins non-touristes" that particular atten-

tion will be given. Excellent facsimiles of several kimelia, such as the Demosthenes in Paris, the Nibelungen in Munich, the Anglo-Saxon manuscript in Vercelli, the Psalter in Utrecht, and the 'Imitatio Christi' in Brussels, already exist and have met with unqualified praise. It is to be hoped that the new enterprise will be fully appreciated by scholars and receive the support of libraries and universities in this country. It is hardly necessary to insist upon the value of these facsimiles not only for the purposes of collation in editing texts, but also for imparting class-room instruction in palæography.

—Herr Wilhelm Bode, the well-known conservator of the Museum of Berlin, tells in *Pan* the story of how he formed the collection of Italian bronzes which is one of the glories of that gallery. With great modesty he attributes most of his *trouvailles* to chance and to good luck, but it is easy to see that his own unwearied activity, and his sureness of taste and keenness of scent as a connoisseur, have been more valuable to him than any luck. His first purchases date from a journey which he made into Italy at a time when he was only an attaché of the Museum. He had been commissioned to bring back some casts, but he convinced himself very soon that, with a little perseverance and good fortune, he could at almost the same cost obtain originals. It was thus that he bought the famous busts of the Palazzo Strozzi, Michelangelo's "St. John," a "Cavalier" of Riccio's, which he found at Venice, a "St. John" of Donatello's, and other most valuable works. Herr Bode tells his tale not without humor, and some of the stories of his ruses and tricks as a collector are most amusing. He was once paying a visit to Frederic Spitzer, who lived then in narrow lodgings in the Rue de Rivoli, when the Baron Adolphe de Rothschild was announced. Bode took refuge in a sort of lumber-room, and found there on the floor a great study of a head for a statue of Ludovico di Gonzaga, which he studied at his leisure. "When Spitzer came back," Bode says, "he told me with a smile that connoisseurs themselves had their moments of error, and that he had let himself be taken in when he bought that study. I concealed my surprise, and some weeks after I profited by his avowal and bought the sculpture very cheap through an agent." The famous Spanish statue, the "Madonna in Tears," which is one of the finest pieces in the Berlin Museum, was acquired by methods even less direct and frank.

—The Impressionists hold the Luxembourg in force, awaiting there the time of their triumphal march to the Louvre. The Caillebotte collection has just been accepted by the Conseil d'État. M. Gustave Caillebotte was himself an Impressionist painter, and in the course of the last thirty years had gathered together sixty-six canvases, works of his school, and at his death bequeathed them to the nation. At first there were some difficulties raised as to the legacy. M. Caillebotte had prescribed that his entire collection should go into the Museum; the directors of the Beaux-Arts, however, wished that certain pictures of minor value should be removed from it. A newspaper discussion arose upon this point, together with false rumors that the gift would be declined. In reality there was only a misunderstanding, and a very slight one at that, and the authorities of the Museum and the Caillebotte heirs are now entirely agreed. Forty pictures, instead of sixty-six, go to the Luxembourg. These canvases have been chosen by the Conservator of the Museum and by the artists interested. Of Manet, there are two pictures; of Dégas, seven pastels; of Césanne, one painting; of Claude Monet, eight; of Renoir, six; of Sisley, six; of Pissarro, eight; there are also two of Millet's drawings. When one remembers the twenty years of insult and of obloquy through which the Impressionist school has struggled to its present position, and when one remembers also how recent is the time when Claude Monet had to fight almost desperately to win a place at the Luxembourg for Édouard Manet's "Olympia," one can see how substantial the present triumph is. The Caillebotte collection will be hung in a new gallery which is to be built upon the garden terrace, and which will open from the vestibule of sculpture.

—From 1871 to 1877 the late Viscount de Gontaut-Biron represented the French republic at Berlin; and, under the catching title 'An Ambassador of the Vanquished,' his friend and sometime chief, the Duke de Broglie, has described De Gontaut's experiences and the relations between France and Germany during the six years that followed the peace of Frankfort. The book is based, as the title-page declares, upon the Ambassador's diaries and memoranda; but this material is obviously supplemented by De Broglie's personal knowledge of the events narrated. De Broglie was the leader of the French royalists; from May, 1873, to May, 1874, he was at the head of President MacMahon's cabinet, and, during the greater part of the year, he held the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. Incidentally his narrative throws light on the attempted restoration of the Bourbons in the person of "Henry V." The most interesting chapter, however, is that devoted to the "crisis of 1875," when it was feared that Germany intended to provoke a fresh war and crush France before her military power was restored. It seems clear that Moltke and the military party in Prussia favored this course. It is admitted, even by De Broglie, that King William was opposed to it. What is disputed is the attitude of Bismarck. He has always maintained that he had no idea of provoking a war. De Gontaut, however, distrusted him, and initiated, as De Broglie tells us, the measures which secured the intervention of the Russian diplomacy. According to De Broglie, the peril was a real one, and the Ambassador's prompt and shrewd action saved his country. The animosity which Bismarck henceforth displayed against De Gontaut is depicted as the natural resentment of a violent man against the antagonist who has foiled him. The German side of the story is that Bismarck, deeply resenting the unnecessary interference of Russia, resented also the French suspicion which had invoked the interference; and if he held De Gontaut chiefly responsible, it appears from De Broglie's testimony that he was not in error. The volume is translated and annotated by Albert D. Vandam, and published by Macmillan. The character of the translation may be illustrated by a few random excerpts. We read of De Gontaut's "rapid advance *into a midst which lent itself so little to it*" (p. 24); of "scruples which prevented part of the Royalists *to adhere*" to a project (p. 72); of "*dissentiments*" between Bismarck and Von Arnim (p. 75); and of "*the severe appreciations enumerated* in the course of the Bazaine trial with regard to the conduct of the Prussian generals during the war" (p. 146). For the notes which Mr. Vandam has inserted no cause appears except that, like *Mercutio*, but with less reason, he "loves to hear himself talk."

THE COURTSHIPS OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.

The Courtships of Queen Elizabeth: A History of the Various Negotiations for her Marriage. By Martin A. S. Hume, F.R. Hist. S., Editor of the Calendar of Spanish State Papers of Elizabeth (Public Record Office). London: Unwin; New York: Macmillan. 1896. Illustrated. Pp. vi, 348.

THE history of royal loves and marriages is not angelic or august. True love has seldom run in the course marked out for it by statesmanship or diplomacy, and scandals have been the natural result. Royalty has a claim on our pity and our charitable allowance, since it is generally deprived of conjugal affection, which to the rest of us is the nurse of virtue. Even George IV., had the law allowed him to marry Mrs. Fitzherbert, who seems to have been in every way worthy of love, might have been made a better man. State policy compelled him, in her stead, to take a bride the first sight of whom made him call for brandy. In England every proposal of a dotation for one of the royal family calls forth angry protests from the democracy; a vote for one would almost cost a Radical member of Parliament his political life. Yet so long as the Royal Marriage Act prevents the members of the royal family from marrying whom they please, equity will surely entitle them to dotation. Why do not the Radicals move to repeal the Royal Marriage Act, and restore to the members of the royal family their natural liberty of choice? Princes and princesses would then have no need of marriage portions from the public. They might take their choice among the Rothschilds, Hirsches, Vanderbilts, and Jay Goulds.

In making a special study of the courtships of Elizabeth, Mr. Martin A. S. Hume has had the aid of the Spanish state papers of the reign at the Record Office, of the calendar of which he is the editor, and which could not fail to throw new light upon the subject. The history which he lays before us is a singular mixture of the action of coquetry with that of diplomacy. We are inclined to think that there was in it rather more of coquetry and less of diplomacy than Mr. Hume supposes. When Elizabeth tries to draw Philip II. into a positive offer for her hand, in order, as Mr. Hume says, that she may have the satisfaction of saying that she refused him, coquetry surely predominates over policy. Mr. Hume truly depicts Elizabeth's vanity as perfectly insatiable, so that only those who would consent to pander to it could hope for a continuance of her favor, and such a foible was not likely to observe diplomatic limits. It is pretty evident, also, that sex was strong in her, and that Shakspere's lines describing her as passing on "in maiden meditation, fancy-free," which Mr. Hume takes for his motto, are more beautiful than true. Still, the diplomatic significance of the biddings and chafferings for her hand was unquestionably great. They helped her council to maintain the balance between France and Spain, whose conjunction might have been fatal to the Protestant realm. To credit them, as Mr. Hume does, with "the making of modern England," seems to us, we confess, going too far; but they undoubtedly did much to ward off danger. We cannot help thinking, however, that the England of Walsingham, Drake, and Sydney would, without

any royal courtships, have managed somehow to save itself.

One dark episode, at all events, in the history there is which had in it nothing diplomatic. Most readers will learn from this treatise for the first time that the modesty of Elizabeth received a shock in her early youth from scandalous treatment undergone at the hands of Lord Seymour, to whose care and that of his wife, Catherine Parr, the Queen Dowager, she was for a time consigned. This in some measure prepares us for her extremely immodest flirtation with the handsome and unprincipled Leicester. That the flirtation went beyond extreme immodesty Elizabeth, when she supposed herself to be dying, positively denied, and her denial may be believed. But it is certain that she openly received Leicester's addresses, knowing that he was already married to Amy Robsart. Here we will let Mr. Hume speak:

"Shortly afterwards, in September, 1560, Cecil took the Bishop [Quadra] aside and complained bitterly of Dudley, who, he said, was trying to turn him out of his place; and then, after exacting many pledges of secrecy, said that the Queen was conducting herself in such a way that he (Cecil) thought of retiring, as he clearly foresaw the ruin of the realm through the Queen's intimacy with Dudley, whom she meant to marry. He begged the Bishop to remonstrate with the Queen, and ended by saying that Dudley was thinking of killing his wife, 'who was said to be ill, although she was quite well.' 'The next day,' writes the Bishop, 'as she was returning from hunting, the Queen told me that Robert's wife was dead, or nearly so, and asked me not to say anything about it. Certainly this business is most shameful and scandalous; and, withal, I am not sure whether she will marry the man at once or even at all, as I do not think she has her mind sufficiently fixed. Cecil says she wishes to do as her father did.' In a postscript of the same letter the writer gives the news of poor Amy Robsart's death. 'She broke her neck—she must have fallen down a staircase,' said the Queen. Henceforward Dudley was free, and the marriage negotiations had another factor to be taken into account."

Before this the Bishop had learned, from a quarter deemed by him trustworthy, that Leicester meant to poison his wife. He afterwards adhered to the opinion that she had been murdered; so, pretty evidently, did Burleigh; and the belief was so rife that preachers in the pulpit impugned the honor of the Queen. Elizabeth might have been made to believe that Leicester's wife was dying, though she ought to have repelled with disgust addresses made to her by the husband of a dying wife. But when the dark prediction was fulfilled by Amy's sudden and violent death, it seems impossible that she should not have divined the truth. Yet she continued her flirtation with Leicester, and, had he been of princely rank, would evidently have made him her husband.

That Leicester's wife was murdered it is hardly possible to doubt. An accidental death could not have been predicted. The hypothesis of suicide has not a shadow either of evidence or of probability in its favor, while it is directly contradicted by the verdict of "mischaunce." There was, of course, a studious show of fair inquiry; but we know what Leicester's influence was and what juries were in those days. Why did not Leicester himself go to the spot and institute the investigation in person? Why, but because the villain dared not look on the face of his murdered wife? That he was a villain all the world believed. He had an Italian "physician" at his side. His second wife accused him of practising on her life. Twice Mr. Hume implicates him in an assassination plot. He was ready to sell his country and its religion to Spain for Spanish support in his matrimonial scheme of ambition, though he afterwards affected to be the patron of the Protestant party. The Catholic morality was dead. The new Protestant morality, though it was gaining ground among the people, had not yet extended itself to the courts, even to those which had broken with the Papacy. Elizabeth had no scruple in instigating Sir Amyas Paulet to make away with Mary Queen of Scots. Nor had she or her councillors any scruple in renewing their connection with Catherine de Médicis, and negotiating with her for a marriage with one of her sons, after the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

Philip II., his son Don Carlos, the Austrian Archduke Ferdinand, the Scotch Earl of Arran, Eric King of Sweden, Charles IX. of France, the French Princes Anjou and Alençon—the diplomatic flirtations or semi-flirtations with all these (the amour with Leicester still going on and helping to defeat the other plans), form about as tangled a skein as it was ever the lot of a historian to unwind. For the accomplishment we must refer to Mr. Hume's pages. A spider's web would be as easy to analyze. The most amusing of the courtships, as well as that which came nearest to bearing fruit, was the courtship of the Duc d'Alençon. The Queen's age was double that of her suitor, but he affected to be dying with love of her, so that courtiers said he would have a good voyage across the Channel if he did not swell the waves with his tears. He was deeply pitted with smallpox, and his figure was far from imposing, yet the Queen seems almost to have had serious thoughts of him. She gave him the pet name of her "frog"; she responded to his burning love-letters, and bade him address her as his wife. She flattered his hopes with "nouvelles démonstrations, accompagnées de baisers, privautés, caresses, et mignardises ordinaires aux amants." At his death she wrote to his excellent mother that if a picture of her heart could be seen, there would be seen a body without a soul. This ended the series of courtships, as well it might, the Queen being now fifty, though her vanity exacted from her courtiers the language of love as the condition of her favor to the end.

It was fortunate for England that of the negotiations for a Spanish, an Austrian, and a French marriage, none took effect. Any one of those connections would have thrown a heavy weight into the scale of Catholicism and reaction. The best policy, if there was to be marriage, was probably that indicated by the nomination of the Scotch Earl of Arran. Had there been a Scotch Protestant up to the mark—which the Earl by no means was—the marriage would have united the two kingdoms, and the island realm might then have bid defiance to its foes. But the only Scotchman who was personally a fit mate for the Queen of England would have been excluded, even when he was unmarried, by the bar sinister on his birth.

The nation earnestly desired that the Queen should marry, both to put a stop to scandals and to secure the succession. Parliament gave expression to the wish. Elizabeth's refusal to marry, if the best husband offered her was Alençon, we can well understand. Her steadfast refusal to name a successor it is not so easy to explain. She left the country to the chances of a disputed succession and a civil war. It is difficult to imagine any motive other than unwillingness to part with power. Pity, at all events, Elizabeth deserves, as a woman undoubtedly of warm temperament and strongly inclined to marriage, yet debarred from it by her position. There is no difficulty in understanding the melancholy which clouded her last days. We need not resort to the pathetic fable about Essex and the ring, or to the more refined hypothesis that she was saddened by the departure of her era—a notion belonging rather to modern philosophy than to Tudor times, to which *fin-de-siècle* fancies were unknown. Elizabeth was a woman; she had dallied with love all her days; and now the end had come and she had missed her happiness.

BRUCE'S ECONOMIC HISTORY OF VIRGINIA.—II.

Economic History of Virginia in the Seventeenth Century: An Inquiry into the Material Condition of the People, based upon Original and Contemporaneous Records. By Philip Alexander Bruce. Macmillan & Co. 1896. Map. 8vo, pp. xix, 634, 647.

In an agricultural colony poor in capital and growing but a single commercial crop, and one thought to require extensive cultivation, the question of the source of an adequate supply of labor was of great importance. Land was practically unlimited in quantity, but even the land must be cleared of the forest—an arduous task—before the first plant could be laid down. A few years under tobacco exhausted the natural fertility of the soil; fertilizers were too difficult to obtain, and, even when had, proved noxious to the flavor of the tobacco. It was cheaper to move on to a fresh piece of land and begin anew the culture. From the origin of the settlement labor was in demand to clear the forests, and all through the century the labor question was prominently before the planter.

This question was solved, as far as was possible, in two ways: by the employment of servants and the purchase of slaves. The one led easily to the other, and the introduction and general use of negro slaves were followed by consequences which have colored the entire current of our national history. The account of the "servants" given by Mr. Bruce is adequate, very satisfactory, and in many points novel. It is, further, especially notable as an instance of his well-balanced and fearless treatment of a controverted topic. More than thirty years ago the Virginia "cavaliers" were written of in terms of derision, and it was charged that the very scum of England was, in the seventeenth century, dumped perforce into the colony. The poor, the incapable, and the felon were alike regarded as fair "colonial goods," and were shipped as merchandise to be sold to the highest bidder in America for a term of years. Such a conception of the early colonizing methods was an exaggeration upon its face, but it was seriously accepted as historically true, and the display of authorities in its support seemed to be conclusive. That felons were sometimes transported to the colonies is true. Nor is it strange, when it is remembered that the law of the day punished about three hundred crimes with death. One who was condemned to suffer the extreme penalty was a felon; but he might have sinned under mitigating circumstances, and, by a judge inclined to mercy, exile to Virginia was offered in lieu of the gallows. But the policy of the Virginia Company was always against receiving criminals, and, after its dissolution, it was by the act of individual merchants, and not as a settled policy of state, that convicts were introduced. The result was a mere sprinkling of this undesirable class. By far the larger part of the immigration consisted of

those who had left England because of extreme poverty, or by reason of political disturbances and rebellion in Ireland and Scotland, or those who voluntarily indentured themselves to secure transportation. Still another source of emigrants from England, admirably described by Mr. Bruce, was abduction. In 1680 it was estimated that upwards of ten thousand persons were annually "spirited away" and sent out of England, leaving no trace. As this horrid business involved the kidnapping of a large number of mere children, the press gang becomes respectable beside it.

Once in the colony, the servant was bound to his master for the term of his articles. As the majority of them were still young, a service of from three to seven years would cover the cost of transportation. Their treatment was good, their food better than that given to laborers in England, and they enjoyed the distinction of being esteemed the very best of imported merchandise; a constant demand for servants maintaining the market. After the expiration of service they became members of the community, and their descendants were the equals of those of a full citizen of the colony. That this system was a makeshift, and attended with evils difficult to counteract, the extensive legislation on servants proves. Runaways were common, and the neighboring wilderness made them easy. To maintain the ascendancy of the master, cruelty was authorized, such as branding; but it does not appear that this was often applied or ever carried to excess. It was natural that some friction between master and servant should exist in a system of partial slavery; but this stage was gradually displaced by one of full slavery, where the control of the master was absolute during the life of the slave, and not for a few years only. In the first half of the seventeenth century, servants greatly outnumbered the slaves; but the latter increased more rapidly in proportion, and at the beginning of the eighteenth century the number of slaves was nearly as large as that of servants. The improved economic condition of England must account for the smaller movement of servants.

A Dutch vessel in 1619 brought the first negroes to Virginia, but for seventy years the means of obtaining Africans were limited. As a slave was a laborer for life, and by breeding could supply his successors, he was regarded as a cheaper workman than the white servant, who could be held for a few years, and at the expiration of his term was reasonably certain to leave. The importation of this human merchandise rose gradually from very small numbers to about five hundred a year, when the ability of the planters to purchase was crippled by the troubles of Bacon's rebellion. In the last decade of the century the Royal African Company was the agency of supply; and it is not a little significant that, in the last ten years of the century, the African had almost entirely supplanted the white servant as the basis of head-rights to land. At the same time the Virginian-born slave had become so much the more desirable as to command a better price than the newly imported negro. The slave, or "servant" as he was called, was classed as personal property until the end of the century, when he became by law real estate, except when in the hands of a merchant. But the introduction of the negro amounted to a revolution, for he could not amalgamate with the whites, and, even if freed, retained his peculiar place in the social system, though admitted to certain political privileges if he owned land. In food, clothing, and medical attendance, the slave was believed to be less costly than the white.

On this point we find a serious difficulty in accepting Mr. Bruce's conclusions. He questions the wastefulness of slave labor, "not only in the colonial period, but in the period between the Revolution and the war between the States"; and attributes this waste to the staple grown, tobacco. Large farms and fresh fields were demanded for the successful growth of the plant. He says:

"If the culture of tobacco were very profitable, the tendency to enlarge each estate would be just as strong to-day in Virginia, with labor emancipated, as it was during the existence of slavery. That institution only promoted the extension of the plantation by cheapening labor to the lowest point, which to that degree increased the owner's returns from his crops, enabling him to invest a greater sum each year in land. . . . If for every servant brought into the Colony between 1675 and 1700 a negro had been substituted, the accumulation of wealth by the planters would, during this period, have been more rapid than it was, not on account of their ability to raise a larger quantity of tobacco for sale, which would have been undesirable, as the supply throughout the century was even larger than the demand, but on account of that curtailment in the cost of production which would have followed from the employment of laborers bound for life and not for a term of years."

This is hardly a correct application of an economic principle. The same conditions applied to cotton and to rice as to tobacco; yet the returns are greater, and the actual cost of culture less, under free labor and with small farms than in the palmiest days of slavery. It is a pity that Mr. Bruce could not have proved his point by comparing the yield of tobacco on two farms, the one employing servants and the second slaves, other conditions being nearly equal. The intelligence of the servant must have been to his advantage; and a century later the farmers of Virginia, using slaves, could not produce the cereal crops in competition with Pennsylvania, using free or articled labor. The slave has proved to be the costliest of labor. He works under compulsion, and therefore works ill; he enjoys none of the fruits of his labor, and therefore has no inducement to work well; he shares in none of the betterments of a saving of labor, and therefore he has no call to improve. Paint the plantation system in as rosy colors as you please, there is ever the shiftless, wasteful, and improvident economic background. That slave labor in early Virginia was a step, perhaps a necessary step, in the development of tobacco-culture, need not be questioned. It was as necessary as the white or indentured servant, and, had it been a temporary expedient, the injury to society and agriculture would have been easily overcome on its disappearance. But it became not merely a permanent feature, but the sole form of labor; and that, in the long run, meant ruin to the planter and the reduction of the land to infertility. The economic blunder of slavery was nearly as great, and quite as lasting, as the social blunder. Adam Smith vindicated the virtues of free labor as against slave labor with as much force as he vindicated free commerce against the mercantile system.

So much has been said of staple and slave as to forbid any lingering on other subjects treated by Mr. Bruce. The money system of the colony, the manufactures of the plantation, the rudiments of commerce, the relative value of the estates and the town life, are a few of the general topics of his chapters; and on every point he is full, accurate, and free from bias. It is a pleasure to meet with so satisfying a work, whether regarded as a history or as an exemplification of political economy, and it is destined to rank high as a product of careful and untiring investigation, of enthusiasm tempered by discretion and scholarship. A very full index increases the usefulness of the work.

The Diary of a Japanese Convert. By Kanzō Uchimura. Fleming H. Revell Co. 1895.

THE relations of Christendom and heathendom have not produced another book, from the heathen side, so interesting and valuable as this, which we can now recall. After some introductory matter, we have a journal covering a period extending from 1877 to 1888, and, what is of much greater interest and importance, the deliberate comment on this journal of the mature man. The preliminary account of the author's parentage and early training is instructive and also entertaining, because it is enlivened by those humorous touches which give the book throughout much of its fascination. "Amidst solemn instructions" of his father "about duty and high ambition," he "discerned words of emulation for study and industry with an opulent harem in view." His superstitious relations to the various gods were serious enough in their day, whatever occasion they furnish him for present laughter. Entering a new Government college, he was forced against his will and conscience by the senior class to make the Christian confession. But the proof of the pudding in the eating was extremely satisfactory. "One God and not many was indeed a glad tiding to my little soul. . . . Monotheism made me a new man. I resumed my beans and eggs." Straightway all his superstitious fears vanished into thin air. The enforced adhesion to Christianity was followed in a few months by an emotional conversion and admission to the Methodist Church. A little company of students formed a church organization and cultivated their piety with mutual emulation. But, remaining on their knees for an hour, they found "synovitis" ensuing, and "the general cry was for short prayers," especially as their leader went to sleep in his devotions, with his head bowed on the flour-barrel that answered for a pulpit, and was awakened with difficulty. Another experiment was tried—giving up the meetings to debate, so that they might sharpen their weapons against sceptical attacks on Christianity. The first meeting ended in something very like a row, and the former methods were resumed. Sometimes there were insinuations in the prayers, "not to be heard, of course, by our Father in Heaven," but only by the other devotees. In the whole business there was much immaturity and foolishness; also much junketing and jollity. At the close of the college course virtue had its reward, the Christians making all the class speeches and getting all the prizes but one.

Resolved to "disperse the heathen as we do street-dogs," with much friction and misunderstanding an independent native church was founded by the young graduates. The Methodists wanted back the money they had given, and it was paid. The depleted treasury was filled up by the heroic sacrifices of the young converts, and the finished church was soon out of debt. A great gathering of Christians in 1883 suggests a chapter on Sentimental Christianity. It was said to be a Pentecostal time, but young Uchimura could not obtain the "gifts of the spirit," however he might beat his breast and focus his mental vision on his deceitful heart, as he had been told he must do

by a fiery Methodist exhorter. Nevertheless, his feet slid in due time.

"With the daily and weekly increase of friends and acquaintances among the believers, my religion was fast inclining towards sentimentalism. . . . Fresh from my country church, with childish innocence and credulity I plunged into the Turkish-bath society of metropolitan Christianity, to be lulled and shampooned by hymns sung by maidens, and sermons that offended nobody."

More or less laxity among the converts, especially in their sexual relations, was the inevitable result of the demand for a numerical increase of converts and of the emotional excitements resorted to in order to draw them in and keep up their nervous tension. A Life of John Howard, and Charles Loring Brace's 'Gesta Christi,' gave Uchimura a timely check upon his downward course, and, hoping to find in Christian civilization the practical realization of his new and loftier ideals, he crossed the Pacific Ocean and landed in California.

From this point onward Mr. Uchimura's book has a peculiar value, far in excess of that of the preceding matter. To that useful gift which enables us to see ourselves as others see us, few of our foreign visitors have contributed so much. He was very much astonished at the familiar every-day use of Scriptural and religious language by Americans. When a railroad car stopped with a jerk, there was an outburst of such language, and on every similar occasion. A misfortune befell one of his friends: "He was *pick-pocketed* of a purse that contained a five-dollar gold piece." Later he lost his new silk umbrella on a Fall River steamer. "I felt the misfortune so keenly that only once in my life I prayed for the damnation of that execrable devil who could steal a shelter from a homeless stranger at the time of his dire necessities." The use of keys and other devices in America to prevent robbery was in strange contrast with the simple confidence of his Japanese experience. In no respect did Christendom seem to him so much like heathendom as in its intense race prejudices, and especially towards those whom the people of the North "had bought with their own blood." A still greater anomaly was the anti-Chinese sentiment. This point is elaborated with much force and eloquence. Pugilism, lotteries, intemperance, lynching, political corruption, and religious jealousies—all these confounded Uchimura, and determined him never to defend Christianity again by holding up the morality of Europe and America.

In Pennsylvania he entered an asylum for idiots as an attendant. The Superintendent, whose favorite hymn was Dr. Furness's

"Slowly by God's hand unfurled,"

pronounced the Unitarians "the narrowest and driest of sects." Nevertheless, his wife was one of them, and Mr. Uchimura could not resist the beauty of her life. Henceforth his religious sympathies must include such as she. "I believe," he says, "an orthodoxy that cannot be reconciled with such a Unitarianism as hers is not worthy to be called orthodox or straight-doctrined. The true liberality, as I take it, is allowance and forbearance of all honest beliefs with an unflinching conviction in one's own faith."

The next step was to a New England college. A great missionary meeting stirs Uchimura to some caustic observations: "The show is worth seeing in all respects." "Converted heathen are made good use of as circus men make use of tamed rhinoceroses." But he advises "the circus men to be more considerate in this matter. On the one hand, they spoil the tamed rhinoceroses, and also induce the untamed ones to simulate the tamed, for that they find the easiest way of getting things good for their rhinoceros flesh." He does not believe in "pity" as a missionary motive, but holds that the effort based on it "might be withdrawn without much detriment to the sender or the sent." While at the college he embraced the orthodox scheme of redemption as he had never done before. Apparently, the influence of the good president had much to do with this, for, going to a theological seminary, he found theology "the driest and most worthless of all studies," while the laughing and jesting of the students over the most serious problems was to him simply shocking. He resolved that such a course could fit neither a Christian nor a heathen to be a good missionary, and he went back to Japan.

In conclusion, he expresses his faith in missionary enterprise while laying his finger here and there on many a festering sore: "Though we despise godless science, yet scienceless evangelization we do not put much value upon. I believe faith is wholly compatible with common sense, and all zealous and successful missionaries have had this sense in abundance." This is one of many pungent sayings that our missionaries should con and inwardly digest.

England's Wealth Ireland's Poverty. By Thomas Lough, M.P. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams. 1896.

THIS book treats of the financial relations between England and Ireland, a matter which for the last two years has been under investigation by a Royal Commission, though no report has yet been made. Mr. Lough has exceptional qualifications for dealing impartially and freshly with a matter hitherto usually left to officials and professional statisticians. He is Irish-born, but not a Catholic, a wholesale merchant in London, Member of Parliament for an English constituency, and actively engaged in London municipal affairs. His personal acquaintance with Ireland, where he has a summer residence, has enabled him to expose and correct many current official fallacies and misrepresentations.

Mr. Lough has made a dry and technical subject pleasant reading and easy of comprehension. Admirable diagrams, in addition to unavoidable tables of figures, give graphic representations of the relative changes in population, taxation, pauperism, trade, etc., in each decade of the century. We are shown the fulfilment of Grattan's words: "Rely on it that Ireland, like every enslaved country, will ultimately be compelled to pay for her own subjugation. Robbery and taxes ever follow conquest; the nation that loses her liberty loses her revenues." The revenue from Ireland paid into the imperial exchequer is from eight to nine million pounds yearly, and the British Treasury maintains that this is spent for the benefit of Ireland. But all expenditure occurs at the pleasure of the British majority; Irish members are in a minority, and cannot control it. Ireland's revenue is largely spent for British purposes, or is wastefully spent in Ireland according to ignorant British notions of what Ireland ought to want. Since the Union, the unbroken course in fiscal matters has been an increase per head of Irish taxation and a decrease of British.

As an example of how the Irish taxes are spent, we find that the military and police together amount to one armed man for every twenty peasants. The police force under British management has increased continuously in numbers and in cost, while population and crime have diminished; the cost of this "secondary army" is as much as the whole taxation of the country was ninety years ago. The total cost of the police force in Scotland (under local management) is only as much as that of the police pensioners in Ireland. Here is Mr. Lough's picture of the police arrangements in the village of Killeshandra, a village of 600 inhabitants, once prosperous, now decayed, and "about as neglected a place as you could find in a civilized country":

"In this village is a barrack containing ten men. This costs £1,000 a year; in Great Britain one policeman would be sufficient for two such villages. But it will be said there is more crime in Ireland. This, however, is a question of fact, and statistics show that, out of every 100,000 people, there are 59.7 in prison in England, 69.6 in Scotland, and only 58 4 in Ireland. In the neighborhood of this village there has been no serious crime for the last half century, and during that time the population of the district has fallen to half, but the number of the police steadily increases. The members of the force are the only prosperous people in the place. They are well fed and clothed and their duties are exceedingly light. They collect agricultural statistics; prepare small cases for the petty sessions. Two await the arrival of every train, and two others watch with interest its departure. They have bicycles, dogs, and a boat for fishing."

This extravagant and unnecessary expenditure extends into every branch of government. The Lord Lieutenant and his household cost about £40,000 a year. The smallest details of local government are controlled by the Imperial Parliament; even the county road authorities are practically appointed by the British Government, not by the ratepayers whose money they spend. The assessment for rates is made by an imperial instead of a local authority, as in the rest of the United Kingdom. The same extravagance appears in the civil establishments. There are "boards" for every conceivable purpose, with from three to five highly paid Commissioners at their head. In England one chief suffices, and he is responsible to Parliament, and can explain or defend his action there, while Irish Commissioners are in most cases under the Treasury, and unamenable to public opinion. With all this waste of the revenue it is difficult to get money for such objects as education and the development of the resources of the country. The simple conclusion, Mr. Lough points out, is that "Ireland is a nation starved in the midst of plenty." We strongly recommend any one interested in the Irish question to read this interesting book.

A History of the Warfare of Science with Theology in Christendom. By Andrew Dickson White. 2 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

MR. WHITE'S book, a development of his 'Warfare of Science,' is a conscientious summary of the body of learning to which it relates, accumulated during long years of research. He puts the whole in a narrative form by taking a number of the chief departments of science, natural history, chemistry, astronomy, geography, geology, therapeutics, hygiene, and philology, and telling the story which shows how each one had to be freed, by the patient toil and sacrifices of generations of students and martyrs, from the shackles of theologic and theocratic error; how the constant struggle of the Christian Church through centuries was to stifle knowledge, and how only within the lifetime of those now living has it at length yielded the field. The book is produced as a

sort of *Festschrift*, or tribute to Cornell University, one of the first institutions in the world dedicated primarily to pure science—a foundation which at once proved the means of fanning into a cheerful but harmless glow, for the benefit of a few local and belated friends of bigotry, the dying flames of theologic hate.

Perhaps the most remarkable chapter in the book is the first, in which Mr. White gives an account of the substitution for the original theologic view of the universe, as created by acts such as might be attributed to a human being endowed with superhuman power, of the theory of evolution, ending with natural selection, and the triumph of the Darwinian explanation of the origin of species. The account is not only instructive, but in part entertaining. Darwin's 'Origin of Species' was published in 1859, and was received by the religious world with a chorus of disapproval at once fierce and grotesque. The doctrine, they said, of evolution of the higher from the lower type was untrue, contrary to religion, and absurd on its face. The Bishop of Oxford declared that Darwin had tried to "limit God's glory in creation," and that natural selection was "absolutely incompatible with the Word of God." A clerical reviewer suggested that it would have been more modest in Darwin "had he given some slight reason for dissenting from the views generally entertained." A distinguished clergyman, vice-president of an institution founded for the pious purpose of combating "dangerous" science, declared Darwinism "an attempt to dethrone God." Mgr. Ségur declared of his teachings that "they come from hell," and the Pope said that they were opposed "even to Reason herself." At Cambridge, Whewell, himself a scientific man, refused to allow a copy of the book to be placed in the library; at the American college at Beirut "nearly all the younger professors were dismissed for adhering to Darwin's views"; Dr. Woodrow, for professing belief in them, was turned out of the Presbyterian seminary at Columbia, and Dr. Winchell had to leave Vanderbilt University. And all this took place in the latter half of the nineteenth century.

Considerable additions would be needed to make Mr. White's narrative complete. The whole subject of government, for instance, as a branch of study, has been emancipated from theological conceptions within very recent times. The book is mainly confined to natural science; but the subject of interest and usury is gone into, which is not a question of natural science at all. On the whole, these volumes must be consulted chiefly for facts, not exposition. No attempt is made to explain the process by which modern conceptions of science and modern methods of investigation have driven theology off. Among the facts collected, Mr. White does not fail to notice the curious evidence tending to show that many of the great modern discoveries of science seem to have suggested themselves to the Greeks, and then to have lain dormant for centuries, to be brought to notice again only after Greek, Roman, and mediæval civilization had in turn been swept away. Curiously enough, the same thing is true of political science. Aristotle is its father, but, after he had classified governments under the three heads which still roughly answer our purpose, substantially nothing was done until the seventeenth century.

The only criticism which we shall venture to offer of a work which is a monument of industry, is that Mr. White seems to us to make a mistake in thinking that he is called upon to offer any suggestions as to the reconciliation to be effected now between science and religion. That is the task which the persecuted followers of truth were compelled to undertake for many centuries at the peril of their lives. Galileo was called upon to justify science; Grotius was called upon to defend toleration of the pursuit of knowledge. But that day has gone by. It is science which is established now, and, if there is to be a reconciliation, it is religious truth which must justify itself. Science proves, Mr. White tells us, the ascent of man, not his fall. To say that the Bible is a "revelation" of the ascent of man, as he also does, is to indulge in a metaphor which, in his mouth, tends to confuse rather than enlighten.

Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages: A Study of the Conditions of the Production and Distribution of Literature from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the Close of the Seventeenth Century. By George Haven Putnam, A.M. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896. Vol. I., A. D. 476-1600. 8vo, pp. xxvii, 459.

THIS continuation of Mr. Putnam's book on 'Authors and their Public in Ancient Times' begins with a description of the production of books after the downfall of the Western Empire. It is full of curious information concerning book-making arts in monasteries, which were first made a clerical duty in Italy by Cassiodorus and S. Benedict, during the sixth century. The rule of S. Ferreol, written about this time, says, "He who does not turn up the earth with the plough, ought to write parchment with the fingers." Nuns were also required to copy, and some were in distinction as illuminators. "Scriptoria" were soon established in Germany, France, Holland, and Ireland. England seems to have been slow to practise book-making arts, for it was at the close of the seventh century before the monasteries at Wearmouth and Yarrow became centres of a transient literary activity. Then followed the establishment of libraries outside of monasteries, the education of copyists who were not ecclesiastics, and the distinct business of selling manuscript books When the early Italian universities drew many pupils to them, dealers in books, *stationarii* and *librarii*, flocked around their courts. In the thirteenth century there were enough of them in some of the larger cities to give names to the districts in which they made their sales. Ave Maria Lane, Pater Noster Row, Amen Corner, in London, indicate that these early booksellers made petty book sales as well as big ones, and that they had dealings with common people as often as with scholars. In the Latin Quarter of Paris as well as in the vicinity of Italian universities, the booksellers were kept under restraint, which compelled some of the number to seek for buyers in places where trade was more free.

Just before the invention of typography, the copyists of Bruges, Ghent, and Antwerp, aided by illuminators and decorative book-printers, had organized corporations for the better practice of their trades. Book-making in its highest achievements was deservedly rated as one of the fine arts, for it had enlisted the services of famous painters. The desire for a fine book like the "Grimani" breviary or the "Hereford Missal" was as common among men of wealth and taste as the desire for fine pictures. But books like these, usually made to order for princes and nobles, could not be considered subjects of trade. A trade in cheap books was maintained, not only in the small shops of cities, but at markets and annual fairs. Beginning with the sale of devotional pictures and little books of colored pictures, some with and some without explanatory text, soon to be engraved on wood and printed from the blocks, a way was being paved for the invention of printing from types. To these humble forerunners of the type-printed book our author gives too little consideration.

His notice of the invention of typography is obviously intended to be complete and impartial. He follows Humphreys in the belief that Koster was the printer of the first book edition of the 'Biblia Pauperum,' and also the printer of the 'Speculum Humanæ Salvationis.' No diligent student of the invention of typography can accept Humphreys as an authority. He was a zealous compiler and a praiseworthy maker of fine books of facsimiles, but not an original investigator or exact thinker, careless in the sifting of evidence and inexact as to dates and facts. It is a surprise, too, to note in Mr. Putnam's book the omission of the names and works of recent authors who have been diligent investigators of this subject. Nearly three hundred books are specified as the mines from which he derives information, but one does not see in this long list the names of Holtrop or Hessels, Weigel, Zestermann, or Van der Linde. The information furnished by these authors is of importance, and should have been utilized.

The first printers were not scholars, nor even the professional book-makers attached to the universities. They seem to have been mechanics and traders who took up the new art as a more expeditious and profitable method of book-making. They imitated as closely as they could the style or form of letters most used by scribes, and followed their leadership in issuing the books that promised to be most salable. These books, classical or theological, and in the Latin language, soon overstocked the market, and the prices of printed books fell rapidly. There was some opposition to printing by the copyists and engravers, but only from those of the lower class. Scribes, and the collectors of fine manuscript books during the last half of the fifteenth century, however, had great contempt for all forms of printed books. Many librarians boasted that they did not have one on their shelves. This dislike was most general in Italy. At first the clergy looked with tolerance or indifference on the spread of printing. When printers found that the market for the classics and dogmatic theology was being overstocked, they began to print books in the vernacular that were salable to common people. This provoked the censure and restraint of the Church. There was also no small complaint on the part of printers against each other, caused by the piratical reprinting of books. The interference of the law was frequently solicited. In this restraint our author traces the origin of copyright law, a subject in which he is at home.

The services rendered to the world by printer-publishers like Aldus, the Étiennes, Froben, and others, are described by Mr. Putnam with clearness and force. Yet they were exceptions. Much bad printing was done at the beginning of the sixteenth century. In the introduction to his 'Adagia' Erasmus writes as follows:

"Formerly there was devoted to the correctness of a literary manuscript as much care and attention as to the writing of a notarial instrument. Such care and precision was held to be a sacred duty. Later, the copying of manuscripts was entrusted to ignorant monks, and even to women. But how much more serious is the evil that can be brought about by a careless printer, and yet to this matter the law

gives no heed. A dealer who sells English stuffs under the guise of Venetian is punished, but the printer who, in place of correct texts, misleads and abuses the reader with pages the contents of which are an actual trial and torment, escapes unharmed. It is for this reason that Germany is plagued with so many books that are deformed [*i. e.*, untrustworthy]. The authorities will supervise, with arbitrary regulations, the proper methods for the baking of bread, but concern themselves not at all as to the correctness of the work of the printers, although the influence of bad typography is far more injurious than that of bad bread."

Evolution and Man's Place in Nature. By Henry C. Calderwood. Macmillan. 1895. 8vo, pp. 349.

WE have here a discussion and summary of the biological additions to our knowledge of man, together with a revision, in the light of modern evolution, of man as recognized by metaphysicians and theologians. Prof. Calderwood's writings are always interesting and thought-inspiring, even if not at all times convincing. His present subject enlists his greatest earnestness and vigor. The book will be less favorably regarded by scientists than by those interested in harmonizing evolution, in its recent developments, with theology or philosophy. The review of the development and status of the physical man is fair, though marked by occasional indefiniteness or indirectness, due in part, at least, to Mr. Calderwood's lack of familiarity with the facts on which the reasoning is based. In dealing with his own observations this might not have been the case; but when stating that Darwin or another has said this or that, he raises a question whether he fully understood his authority—whether the latter interpreted the facts rightly, or may not have had incorrect ideas of discoveries by another who in turn might have mistaken. Our author is skilful, but his references in support of his position have not the force of personal observation, and they at times weaken the argument so that when impossibility of determination is announced to be a consequent, the impression given is more of a dearth of information than of insurmountability to science.

In the metaphysical portions the work is more satisfactory. The position of the author, and in some degree the lines of discussion, may be suggested by stating his belief that animal intelligence is not rational, that instinct is a matter of structure and belongs to sensory apparatus, and that he recognizes a power, beyond scientific observation, which is ever in operation and which has manifested itself at the most impressive periods of the world's history—first at the appearance of organic life, again on the appearance of mind, and again on the advent of rational life; a first cause; an eternal personality, related to the spiritual life of rational souls as to no other known type of existence. This raises the question whether the origin of our world was one of the less impressive periods, or a manifestation of a different power.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, Grant. The Duchess of Powysland. American Publishers Corporation. $1.
Browne, Montagu. Artistic and Scientific Taxidermy and Modelling. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $6.50.
Crocker, U. H. The Cause of Hard Times. Revised ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Dutton, A. V. Wisdom's Folly: A Study in Feminine Development. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Evans, E. P. Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture. Henry Holt & Co. $2.
Flint, Martha B. Early Long Island: A Colonial Study. Putnams. $3.50.
Grant, Robert. The North Shore of Massachusetts. Scribners. 75c.
Hadley, Prof. A. F. Economics: An Account of the Relations between Private Property and Public Welfare. Putnams. $2.50.
Johnes, Winifred. Memoirs of a Little Girl. Transatlantic Publishing Co. 15c.
Kendall, Phebe M. Maria Mitchell: Life, Letters and Journals. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Lucy, H. W. A Diary of the Home Rule Parliament. 1892-1895. Cassell. $2.
Mabie, H. W. Essays on Nature and Culture. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Norris, W. E. St. Ann's. Cassell. 50c.
Oliphant, Mrs. Jeanne D'Arc, her Life and Death. Putnams. $1.50.
Paget, R. L. McKinley's Masterpieces. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 75c.
Roosevelt, Theodore. The Winning of the West. Vol. IV. Louisiana and the Northwest. 1791-1807. Putnams. $2.50.
Snow, Florence Z. The Lamp of Gold. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Taylor, Prof. J. R. The Captives of Plautus. Boston: Raymond A. Robbins. 50c.
Track Athletics in Detail. Harpers. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 4, 1896.

The Week.

WITHIN one month of the close of the fiscal year, the Treasury shows a deficit of $27,000,000. The receipts are greater by $14,000,000 than in the corresponding months of 1894–5, and the expenditures $7,000,000 less; but the deficit has been creeping up month by month, and it will doubtless amount to $30,000,000 by June 30. Meanwhile the gold holdings are subject to drain again, no less than $17,000,000 gold having been drawn out in the month of May alone. But do these figures have any sobering effect on Congress? Only to drive it into more reckless waste of the public money on ships and fortifications and a swollen river-and-harbor bill. The latter is being passed over the President's veto with a shout. What has he got to do with spending the people's money? That is the perquisite of Congress, he will find out. If he has to issue bonds to pay the Government's debts and to preserve the gold standard, why, let him. That's his affair. We'll curse him roundly for doing it, but as for economy and moderation in appropriations, why, what on earth are we here for?

The river-and-harbor bill which the President has vetoed is the most shameless debauch with public money that we can recall, and it comes at a time when the Treasury is subsisting on borrowed money. No words can be too severe to characterize such profligacy. One of the inevitable effects must be to impair confidence in our credit abroad, already weakened to a disastrous extent by the silver craze. It is perfectly plain that the money to meet this extravagant appropriation must be taken from the proceeds of the last bond sale, and hence that another one will be necessary. Senator Sherman justified the veto in advance when he said that Congress was piling up expenditures without revenue, and that the President ought to refuse to pay out more money than the Treasury's current income. If Congress passes the bill over the veto, Mr. Cleveland may follow Mr. Sherman's advice in this particular. He would certainly be sustained by public opinion, regardless of party divisions, if he should do so. One paragraph in the veto message contains a general truth little calculated to propitiate members of Congress who voted for the bill, viz.:

> "I believe no greater danger confronts us, as a nation, than the unhappy decadence among our people of genuine and trustworthy love and affection for our government as the embodiment of the highest and best aspirations of humanity, and not as the giver of gifts, and because its mission is the enforcement of exact justice and equality, and not the allowance of unfair favoritism."

The passage of the bill over the veto has been consummated in the House. It is to be hoped that the people will keep a list of the yeas and nays, and severely remember the men who have recorded themselves in the affirmative.

In view of all the other extravagances of the present Congress, those actually accomplished and those contemplated, the report of the committee on the Nicaragua Canal ought not to occasion surprise. They recommend the project, of course. It is true that a committee of Government engineers, after a personal examination of the route and the country and the work already done, reported against going on with the canal at present, saying that the data were insufficient, that the canal company's figures were erroneous, if not intentionally false, and that it was not yet proved that the canal was practicable from the engineering standpoint. The House committee, without any later information and without personal examination of anything except the company's light literature, decides that the canal is practicable on the present plan, that it can be built for $82,000,000 (making allowance for $100,000,000 as an outside figure), and that it is wise for the Government to guarantee the company's securities to the latter amount, or even $150,000,000 if necessary. This is a sum three times as large as the Government guaranteed for all the Pacific railroads taken together. It is to be spent in making a canal subject to a foreign jurisdiction, and exposed, in case of war, to seizure by any naval power that can first reach it and is strong enough to hold it or destroy it. If such a scheme can pass Congress, what may we not expect? The present river-and-harbor bill is a trifle in comparison with it. The latter has at least the advantage that the money will be spent in our own country.

A measure has just passed the United States Senate which takes away from the Administration its power, under the resumption law of 1875, to issue bonds for the protection of the Treasury reserve. The bond-issue power was indeed an essential and indispensable part of that legislation. The Congress of 1875 fully appreciated that the maintenance of resumption and the future protection of the national credit might, in an easily imagined exigency, depend entirely on this bond-issue power unquestionably possessed and unhesitatingly used by the executive. This is why Senator Sherman and Senator Gray, Republican and Democrat, united the other day in declaring to the Senate that its action on the Butler bill "marks a crisis in the history of the country and in the history of the Senate." Both understood, as all other intelligent citizens do, that this bond-issue power, bravely and promptly exercised by Mr. Cleveland on four critical occasions, is all that has stood since 1893 between the United States Treasury and repudiation. With Congress in such a mood—for the passage of this bill in the Senate has all along been assumed as probable—and with a recollection of the catastrophe four times so narrowly averted, every business man and every citizen has a right to ask, with fear and trembling, what attitude the next Administration can be depended on to take in such another crisis.

Senator Sherman has again exposed his insincerity on the question of raising revenue. While the "filled-cheese bill" was before the Senate, Mr. Dubois offered an amendment providing for an additional tax of 75 cents a barrel on beer. He pointed out the well-known fact that such a tax would bring in $25,000,000 a year—almost enough to meet the deficiency in the revenue—and would not affect anybody except those "gentlemen who have accumulated large fortunes in the manufacture of beer," as the price of a glass of beer would not be increased. Mr. Sherman not only opposed the amendment, but he deprecated the idea of any further impost on beer, on the ground that it already "has a pretty heavy tax on it for an article which is very useful and comfortable," and he said that he did not know whether he would vote for a larger tax under any circumstances, "because I think that the consumers of beer already pay a very large sum." This is the ridiculous end of the Ohio Senator's professed anxiety of a few months ago to vote for a tax on tea, coffee, or anything else in order to raise more revenue.

Nothing could show more conclusively the universal appreciation that the financial question is the most important one now before the people than the split of the Prohibition party on this issue. Here is an organization which was formed for the sole purpose of putting an end to the traffic in intoxicating liquors; yet when it holds its national convention, the one thing which interests the delegates is whether the party shall favor or oppose the free coinage of silver. A long controversy shows that a small majority are against the 16-to-1 doctrine, and then the minority bolt and start a new organization for the promotion of an object which is dearer to them than any consideration affecting the liquor traffic. Prohibitionists have been called men of one idea, who could think of nothing but their hobby. The fact that Prohibitionists now put the currency above everything else shows how absurd it is to suppose that the approach-

ing campaign can be fought on any other issue.

The nearer we get to the St. Louis convention, the more pronounced becomes the support of McKinley by the silver Republicans of the West, on the ground that his record and his character show that he is not and will not be a gold-standard man. The *Dry Goods Economist* of this city recently sent a circular to representatives of the trade throughout the country, pointing out that the financial issue is the most important one, that "McKinley's record is that of a persistent panderer to the unsettlement of our financial system," that all merchants who favor the maintenance of the gold standard should place themselves on record, and asking dry-goods men to let it know whether they favor such maintenance. The head of a dry-goods company in Topeka, Kan., has furnished to the *Journal* of that city, an earnest free-coinage and McKinley newspaper, a copy of his reply to this circular. He writes that the officers of his corporation are for McKinley, "first, last, and all the time," for the reason, among others, that "he is not an extremist on the money question," and that "we especially admire in Mr. McKinley that quality which enables him, notwithstanding the pressure of his enemies, to keep his views on silver coinage to himself until such time as he thinks it wise to express them." The President of the company says that it has twelve employees, eight of whom are Republicans, two Democrats, and two Populists. Seven of the Republicans are warmly in favor of McKinley, and one of the Democrats expects to vote for him, while the Populists "hope for a chance to vote for an out-an-out free-silver man." The letter concludes: "But one of the entire twelve approves of the gold standard, nor do we." Evidently somebody is going to be terribly cheated in this business. Who is it going to be—the Eastern sound-money men, who claim that McKinley is for the gold standard; or the Western silverites, who support him enthusiastically because they believe that he is not?

The *Tribune* complains with great justice of people who "have bombarded Mr. McKinley with questions which they know, and he knows, and they know that he knows, have no other earthly purpose than to entrap and misrepresent him." And it intimates that these questions relate to "all subjects under discussion in the civilized world, beginning with the Mosaic cosmogony and coming down to coinage." But it is absurd to suggest even that the Major cannot protect himself against such people. He can easily cut off a man who begins by asking him about the Mosaic cosmogony, and the nebular hypothesis, etc., by simply saying that such things have no relation to the election, and that he has not made up his mind about them. He can, in fact, safely treat such questioners as impostors, just as much as if he were not a candidate. The only genuine persons who go to him are the gold-standard men. Surely, he must have been visited by some, who simply said, waiving the Mosaic-cosmogony matter, that all they wished to know was which standard he favored—gold or silver. Is it conceivable that he was not visited by some such inquirers? Now what did he say to them? This is all we want to know. What he thinks about all other subjects of human interest is a matter of comparative indifference to us. Of course we should like to know how such a mind as Major McKinley's works on any subject, as we should like to know how Gladstone's, or Bismarck's, or Darwin's, or Goethe's worked; but we acknowledge that this is not the time to discover how it works on subjects in general. We only ask how it works on one. Is this unreasonable? Is it impertinent? Are we to die in ignorance? How a man of ordinary sensibility can see millions surging round his window in search of information on one subject only, and yet deny it, passes our comprehension.

The Georgia Bankers' Association held their annual meeting at Augusta a few days since, and, after finishing the business that brought them together, were entertained at a banquet. Ex-Senator Walsh, who is the editor of the Augusta *Chronicle*, and a silver-man, was present and was called on for a speech. Mr. Walsh made a brief response, in which he said that he would become an advocate of the gold standard in case anybody could demonstrate two propositions to him: first, "that the volume of primary money does not control, in a great measure, the commodities that seek to be exchanged for it"; second, "that the universal law of supply and demand, which governs the price of all articles that enter into commerce, does not govern the price of money." If both these propositions were conceded to be true, there would still be something more needed to make a logical conclusion. The first and fundamental contention of the "gold-bugs" is that the free coinage of silver would not add anything to the volume of money, but merely substitute silver for gold. They say that all history proves this, and that even if an increased volume of money were desirable, it would not be brought about by such a substitution. They deny, also, that a rise of general prices would be for the advantage of the great mass of mankind. They point to the fact that, although prices of most things have fallen since 1873, wages have risen, and that consequently the working classes are better off, since they receive more dollars and can buy more goods with each dollar. For these reasons, no logical end or argumentative purpose is reached, even if one concedes Mr. Walsh's contention. He wishes us to take three things for granted, although not even mentioned by him, viz.: that the free coinage of silver will give us a larger quantity of money than we now have, that a larger quantity is desirable, and that a general rise of prices would be advantageous to mankind. Those are the things which Mr. Walsh should have demonstrated before he put his proposition to the Georgia bankers.

Had the Republican convention building in St. Louis been too badly damaged by the late tornado to be made ready by June 16, the national committee would have had an opportunity to do a sensible thing. It was not at all necessary that the convention should be put off simply because there was not another building in the city capable of seating 6,000 to 8,000 people. All that was and is needed is seating capacity for the 1,000 delegates. There must be many halls in St. Louis large enough to accommodate the convention proper with ease. The chance to get rid so easily of the thousands of interlopers that hinder and attempt to direct the work of national conventions, ought to have been accepted with joy. They are a more intolerable nuisance with every year, and make the appearance even of deliberation and debate more and more farcical. The committee should have been thankful to seize the occasion to shut out the mob, and hold the convention according to programme and under infinitely better conditions than can possibly be enjoyed in the great auditorium.

A thousand and one candidates for the Vice-Presidency are reported as being under grave consideration by the McKinleyites, but the man they would undoubtedly prefer is Speaker Reed. The bait they are dangling before him is that he would be just the kind of czar needed to regenerate the Senate. With him in the chair, it is said, the dreary twaddle of the Stewarts and Morgans and Peffers would be brought abruptly to an end, the Senate's business would march like magic, and an applauding country would rise up to bless the bold Reed. But no man is less likely to be deceived by this fancy picture than the Speaker himself. He knows that the most czar-like presiding officer, backed by no matter how frantic popular cheers, could do nothing to make the Senate a body for the dispatch of public business unless a majority of the members were willing to stand by him. But whenever a majority are ready to change the rules and act like rational human beings bent on something besides floods of talk, the presiding officer becomes of little moment. It is a mistake to suppose that the Senate will ever be regenerated by the Vice-President; its help cometh not from the Chair. The Chair has no power in the Senate. When a few more of the old fellows die or are displaced, when a few more younger men, impatient and infinitely weary of the sham tradition of senatorial courtesy, take their places, we may hope for a

change. There are some grateful signs of such a coming change; but it must be wrought by the Senate itself, not by its chairman.

The *World* publishes a number of telegrams from members of the Democratic national committee in response to an inquiry whether they are in favor of abrogating the two-thirds rule at the Chicago convention. The point of the inquiry lies in the fact that any number of delegates more than one-third can prevent any nomination if they are dissatisfied with the platform. Chairman Harrity says:

"In my judgment temporary conditions will not justify the abrogation of any well-established rule that has been found to work satisfactorily in the past. The two-thirds rule as applied to candidates ought, in my opinion, to be continued. It has usually been the case that candidates who obtained the support of the majority of the delegates to the Democratic national convention were able to command the other votes necessary to give them the required number under the two-thirds rule."

The word "usually" is well chosen. It has *usually* been the case, but not always. A conspicuous exception is found in the Charleston convention of 1860, when Senator Douglas had a majority of the votes, but never could get two-thirds. The difficulty here was over the platform, which endorsed the doctrine of "squatter sovereignty," or the right of the first settlers of a Territory to have slavery or to reject it—the Southerners contending that no power could prevent them from carrying slaves thither and holding them as long as the Territorial governments continued. Upon this question the convention finally split, one faction adjourning to Baltimore, where Douglas was finally nominated, and the other to Richmond, where John C. Breckinridge was nominated. If the difficulty at Charleston had been merely a personal one, means would have been found to overcome it. What made it insurmountable was the impossibility of agreeing upon a platform. This is exactly the difficulty looming up at Chicago. Chairman Harrity was wise as a serpent when he said "usually." Of fifteen answers received to the *World's* interrogatory three are in favor of abrogating the two-thirds rule, eight are against it, and four are non-committal.

The gold-standard Democrats of Chicago hoisted their flag on Thursday last to some purpose. About 500 of them, all representative men, including Franklin MacVeagh, ex-Mayors Cregier and Hopkins, and Judge Moran, met at the Palmer House, elected a county central committee, and took steps to send a contesting delegation to the national convention. What was more to the purpose, the speakers at the meeting declared that they would not support any candidate for the Presidency who was in favor of the unrestricted coinage of silver, and that they would vote for a Republican in preference if he were nominated on a sound-money platform. These declarations were received with loud cheers, and the resolution to form an organization independent of the Altgeld-Populist concern was adopted by unanimous vote. This movement in Illinois will have a powerful effect in the surrounding States, where the influence of Chicago is at all times very great. It will stiffen the backs of the sound-money Democrats of Indiana, Iowa, and Nebraska especially—those of Wisconsin need no stiffening—and will not be without its influence in the East and South.

Oregon has, during the past ten years, gone for the Republicans in every Presidential year, but elected that Democratic-Populist politician, Pennoyer, Governor twice in intermediate years—in 1886 and 1890. In 1894 the Republicans chose the Governor for the first time since 1882, and no doubt has been felt this year that they would carry through their candidate for Supreme Court Judge and get a good majority of the Legislature which will choose a United States Senator to succeed Mr. Mitchell. The interest of the contest centred about the silver question. The sound-money men were beaten in the Republican State convention, which rejected their proposed plank and substituted the "straddle" of the national platform in 1892, and the silverites, in one of the two congressional districts, nominated a free-coinage Republican, who appears to have been successful, while the Republican majority in the Legislature is expected to re-elect Mr. Mitchell on his free-coinage record. The influence of this election can hardly fail to be unfavorable to the cause of sound money in each of the great parties.

Commissioner Lyman of the Excise Department has bowed to the inevitable, and has requested the State Civil-Service Commission to place his "special confidential agents" on the list of competitive places. The position of Comptroller Roberts, sustained by the opinion of ex-Judge Danforth and others, that if the agents were appointed in any other way they could never hope to be paid by the State, was the cause of this surrender. It is final, and, taken in connection with a similar surrender by Mr. Aldridge, should convince the Platt machine that the Constitution is too strong for them, and that they cannot get possession of the public service of the State in defiance of its provisions. We should have been glad to have Mr. Lyman carry the matter into the courts in order to get a ruling on the meaning of the word "practicable" in the Constitution, for it was upon that that Mr. Lyman based his hope.

Church finances, not fine points of doctrine, constituted the burning question this year before the Presbyterians in Assembly at Saratoga. The new $1,750,000 Presbyterian house in Fifth Avenue has mightily stirred up the plain Presbyterians of the West, especially in view of heavy mission debts reported, and it looked at one time as if the sale of the building would be ordered and a return made to humbler quarters. But finally the whole matter was referred to a committee of business men, who are to report next year. Two Assemblies have already endorsed the new Presbyterian building as a wise business investment, but the returns have not come up to expectations, and the Western jealousy of Eastern luxury, which is as observable in religious as in secular politics, may yet lead to an abandonment of the whole ambitious project. The committee on church unity, appointed some years ago to negotiate terms of union with the Episcopal Church, made a final and rather melancholy report, and begged to be discharged from further hopeless labors. "With all her conscious weaknesses and imperfections," says the report, "the Presbyterian Church must insist"—well, that it is as good as the Episcopal, any day. This recalls the address to the Queen which the judges drew up at the opening of the new Law Courts. "Conscious as we are of our own infirmities," the first draft of it began. Objection was made to this as a little too abject, when Lord Bowen suggested that it should read, "Conscious as we are of each other's infirmities." That is the kind of consciousness the Presbyterians really have—an acute consciousness of the weaknesses and imperfections of the Episcopalians.

The use to which the Tories propose to put their big inherited surplus shows a strict intention to make their charity begin at home. The landlords are to get a good slice of it, through the new agricultural rating bill, and the church schools their share by means of the education bill. Meanwhile foreign glory is to be got dirt cheap, the British taxpayer having nothing (as yet) to pay on that score. The Egyptians are to pay for being protected on the Sudan frontier, though they did not dream they were in danger nor ask to be protected. It is now known that the orders to advance toward Dongola came straight from Rome, Cairo being left wholly in ignorance till the last moment. Some Indian troops have since been sent to Suakim, as it is thought they can endure the climate better than the English. Some one asked in the Commons who was going to foot the bill for this transfer of soldiers. He learned that it was customary to charge such items up to the Indian budget, and the Government proposed to do so now. The Egyptian fellaheen and the Indian ryots will never know why their taxes are heavier this year, and we fear that even Secretary Curzon would be unable to make it clear to them how they happily illustrate the beauties of imperial federation.

THE PROSPECT AT CHICAGO.

SENATOR BRICE is quoted as predicting a majority of 100 for the free coinage of silver at the Chicago convention. He thinks that the Republicans at St. Louis will adopt a gold platform, that McKinley will endorse it, that there will then be a bolt, but not a serious one, of delegates under the lead of Teller. He thinks that there will be no bolt at Chicago, but such an abstention of Democratic voters in the coming election that the party will be crushed. He has no doubt that the Republicans, in that event, will carry all the Western States from Ohio to the Dakotas inclusive. These views are attributed to Mr. Brice by a morning newspaper. Whether he is correctly reported or not, these opinions are held privately by so large a number of influential Democrats that they may be considered common property. Another opinion, a sort of corollary of the preceding ones, is that the silver question will overtop everything else in the campaign, no matter how strenuously the Republicans may seek to push the tariff to the front. McKinleyism, as that phrase is commonly understood, will be swallowed up, even though McKinley be the Republican candidate. It will be submerged by the money question.

The result of the Democratic primaries in Kentucky can hardly be taken otherwise than as the defeat of the sound-money men at Chicago. Last year they carried the State, under the lead of Secretary Carlisle, by a sufficient, but not large majority. Now the silverites have recovered their lost ground, and the gold-standard men, by losing that State, have probably lost the national convention also. The only question is whether the silverites will have a two-thirds majority at Chicago or not. This is not very important now, since the split in the party will be too wide and deep to be healed this year, if ever. The Louisville *Courier-Journal*, commenting on the action of its party friends, says that "they have spit upon the fathers of the party whose name and organization they claim, have proclaimed Jefferson an ignoramus, Jackson a conspirator, Benton a knave, and Cleveland a traitor. For the faith handed down through a hundred years of glorious party history, they have substituted a fad rejected by every intelligent civilization on the globe, and for the exponents of that faith they have substituted such apostles of Populism as Stewart, such exhorters of socialism as Tillman, such evangels of anarchism as Altgeld." It adds that Saturday's work makes Kentucky a Republican State for years to come; that although Bradley had lost the popularity which gave him the office of Governor last year, any Republican can now carry the State "over a party which binds itself to the corpse of free-silverism."

The events of the Democratic campaign make it clear that although the party repealed the Sherman act in 1893, its heart was not in that fight. It was "brought up to the bull-ring" by main strength. It required all the force that Mr. Cleveland could use, aided by Carlisle, Wilson, Gorman, Hill, Voorhees, Mills, and other leaders of varying views and tendencies as to other matters, and goaded by a financial panic of the first magnitude, to accomplish the result. It was a great victory for the country, but it was achieved over the heads and against the feelings of the Democrats of the West and South. A majority of them were for cheap and nasty money all the time. They are now under no duress or restraint. Mr. Cleveland no longer holds them by the back of the neck. They feel free to go their own way—that is, to the bad—and they are going thither with all possible speed. They will not only lose the Presidency, but a lot of Southern States which they have hitherto counted upon as surely Democratic—Delaware, Maryland, and Kentucky certainly; West Virginia, Tennessee, and Missouri probably—while their only possible gains to offset these losses will be the small Rocky Mountain States, and these are by no means certain.

The Republican voter who is going to leave his party on account of free silver, except in the silver-producing region, has not yet been heard from. On the other hand, the Democrats of education, substance, and training all over the country—in South Carolina and Texas as well as in New York and Illinois—who will never vote to debase the standard of value, are legion. One man of this type is Mr. W. W. Baldwin of Burlington, Iowa, who writes to the Des Moines *Leader* in reply to Gov. Boies's contention that free silver would give us the Mexican standard and bring us Mexican prices within thirty days. "No civilized nation," says Mr. Baldwin, "has ever yet taken such a plunge as is here proposed, namely, to reduce the value of its currency one-half at a single stroke, but I agree that it would be felt inside of thirty days." Then he pictures the consequences:

> "We had a touch of the feeling in May, 1893, from the mere suspicion that the Treasury Department might break down in its effort to prevent this fall to the silver or Mexican basis, which Gov. Boies desires to see accomplished. Thirty days were not required to spread the feeling. It closed banks and business houses and factories; it ruined the prosperous and industrious by thousands; it sent out into the streets and upon the roads other thousands to beg or starve because there was no work. It was the panic. Its influence did not cease in thirty days. It is yet with us. It is a factor in the 50-cent wheat and the 17 cent corn. The immediate panic is over, but the panic prices linger. What strange sentiment is this, that leads us to invite a repetition of that silver panic? What an hallucination to imagine that revival of the threat to reduce our money to the silver basis, with its menace to all values and to all business, will lead to an improvement in the prices of farm products! Gov. Boies is many years my senior in years; but I am many years his senior as a member of the Democratic party and in devotion to its principles. I claim, therefore, the right, as a Democrat, to protest against this strange doctrine of destruction and degradation."

The men of Mr. Baldwin's type abound in all the Northern States. They give to the Democratic party all the character that it possesses. They contribute ideas to the party councils and money to its campaigns without the hope or desire of personal reward. Cut them off, and the party becomes a derelict, like a ship without captain, crew, rudder, or sails. This seems to be the destiny of the party which claims descent from Jackson, Benton, and the other "gold-bugs" and anti-paper-money men of the thirties and forties, when, in fact, the party took its rise.

While we had hoped for something better as the result of the labors, the example, and the influence of the present Administration upon the party which elected it, and from the feeling of pride which is due to good work unselfishly performed, we can still find satisfaction in the prospect that all the cheap-money men, repudiators, Populists, anarchists, and Coxeyites are ranging themselves under one banner where they can all be raked by one fire.

EX-SENATOR HENDERSON ON McKINLEY.

ONE of the ablest and most respected Republicans of the day, ex-Senator Henderson of Missouri, in a long interview exhibiting sound notions about the currency, protests that he does not see why Mr. McKinley should be held responsible for "views expressed by him on questions of currency and coinage between 1873 and 1884." The answer is that Mr. McKinley's views on currency and coinage expressed between 1873 and 1884 have been fully confirmed by him, as late as September, 1894, and he refuses to say whether he holds them still or not. So that, by an inference based on all human experience, we are commenting on the views on these subjects which he holds at this hour. What a man said two years ago and refuses to withdraw now, he would, according to all rules of evidence, if he spoke, still say.

Mr. Henderson deplores Mr. McKinley's talk about silver between 1873 and 1884, but says Mr. Carlisle and Mr. Blaine and others prominent in public life talked the same way. But they talked wrong. Mr. Carlisle is not a candidate for the Presidency, nor is any of the others. We opposed Mr. Blaine for this reason, among others. It is no consolation to the nation to learn that the man whom it is about to put in its chief office had partners in his errors during ten years of his blundering and perversity. We do not blame Mr. McKinley for talking as wildly about currency as many other men did at the time. We simply say that it is dangerous to make him President. If he were not a candidate for the Presidency, all discussion of his financial views would be idle.

Mr. Henderson then proceeds to give an explanation of Mr. McKinley's aberrations. It appears, according to him, that all the foolish things McKinley said about silver were not said for silver, but for the tariff. At any rate, says he:

> "No declaration of his, at this later period, has been found that is not now susceptible,

when critically examined, of construction favorable to the single gold standard and absolutely against free coinage. All the quoted declarations, to the effect that he 'favored silver to the extent that it could be maintained on a parity with gold,' mean nothing, in the light of subsequent history."

Now what is this extract from a speech of his delivered at Findlay, O., September 27, 1894?

"The Democratic party has been in control of every branch of the government since the 4th day of March, 1893. Its legislative branch has been in session for more than twelve months, yet it has given us no silver legislation whatever, except to strike down the Sherman law at its special session called for that purpose, and in response to the urgent recommendation of a Democratic President. The party that struck silver down, and gave it the severest blow it ever had, cannot be relied upon to give that metal honorable treatment."

This is his deliberate view expressed one year after the repeal of the Sherman act, which had delivered the country from a terrible panic, caused by the firm belief of all classes and conditions that a continuance of the purchases of silver under the act would end in placing us within a few weeks on a silver basis. Either he shared this belief or he did not. If he did not, he is clearly unfit to be President for want of intelligence. If he did, he is unfit to be President on account of his hypocrisy in 1894. It is to be remembered that while the country was waiting in great anxiety for the repeal, McKinley never said a word in its favor. His only utterance on that momentous occasion was a declaration that

"The silver product of the country, one of the most important we have, should not be discriminated against, but some plan should be devised for its utilization as a money which will insure, not the displacement of gold, but the safe and full use of both, as exchanges among the people."

He knew very well, or did not know, that, as we stood, the maintenance of silver at a par with gold depended on the ability of the Government to pay gold for all presented silver, and he knew, or did not know, that persistent purchases of silver would bring about the silver standard quite as effectively as free coinage. So that saying he was opposed to free coinage but in favor of continued purchases of silver, is like saying that he was in favor of tweedledum, but had set his face like flint against tweedledee. We must in charity suppose that when he talked about "not discriminating against the silver product of the country," he had not the least idea what he meant, but knew that it would be taken by the silver-men to mean something pleasant.

Mr. Henderson's explanation, as we have said, of McKinley's aberrations about silver, is that they were due to a combination with the silver-men to enable him to get his tariff bill through both houses, and did not express his real sentiments about the metal; that "he said no more in favor of silver than was necessary to enable him to hold the combination" together. This is substantially a confession that McKinley, while a member of Congress, was willing to assist in debasing the currency, if not in bringing on national bankruptcy, by agreement with the silverites, in order to procure the passage of a very high tariff. This sounds like a plea for pardon or indulgence for McKinley as a deluded but innocent member of the House; but, odd as it may seem, Mr. Henderson produces it as a reason why we should make him President of the United States. Any such combination was utterly disreputable. In the case of a man who had a clearer understanding of what he was doing, we should call it treason. It was the basest act a man could commit against the Government, short of levying war against it. But we have no proof whatever that he repents or even regrets it. We have many reasons for believing not only that he would do it again if he had a chance, but that he means to do it again the first chance he gets. Everything that has appeared in the McKinley newspapers and interviews goes to show their desire to treat the currency as subordinate to the tariff. Many articles to this effect have appeared in the New York *Tribune*. We may therefore fairly expect that one of the first acts of the next Congress will be to pass a high tariff bill by any means in its power, with McKinley's hearty approval. One of these means, and the only absolutely necessary one, will be another combination with the silverites. Without such a combination, such a bill cannot get through the Senate. The silverites know this and McKinley knows it, so that the situation next year will be exactly the same as in 1890, except that the coinage question will be much more dangerous and alarming. A high-tariff bill will get a majority on condition that the Republicans will "do something for silver." Quotations from the St. Louis platform at this juncture about "sound money" will have no more effect than the evening breeze. The agreement, whatever it is, will be carried out. They will "do something for silver."

Why do we think so? We think so because all the evidence within our reach shows that there are few or no real gold-men in the West. The best Republican organs in that region, such as the Detroit *Tribune*, show that the public mind there is not made up about the currency question. The Western men are still enamoured of the idea of keeping gold and silver on an equality. All that they have given up is the expectation that the famous "international agreement" will be reached. They still believe that, somehow or other, this keeping of gold and silver on an equality, this keeping of gold from leaving the country, can be accomplished by some legislation of our own; and such legislation will be tried, and they will have in McKinley a President who will favor the idea. Another reason for thinking so is that exertions are evidently being made already to procure the adoption of a "sound-money" platform simply at St. Louis, in the hope that some, like Mr. Henderson, will interpret "sound money" as meaning gold; others as meaning silver and gold in equal proportions; others as silver in some shape or other. In the use of such ambiguous phrases McKinley himself is past master, and the platform is already being manufactured. It is all but certain that the platform will contain some such "straddle," because there is an apparent determination not to speak of the "gold standard" at all, for fear of offending the West. There will be no gold-standard plank if the silver-men can help it, and they rely on bringing the poor gold-standard men into line by showing them the Democratic party, East and West, going "hell bent" for silver, leaving the Republican ranks the only place for a man to stand in with a ray of hope.

The probabilities are that the gold-men will be much affected by this reasoning. They will not insist on the mention of the gold standard, "ipsissimis verbis." They will be content with the phrase "sound money," and trust in Providence. The situation of business men at the East is already pretty desperate. Their business and credit are going to ruin before their eyes, and they will take a tariff and McKinley sooner than nothing. Things cannot be worse with them, and they may be better. For thirty years the Republican party, when bent on financial folly, has been stopped in its mad career by a firm, resolute, and well-informed President. One only has "wobbled," and that was Gen. Harrison. They are now, apparently, about to have one of the greatest wobblers in the country just where they want him. No more vetoes, Congress omnipotent, and a "combination" the order of the day. The prospect is glorious, but the end is certain.

A BISHOP AMONG THE PROPHETS.

Professor Huxley's death extinguished a vast amount of clerical envy, of which he, living, had been the object, and the hearty tributes paid his memory in many a pulpit and religious paper last July showed what a distance had been travelled since his famous set-to with Bishop Wilberforce. But another Bishop spoke at Leeds the other day in favor of the Huxley Memorial Fund, and his words are almost of themselves a memorial to Huxley. It was Dr. Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon, and his address before the Leeds meeting betrayed the frankest acceptance of the spirit in which Huxley labored and the ends for which he strove. Dr. Carpenter did not content himself with praising Huxley's energy, his unflagging application, his powers of lucid exposition, and all that, but went to the core of the matter in saying, "I am here as a friend of knowledge, to do honor to one who enlarged its borders." To have done this was, in the Bishop's opinion, to have "added to the comforts, the joys, and the

assurances of life." Nor did he leave room for the suspicion of the usual mental reservations. It was an essential part of manhood "to follow truth wherever it leads us. Religious truth, in one sense, must always wait on scientific truth, and religious truth must often change its form at the bidding and on the information of scientific truth."

How simple on those terms the "reconciliation of science and religion," at which so many have toiled painfully and in vain, appears! All you have to do is to treat adjacent and mutually influencing truths in those provinces just as you would in any other—that is to say, give full credit to each so far as the evidence for each warrants, and then adjust or harmonize the two, or make one give way before the other, as the laws of thought compel you. If we could believe that Bishop Carpenter in praising Huxley spoke for Christendom, or even for the Church of England, as authoritatively as Bishop Wilberforce did in baiting him, we should think that a great many chairs and lectureships in theological seminaries "on the relations of religion and science" would at once appear even more useless than they now do. At any rate, the Bishop of Ripon's position is the only one that can be successfully maintained; it is the only one from which the reconcilers have not already been driven.

We all know the successive stages through which the controversy has gone. The first one was marked by an air of confident superiority on the part of theology towards rising science. This superiority was first amused, then indignant, then severely anathematizing. Dr. Holmes, in his Life of Emerson, describes the conservative theologians of the day as standing about the young lecturer, like so many puzzled pointer dogs, uncertain what the strange game might be they had flushed. Something like that was the ecclesiastical attitude forty years ago towards evolution. Nothing quite so absurd had ever been heard of. Darwin was a rare jester. What, he was in earnest—had worked seventeen years before writing a line? Well, well, it was time the Church spoke out about this science falsely so called. Whatever vain imaginings these innovators might bring forth, theology had a more sure word of prophecy. If science was dangerous and wicked instead of being, as we supposed, merely laughable, it was time to warn our students against it.

But this stage could not and did not last very long. Theological students had a way then, as they have now, of perversely reading the very books their professors put in the *Index* for them. So there soon came in a new fashion—one which must still be called the reigning fashion. It is to be generously tolerant of science, but to insist that it keep to its own sphere. Science was all very well in its place, but, like Mr. Brooke and his pamphlets in 'Middlemarch,' it would never do to go too far in that sort of thing; you must see your danger in time and "pull up." Here came in the famous illustration which still lives to comfort many troubled hearts—the illustration of the "parallel tracks." There was the scientific train coming on under full steam, apparently bound to collide with the religious train going the other way, but lo! just as the crash was imminent you found they were on parallel tracks and could not touch each other. *Voilà tout!*

This parallel-track theory of religion and science has flourished long, but a great deal has had to be spent on it for repairs. Somehow a large number of switches have been surreptitiously built between the two tracks, and collisions have occurred in spite of the utmost care. Car-loads of Assyrian cylinders and Egyptian inscriptions have gone smashing into the Plenary Inspiration caboose; geological excursion-trains have recklessly jumped their own rails and telescoped the Mosaic-cosmogony special passing on the other track; the higher critics have unexpectedly thrown a switch, and at the same time thrown a train-load of dignified theologians into a miscellaneous and struggling heap of historians, philologists, and antiquarians. The parallel tracks have come to be, in fact, strewn with so many wrecks, and the expense and difficulty of keeping them in operation are growing yearly so great, that even some theologians are now thinking that a single track would have its advantages. The Bishop of Ripon, as we have seen, boldly declares for the single track.

Figures and levity aside, Dr. Carpenter's honest admission that much religious truth is only approximate and tentative in form, and that it must suffer change from age to age as new light comes, is one of great significance. It does not mean that science is to have everything its own way. Scientists have their own crude and passing theories which have to be abandoned. No one will be more ready than they to conceive of truth as a whole which grows slowly and by sloughing off many temporary accretions, only they insist upon considering it as a whole. They recognize no pigeon-holes in the mind for nicely assorted truths. Truth is one as reasoning is one. If theologians will only follow Bishop Carpenter's lead in going over to that position, it will prove a happy meeting-ground of science and religion.

THE PROTEST OF THE MOUNTAIN-LOVER.

WOODSTOCK, N. H., April 25, 1896.

To the American dweller in cities a summer vacation has come to be as necessary as black coffee after dinner; and New England has special inducements which tend to confirm the habit. Was it not a Boston lawyer who "could do a year's work in ten months, but not in twelve"? Is not New England flanked by two attractions which do not come close together anywhere else in the country, east of California—bold seacoast and picturesque mountains? Now that the "cottager" has quietly appropriated almost every quarter-mile of headland from Castine to Plymouth, and is seizing the best of the beaches, the excluded New Englander may turn backward to a region where no board fence can shut out his view; in the mountains nature has provided humanity with an exhaustless store of summer delights. Of the many advantages of the Berkshires and the Green and White Mountains, one is their accessibility. To Stockbridge or Bread Loaf or Franconia is but a seven or eight hours' journey from Boston, or a night's ride from New York; the railroads now push far up into the valleys, and from the station one steps into the wilderness. The camper still finds boughs, the hunter may expect game, and the fisherman may bag the little models of trout so scorned by the old inhabitant.

As for beauty of scenery, that philosopher of pessimism who avers that the outlines of American mountains are commonplace has never known Monadnock, or Ossipee, or Mansfield, or Lafayette. The sweep of the mountains is clad in forest. The streams recall the query of the Brookline child: "Papa, how can these White Mountain farmers afford to have such beautiful brooks for their little boys?" As for roads, where is there anything more delightful than the long, lazy, winding, shaded highways, smooth of surface, diversified by "thank-you-marms," and revealing fresh views every half-mile? Nor is this paradise a backwoods. Throughout the mountains are long-established hotels; less pretentious boarding-houses abound; and the knowing still visit and keep to themselves some of the real old-fashioned farmhouses, with hollyhocks in the front yard, green peas in the garden, and a brook into which one freely may tumble unawares.

To review some of the impressions gained from earlier visits, I am making this out-of season trip to one of the many New England mountain regions. The Pemigewasset valley is attractive at all seasons, even when the snow hangs on the upper mountain slopes. The Franconia range is beautiful in form, adorned with forests, abundant in water-courses. The whole region has for many years been growing in favor as a place of summer sojourn. Already fond of it, and predisposed to find it improved, I must own to a great disappointment. The glory of the mountains is departing, and the mountain-lover mourns.

The accommodations for visitors change little. To enter into the question of summer hotels might lead to a general survey of American civilization; our question is, simply: how far do the hotels provide for the reasonable desires of one who loves mountains? Their sites are usually well chosen, on George Washington's ingenuous principle: "It cannot be supposed that those who were first on the ground failed to secure the most eligible locations." Crawford's, Jefferson Highlands, Jackson, Sugar Hill, and notably the Profile House, have the best positions in the mountains. But why plant a lumber-yard in front of the Deer Park Hotel in North Woodstock, a laundry opposite the Profile House, and a stable vis-à-vis to the Flume House? Why, in all the mountains, is there no well-made, dry, easy footpath more than half a mile long to take advantage of these superb outlooks?

Take the Mount Lafayette range as an example. I have been trying to carry out a long-delayed purpose to climb it. Here is a beautiful mountain, Alpine in its upper reaches, only 3,300 feet higher than the Franconia Notch. Hundreds of people go up 3,300 feet from Zermatt to the Schwarzsee; how many climb La-

fayette? Of course the hotels are not responsible for the snow which yesterday made the path a *nevé*, and thus held the adventurer back; but at least the snow filled up the track which Baedeker courteously calls "a steep bridle-path." No beast that was ever bridled could make his way up that steep, stony, rough watercourse, choked with fallen trees. An engineer's location, a little expenditure, a few benches, care to put all in order every year, a rest-house at the summit, would bring visitors to Franconia Notch. The principle of White Mountain hotel management was unconsciously furnished by the care-taker at the Flume House. He had no beverages, he said, except champagne and claret. The champagne and claret people climb no mountains; but why is there no consideration for the people (fifty times as numerous) who want their mountains unmixed with expensive civilization, and will pay their way modestly?

Several delightful drives had left in my mind the conviction that one of the most beautiful of all mountain roads was that from the Profile House to North Woodstock. To be sure, like all the White Mountain roads, it does not take advantage of its scenic opportunities; here are none of the rock galleries and flying-bridges which bring travellers leagues out of their way to see the Via Mala; and, considering the profit made by the hotels out of coaching, the roads about North Woodstock are very few: one goes north, two go south, none to the east, and a ridiculously steep and impracticable road to the west. One is struck by the long stretches of impenetrable forest in the White Mountains, and wishes for the powers of a Dictator of New Hampshire, to lay out a Cornice Road sweeping at the same level in and out of the recesses of the mountains, all around Lafayette, and so to Crawford's, and then a loop around the shoulders of the Presidential Range. One sees the high cottage sites, the waterfalls, the tunnels, the overhanging cliffs, the coaches spinning past.

From this vision the mountain lover awakes to find that if Franconia Notch is a fair sample, the few existing roads are likely to be ruined. Who does not remember the sylvan drive from the Profile down to the Flume? The first stretch of four miles is still as wild and beautiful as ever. Then, all at once, we plunge into Whitehouse's hideous saw-mill town, planted athwart the limpid Pemigewasset, the houses dropped down in blocks like a child's toy village—but most unclean. From the big mill comes the shriek of the saws; and a slow-moving endless chain carries edgings and débris, to cast them into the stream. A continuous fire eats into the heap as it is made, and raises vain hopes that it may some time burn the mill. Below the village the buggy plunges into an infamous stretch of road.

> "If you'd seen these roads
> Before they were made,
> You would hold up your hands
> And bless General Wade,"

murmurs my companion. The highway of pleasant memories is cut down to the underlying boulders, broadened into quagmires, deepened into two feet of greasy mud, where six-horse teams struggle and flounder; then comes a dry half mile; then more "*bolge*," into which one longs to plunge the authors of this profanation. The road is to be "put in order" in May, but it never can be restored to its beauty, and every rain will make it a bog again.

For the present the gangs of the conspirators against the welfare of their State have not destroyed the views; Whitehouse is said to have twenty years' work before him. You may still sit on your piazza and possess the mountains. But as the slopes are stripped of all the large trees, the dead and gnarled trunks will stand out, a jagged horror; and the sawdust so liberally distributed in the streams is good neither for trout nor for the temper.

Yet "people must live," and no one grudges a starving land-owner's cutting a tree to buy bread. We are accustomed also to see our cities made ugly, that there may be work for the willing. The pity of this process of "uglification" is that it threatens eventually to impoverish the countryside. No one supposes that the profits on the heavy investments in the upper Pemigewasset are more than $100,000 a year; and when the forests are stripped there will be no more work; the mill villages will go to ruin, and the summer visitor will flee. If the same capital were invested in making the country attractive to people of moderate means, in building roads, paths, outlooks, and inns, 3,000 additional visitors might be drawn, who would leave with somebody a profit of thirty dollars each, and the profit would increase from year to year. Self-interest is not an effective motive in the White Mountains.

Here at Woodstock our roads are safe and the countryside unspoiled. Four miles north is the village of North Woodstock, intended by nature to be the centre of a summer community. The village is not made attractive; no good paths or drives lead to the neighboring mountains and waterfalls; the best road for driving is ruined. The town is so helpless that it lets the lumbermen destroy its most valuable asset—the road to the Profile House—without even a hearty grumble. If the people had a coal seam, nobody could prevent their working it; as it is only a beautiful combination of mountain, valley, hill, and plain, they let their heritage slip away.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

AN IMPENITENT REPUBLICAN.

ITALY, May 16, 1896.

ANOTHER of Italy's grand old heroes has passed away at Mentone. A Milanese, like Carlo Cattaneo and Giuseppe Ferrari, Enrico Cernuschi was the arm, as Cattaneo was the head, of that first great uprising of March, 1848, which shook the Austrian dominion to its foundations and would have succeeded in expelling the foreigners from Italian soil but for the timidity of the moderate faction, the letting "I dare not" wait upon "I would" policy of Carlo Alberto and his counsellors. Before even Cattaneo could bring himself to decide on calling the unarmed populace to attack the 16,000 Austrians armed to the teeth within the city, Cernuschi unsheathed his sword in Broletto, shouting, "War! war!" He dictated three decrees to the Governor, O'Donnell, and stood over him till he signed them; transported the city government from unsafe to safe quarters, improvised barricades in the twinkling of an eye, became the idol of the people and the nightmare of the aristocracy. Appointed member of the council of war, he insisted on opening the dispatches which friends of the enemy tried to smuggle through as private messages, refused all offers of armistice, and fought till the end of the third day, when the last Austrian quitted Milan.

One of Cernuschi's expedients during the Milanese revolution will always be remembered in his native city. The insurgents were in possession of the suburbs and followed up the foe, harassing them in their flight. In order to keep up communications with the interior, Cernuschi organized the *Martinitt*, the orphan children dressed in the garb of their asylum, and hence easily recognized and allowed to cross the barricades and pass the gates, which they did with such dexterity and courage that he always remembered them, last year sent them $20,000, and has left them other $40,000 in his will. As he vehemently opposed the humble dedication of the city to Charles Albert, and refused to call on the people to desist from the pursuit of the foe, the members of the provisional government first calumniated, then arrested him for pretended participation in a demonstration, and in a public proclamation "trusted that the trials initiated would reveal who among the rioters were merely misled by others who had been *bribed with Austrian gold*. After four days of detention in one of the bolzas, the criminal tribunal found that "he had fallen under suspicion, owing to an unfortunate combination of circumstances," and he was released clear of all charge. One of the many proclamations that he issued and signed shows the moral tone of the lion-hearted youth. The people were hot upon spies and the wretched police agents who had sent so many patriots to the Spielberg.

"No! fellow-citizens," he wrote, "let our victory be stainless. Let us not demean ourselves by taking vengeance on the satellites whom their fugitive masters have abandoned in our hands. It is true that for thirty years they have been the scourge of our families. But be you generous as you have been valorous."

Save in fair fight not a drop of blood was shed.

Cernuschi opposed the *fusion* as inopportune, calculated to give the Pope and the King of Naples and Duke of Tuscany the excuse they wanted for withdrawing their troops from the "Holy War," now transformed to a struggle for the annexation of a province. When even hope was lost, he still fought on vigorously to the very last, sped to Switzerland to secure a quantity of muskets, then, refusing to recognize the capitulation, did his best to persuade Griffini to hold the line of the Adda, and was with Garibaldi fighting against desperate odds until he also was compelled to quit Italian soil. He then went to Tuscany and thence to Rome, where again he taught the defenders the "art of barricades." He had been one of the opponents of the watchword *L'Italia farà da se*, and would have had Italy accept the assistance of republican France against the Austrians in Lombardy; hence, the conduct of the French Assembly in supporting the fugitive Pope and assailing Rome came upon him as a bitter disillusion which augmented his determination to resist invasion to the uttermost. But when all chance of saving Rome was over, to prevent useless bloodshed, instead of accepting either of Mazzini's proposals to the Assembly to resist to the uttermost, or to carry the war into the provinces, he put the following motion: "The Assembly desists from a defence that has become impossible and remains at its post." After summoning Garibaldi and the other military chiefs, who all confirmed the "impossibility" of further resistance, as the French were in possession of the city, the Assembly decreed the cessation of hostilities—unanimously but for one vote, Mazzini's, who bitterly reproached Cernuschi.

Cernuschi remained when most of the other leaders had quitted Rome. The French commanders, attributing the scornfully hostile attitude of the entire Roman population towards themselves to his influence, arrested him on the charge of exciting the Romans against the

French, of leading them to sack and destroy the Villa Medici, the Farnese Palace, etc., and shut him up in the Castle of St. Angelo, and, after six months' detention, summoned him before a council of war. Refusing counsel, he made a magnificent defence, or, rather, a defence of Italy and of Italians, who "had defended, and would ever defend, native soil against all foreign invaders. You call me, you call them anarchists—the word is in vogue just now; but you simply do not know us. For myself, I am a man of order, a practical man, as the English say; *un homme sérieux*, as the French have it." The verdict of the military judges absolved him from all charges, but, the public prosecutor appealing, he was detained another six months in prison, again tried, found innocent, and sent in a French man-of-war to Toulon. His letters during and after his imprisonment to Cattaneo and to Bertani are some of the most original and amusing that I have ever read.

Head of a large family of orphan brothers and sisters, as their fortune had been diminished during the revolution, and Henry's portion sequestrated by the Austrians, he set to work as an engineer; later he entered the Crédit-Foncier, associating with the anti-imperial republican Parisians. From the first he marked his antipathy to communists and socialists, but took vast interest in the social progress of the working-classes, and founded a coöperative society for the sale of meat. A Milanese exile put $20,000 into the concern, which failed entirely, as most coöperative slaughter houses and butchers' stores have failed, even in England. The very first moment he became possessed of such a sum he insisted on refunding the $20,000 to his friend Marquis Arconati.

When in 1859 the Franco-Sardinian war against Austria was proclaimed, he denounced it as immoral and fatal to Italy's future. Cavour, who had a special hatred of all Lombard republicans, especially federalists, denounced him in Parliament, and in his memorable reply Cernuschi gave him a Roland for his Oliver. He took no part in the war of 1866, and affirmed in 1867 that he would never assist monarchy to take possession of Rome. When in 1870 the appeal to universal suffrage was made in France, he gave the republicans $20,000 for their propaganda, and for this was expelled from France by the Emperor. After the fall of the Empire he returned to Paris, and, as a protest against the proclamation of "One Italy, with Rome for its capital, under Victor Emanuel and his successors," he renounced his Italian citizenship and was naturalized a subject of the French Republic. Bertani reproached him bitterly, but kept his affection and esteem for him to the last. During the German siege, he was the providence of the Parisians, spent freely of his wealth (large even then), and, when the Communists got the upper hand, remained there, doing his utmost to save the hostages and restrain violence, and came near losing his life for his attempt to save Deputy Chaudet.

For some years he travelled in China, Japan, and Egypt, bringing home vast treasures of antiquity. His magnificent villa in Avenue Velasquez, Parc Monceau, was open to all his countrymen, moderates or liberals. The Ambassador Ressmann was a frequent guest, but Cernuschi never set foot in the official residence of the Italian King's ambassador. Regarded as one of the greatest financiers and economists of the day, he was intrusted with various financial operations and made an immense fortune, but never was a single accusation of indelicacy, still less of dishonest speculation, brought against him. As an economist, his campaign in favor of bimetallism will long be remembered in England and the United States. In 1884 he visited Italy, avoiding Milan and Rome, "preferring to retain the memory of the scenes of his youthful exploits and vanished hopes intact." At Mantua he was welcomed by Achille Sacchi, Garibaldi's "fighting doctor," visited Orsini's prison and the art treasures contained in the city. At Bologna, Giosuè Carducci, and Frati, the head librarian, were his ciceroni, and to the museums and libraries of the city he was munificent. Just after his return to Paris the Italian press attacked him violently on monetary, economical, and political questions, and one noted moderate paper called him "an out and-out bad Italian," which led to the publication of a generous vindicatory letter signed by Carducci, Frati, Giovanni Castellani, the celebrated patriot and antiquarian, and Prof. Tullio Martello. When, in 1890 during Crispi's first ministry, the general elections took place, he sent 100,000 lire to the republican association for propaganda and for the expenses of republican candidates, and never in this classic land of calumny and vituperation were attacks as virulent or as unjust made. The Government might spend hundreds of thousands of public money, use threats, promises, bestow rank and office to insure the success of its candidates, but a republican must not give money of his own for the spread of a principle which was dearer than his life.

It was in the spring of the following year that I went to Paris by appointment to visit Cernuschi in his beautiful Italian villa, with the medallions of Aristotle and Leonardo da Vinci over the entrance. With visions of the youthful hero in memory, I was hardly prepared for the austere, venerable aspect of the grand old man, with his long, thick, silver hair; but the bright liquid eyes, the peculiar sweetness of the full parted lips, were there as in his youth. "Welcome to the widow of the staunch federal republican whose dauntless courage, blameless life, and stern adhesion to his principles to the end make him an example to his countrymen," he said. The object of my visit was to lay before him the sorrowful fact that neither Bertani, Mario, nor myself had been able to find an editor or a band of the "master's" pupils to publish Cattaneo's letters and political writings which three successive deaths had left on my helpless hands. He offered at once to pay an editor, on condition that during his lifetime I should keep his name a secret, which (with the exception of three friends named) I agreed to do. Two volumes have appeared and pleased "the vanished eye." The third and last is in course of preparation. The details of that interview are too fresh in memory to be narrated to-day, when his remains are journeying from Mentone, not to Milan, but to Paris, there to be cremated and to remain, how long, O Italy, how long?

J. W. M.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 6, 1896.

IF fidelity to tradition were always a virtue, the Royal Academy would be beyond reproach. Year after year, it perseveres in maintaining its reputation for mediocrity; year after year it covers its walls with the regulation number of inept or incompetent canvases, relieved here and there by the genuine work of an artist, which seems the more marvellous or charming because of the contrast. Change is the last thing expected of so conservative a body. Indeed, so little is the slightest variation looked for, in either the Academy's policy or the quality of its exhibition, that this spring almost a sensation has been created by the action of the hanging committee in rejecting two men who, for some time past, have been the most honored of outside exhibitors. But two years since, Mr. Tuke's was the principal picture bought for the Chantrey collection; a conspicuous place on the line, hitherto, has always been found for Mr. Furse's portraits. And now, both Mr. Furse and Mr. Tuke are among the rejected, and the reported reason is the failure of each, in the eyes of the committee, to come up to his own standard of merit—the Academy suddenly showing a misjudged paternal concern for the progress of individual contributors.

This, and other vagaries of the hanging committee, whose one endeavor, evidently, has been to produce as many discords as possible in the given space, have made most talk among artists and art critics. And really, it is well that there should be something to talk about, for the pictures themselves are no great stimulus to enthusiasm or discussion. It may be that the Academy wears a gayer aspect than usual. Here and there is a faint reflection of the light that shines from the walls of the Champ-de-Mars Salon: two, at least, of the younger associates, Mr. Solomon and Mr. Hacker, do their best to out-dazzle everything in their vicinity—the one, with an iridescent Venus, the other with a theatrical nun choosing between the cloister and the world, while, apparently, the lime-light is well turned on from the wings. Here and there, too, are signs of a bewildered realization that sham symbolism or mysticism is just now in fashion, and very amazing and disastrous are the results. But technical fireworks and scrupulous adherence to fashion are not guarantees of good work, and the pictures of distinction are, as they ever must be, those which bid least clamorously for a day's notoriety.

A special and largely sentimental interest is attached to the "Clytie" of Sir Frederick Leighton. He was working upon it immediately before his death, and it is a pleasure to find that his last canvas is one of the best he has shown for many years. The goddess, her golden green drapery falling about her, her arms outstretched in prayer, is kneeling by a small altar, in the strong glow of the setting sun; for background there is a vague brown hillside and a tremendous overhanging canopy of golden cloud; and perhaps because, according to Sir Frederick Leighton's method, the painting is still unfinished, it has more of the breadth and freshness and vigor of his sketches, less of the waxiness and characterless smoothness and polish of his pictures. With something of the same sentimental interest one turns to the work of the new President, Sir John E. Millais, whom one always remembers as the great master he once was. He has two or three portraits which can be passed in silence, and a picture called "A Forerunner," presumably John the Baptist, which is repellent in its muddy color, prosaic in its treatment; but, at least, the slim brown figure, with the leopard skin around his loins, makes an effective silhouette against the shadows of a little wood, and is so well placed in the composition that it recalls some of the artist's earlier and nobler performances.

However, it is more encouraging to consider the work of the younger men—work which de-

pends upon no sentimental issue for its importance. The recent elections have made so great a difference that now, curiously enough, most of the notable contributions come actually from within the academic ranks. If I except two very lovely studies of sea and sand—exquisite color fantasies—by Mr. William Stott, the most striking pictures are by Academicians or Associates. You have but to look to the portraits to find Mr. Sargent supreme, though Mr. Sargent, it must be admitted, is far from being at his best. His "Mr. Chamberlain" is, no doubt, the *clou*—to borrow the French word—of the Academy. But this is due rather to South Africa than to the painter. The pose is commonplace, even photographic. The Colonial Minister stands by his desk; his left hand, which grasps a bundle of papers, resting upon it. The long expanse of immaculate frock coat, the orchid in the buttonhole, the high light on the trousers knee, all divide attention with the head, which, one cannot but think, failed to appeal to Mr. Sargent, so perfunctory is his rendering of it. On the other hand, in the "Portrait of a Lady," he shows one of the really beautiful women he seems, as a rule, so reluctant to paint. It is a full length, and the figure, in white evening gown and a cape of vivid cherry falling from the shoulders, stands in front of a dark, deep toned Japanese screen. The arrangement is very simple, recalling the "Countess Clary Aldringen" in the New Gallery; but the face has charm and elegance, the pose distinction, and the whole figure is brushed in with spirit and the gayety of the painter sure of his effect. There is nothing to compare to this among the portraits, which, I should add, are of more than usual insignificance. There are two or three exceptions—for one, Mr. Orchardson's large "Provost of Glasgow," a masterpiece in the refined rendering of accessories, of an embroidered table-cloth, an Eastern carpet, but with a white head that detaches itself and fairly leaps at you from the subdued background; possibly in the place which the picture is designed to fill the light may remedy the fault which now seems so glaring. M. Benjamin Constant is represented, but he brings with him only the more accomplished commonplace of the Champs Élysées. There is a strange pale-brown portrait of Mr. Alfred Gilbert, the sculptor, by Mr. Watts. Mr. Lavery, Mr. Greiffenhagen Mr. Loudan contribute, but they make, for them, an indifferent showing—the result partly of the bad hanging.

When it comes to the subject pictures, honors lie with Mr. Abbey, who unquestionably has achieved a well-deserved success with his "Richard Duke of Gloucester and the Lady Anne," a marked advance upon any and all of the paintings he has as yet exhibited. The scene chosen is the second in the first act of "Richard III.," and, as reminder, the quotation,

> "Was ever woman in this humour woo'd,
> Was ever woman in this humour won!"

is printed in the catalogue. Across the background the funeral procession stretches—at one end the catafalque rich in heraldic ornament, at the other a sea of faces as far as eye can reach. The black cloaks of the figures, broken by the narrow strip of red lining in their hoods and the red staves of their inverted halberds, present a strong, stirring arrangement of color, repeated in the long black train of the Lady Anne and the red robes of Gloucester, where they stand in front of the procession. It is evident that Mr. Abbey has learned much while at work on the Galahad series, for he seems, in the composition and grouping, to understand decorative limitations and requirements more fully than ever before. That he meant to treat the scene decoratively is clear, since he has made no attempt to introduce light or atmosphere, but has carried it out with a certain flatness appropriate to mural decoration. It therefore seems to me a mistake to have treated the two principal figures realistically and dramatically. Their realism is inconsistent with the general scheme; they break the harmony of the design. But, despite this defect, the picture will make one look forward more keenly to the second portion of the Galahad series.

If there were space, I should like to speak in detail also of the "Pandora," by Mr. Waterhouse; a charming little "Sirens," by Mr Swan; an old-masterish arrangement of the nude by Mr. Watts, the "Infancy of Jupiter": Mr. Greiffenhagen's "Judgment of Paris." These all have merit, and are a welcome relief from the conscientious naturalism of men like Mr. Stanhope Forbes and Mr. Frank Bramley, who waste their knowledge in accurate records of farm-yard incidents, not beautiful in themselves, though the artist who aimed at being something more than a human camera could give them beauty.

It is Mr. Clausen, another of the newer Associates, who excels in landscape. Instead of the midsummer brilliancy which has so often inspired him, this year he has found a motive in the gray melancholy of early dawn, "Bird-Scaring, March." It is a difficult effect to render, for sad and cold as is the gray light, it can be tender and soft as well. Mr. Clausen has managed to suggest both the coldness and the tenderness; pale mists lie lightly on his chilled fields and distant hills, and envelop, as with phantom foliage, the lonely trees that rise, in ghostly shadows, from the grayness. One pale rift of yellow light shows in the east. In the foreground stands the little human scarecrow, cold and sad as the hour, but with something of tragedy in his Millet like pose that redeems his ragged ugliness and brings him into sympathy with the scene. There is no other landscape quite so subtle and dignified as this But Mr. Arthur Lemon here, as at the New Gallery, has delightful and quite individual impressions of Italian landscape. There is a very stately "Pastoral" by Mr. Alfred East, who, in it, strives less obviously and more successfully to be poetic than is his wont. Mr. Alfred Parsons, Mr. David Murray, Mr. North, the contemporary of Fred. Walker and Pinwell, and Mr. La Thangue, all contribute intelligent and legitimately impressive work. Among the marines, Mr. Alexander Harrison's "Great Mirror" would probably be conspicuous, had not an irresponsible hanging committee seen fit to sky it. Mr. Bridgman's "Pharaoh's Captives" has not been much more fairly treated. It is easy to understand why distinguished foreigners so seldom seek to exhibit at Burlington House.

I have not left myself space to say how good the sculpture is. Mr. Alfred Gilbert again proves himself the master in a jewel like statuette of "St. George," in aluminium, touched with gold and ivory. It is a perfect little piece of modelling; the metal being used for the armor, the ivory for face and hands, to produce an admirable effect of color. Mr. Harry Bates, an Associate, has his equestrian statue of Lord Roberts, a commission for Calcutta. It is so large that it was found necessary to erect it in the court-yard, much to its advantage. The figure sits well upon the horse and is full of dignity, while the pedestal is decorated with a very spirited bas-relief, representing artillery and cavalry in action. One regrets that the monument must go from London, a city so unfortunate, always, in the statues set up in its streets and parks. A series of little colored bas-reliefs by Mr. George Frampton, and a casket in silver and enamel by Mr. and Mrs. Dawson, are treated with that fine feeling for decorative beauty that distinguishes the work of many of the younger sculptors.

Water colors and black-and-white receive the scant courtesy which is their accustomed portion. Mr. E. A. Walton, one of the Glasgow men, introduces an unexpected romantic note in the water color room, with a couple of fantastic studies of heads, one of which he frankly calls "Romance." And in the black-and white room Mr. Abbey makes an appearance—the first step, it is to be hoped, toward his championship of the illustrator's art in the Academy, which has so persistently disdained it. N. N.

Correspondence.

THE SUGAR BOUNTY AND THE COMPTROLLER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A paragraph in your last issue about the bounty decision conveys an erroneous impression as to the position of the Comptroller with regard to it. The Comptroller is not, in any sense, an inferior officer, but has been, since Hamilton's time in practice and since 1868 by express statute, the superior of the Secretary and of all the Cabinet officers in rulings on claims and matters of account. Moreover, he never rejected the claim, but referred it to the Court of Claims to advise him as to its constitutionality, also under a statute of 1868. He expressed his own opinion on the matter merely as explanation of delaying the claim in this way, but carefully avoided deciding it.

The trouble about the current newspaper view of the case is its tendency to scare Comptrollers in future out of exercising their statutory power to refer doubtful constitutional questions to the court—a thing constantly done by the Comptrollers of the State and city of New York. It is idle to talk about the constitutional decisions of the President in signing appropriation bills. He cannot examine the constitutionality of a hundredth part of the stuff that is dumped on him at the close of a session. The Comptroller is the man provided by Congress to decide whether claims shall be paid without litigation or referred to the courts. Justice.

Washington, D. C., May 29, 1896.

SOUTHERN PAUPERS AND RACES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In this county of Decatur, Georgia, with a population of nearly 30,000 (the blacks and whites being about equal), there are at present in the one poor-house of the county but five inmates—one man and four women—all white. Besides this, about twenty-seven people, mostly white, receive out-of-door relief. During the past three years eight has been the largest number of inmates at one time, of whom two were black. In ten half years' residence here I have seen but one tramp and no white beggar; nor black, for that matter, unless one counts the willingness of nearly the whole race to accept gifts, and to expect them for slight

service, or none, as allied to begging. It is, however, essentially different, for the asking is always from some colored person one knows, and some service in return is usually implied, and, indeed, often generally rendered. The number of foreigners in the whole population is not much greater than the number of paupers, and they are mostly Jews.

The white people in this county are quite poor compared with the North or West, and the blacks are ten times poorer than the whites. Nearly all are engaged in agriculture. Here is an opportunity for sociological study presented nowhere else in the world. The semi-tropical climate and the presence of the blacks, lately slaves, have made our South in many ways more different from the North than England is. The cost of living here is, I believe, less than in any other highly civilized country.

T. B. BROOKS.

BAINBRIDGE, GA., May 25, 1896.

A LESSENING OF DIFFICULTIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has recently come to my notice an instance of plagiarism which has not been exposed, so far as I know, or received the censure that it deserves because of its boldness and magnitude, as well as because of the circumstances under which it occurred. The theft to which I wish to call public attention through the columns of the *Nation* is to be found in a monograph entitled 'Public Lands and Agrarian Laws of the Roman Republic,' by Andrew Stephenson, Ph.D., Professor of History in Wesleyan University. This monograph is one of the series of Johns Hopkins Studies in Historical and Political Science, and it was published in Baltimore in 1891.

According to the author's own statement, he has "earnestly endeavored to lessen the difficulties" which surround Roman agrarian legislation, and his reason for writing the work "is found in the fact that agrarian movements have borne more or less upon every point in Roman constitutional history, and a proper knowledge of the former is necessary to a just interpretation of the latter." A book which appears under such auspices and with such a purpose should have particular value. It should contribute to our information upon the subject: failing this, it should at least be original in treatment and accurate in statement. Consequently, one is surprised to find that a third of the book is merely a translation, almost verbatim, from a treatise on the same subject published in Paris in 1846, and entitled "Des lois agraires chez les romains," by M. A.-P.-L. Macé—of whom, it should be said, not the slightest mention is made anywhere in the course of the work.

The indebtedness of Prof. Stephenson begins in his preface, and it extends through an aggregate of thirty pages, found in various sections of the book. The closeness with which he follows M. Macé may be seen from the following passages:

"The other peoples, admitted merely to the Jus Italicum, did not enjoy the civil or political rights of Roman citizens, nor any of the privileges of Latin allies: at best they kept some souvenirs of their departed independence in their interior administration, but otherwise were considered as subjects of Rome." (Stephenson, p. 53.)

"Mais les autres peuples, soumis seulement au Jus Italicum, n'avaient aucun des droits civils ou politiques des citoyens romains, aucun des privilèges des alliés latins; tout au plus, leur avait-on laissé quelques souvenirs de leur ancienne indépendance dans l'administration intérieure. Pour tout le reste, ils étaient considérés comme les sujets de Rome." (Macé, p. 263.)

Further, an interesting comparison may be made between an expression of M. Macé (p. 279), "le 7 des calendes de juillet," and Prof. Stephenson's translation of the same (p. 63), "the 7th of the calends of July." This seems to be a rather unusual rendering of the Latin "VII calendas sextiles," which is cited in a foot-note to substantiate his statement. It affords an excellent illustration of Prof. Stephenson's methods. Apparently his researches did not extend much beyond M. Macé's book so long as that was available; in his blind following of M. Macé he out-Livys one of Livy's worst faults.

With such passages in mind, the earnestness of Prof. Stephenson's attempt to "lessen the difficulties" of his subject, and also his ability to accomplish this task, may reasonably be questioned. His monograph, as it stands, is little more than juvenile in character. Plagiarism is but one of its faults—the most reprehensible fault. As a compilation, it does not have the merit of being smoothly and skilfully made. The book might have been valuable and useful, but the result of Prof. Stephenson's work is quite otherwise.

THORNTON JENKINS.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., May 29, 1896.

A HARD CASE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Last June I read in your columns an advertisement from Brown University, which announced that a prize of $200 would be given for the best essay written upon one of several stated subjects. It was further stated that the competing theses must be "placed in the hands of the President of Brown University on or before May 1st, 1896."

I have accordingly been investigating one of the given subjects during the past winter. The thesis which I wrote upon it I sent by express to Providence on the morning of Friday, May 1, and was assured that it would be delivered there on the same day.

On Monday, May 4, the thesis was returned to me with a note from President Andrews saying, "Your manuscript arrived only this morning, too late to be available in the competition, according to our advertisement." Inquiry at the express office showed that the package reached Providence at 3:50 P. M. on Friday, and was taken to the college that afternoon, but was not then delivered because the college office was closed. It was, however, delivered on the morning of Saturday, May 2, and a receipt obtained for it.

I sent this statement to President Andrews. He made no offer to accept the thesis, but sent me the following answer: "Upon inquiry I find that the expressman brought your manuscript to my college office between 6 and 7 P. M. on May 1st. Our business office hours close at 6."

A. L. CROCKER.

CAMBRIDGE, May 30, 1896.

Notes.

BURROWS BROTHERS CO., Cleveland, name August for the date of issue of the first volume of their proposed republication of the Jesuit Relations, as already announced by us. There will be but 750 sets printed, direct from the type, and subscriptions must include the entire series. The rate of publication will be one volume monthly. The Relations will be set partly from careful transcripts and partly from originals, and the original pagination, though not observed, will be noted throughout. French compositors will be employed upon the French text, and special punches have been cut for some peculiar phonetic type of the original. The translation will be as literal as possible, and will be the work of John Cutler Covert, assisted by Mary Sifton Pepper and others. Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, Secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, will have editorial direction. The volumes will number some sixty, at $3.50 each.

'Child Observations,' made on a very large scale by the students of the State Normal School at Worcester, Mass., and edited by Ellen M. Haskell, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co.

D Appleton & Co. will publish immediately 'Maggie,' by Stephen Crane, and in the autumn his 'Little Regiment.'

'The Way They Loved at Grimpat: Village Idyls,' by E. Rentoul Esler, is in the press of Henry Holt & Co.

A translation of Gabriele D'Annunzio's 'Episcopo and Company,' by Myrta Leonora Jones, will be published by Herbert S. Stone & Co., Chicago.

John Murphy & Co., Baltimore, have in preparation for the fall 'The Ambassador of Christ,' by Cardinal Gibbons.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts is about to issue a new edition of Mr. Robinson's 'Catalogue of Casts from Greek and Roman Sculpture,' thoroughly revised by the author. Many of the descriptions have been entirely rewritten, to embody the results of recent investigations, and thirty-six new numbers are included, as well as a second index, arranged according to the places in which the originals of the casts are at present exhibited. The book will be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

A new Danish translation of the 'Heimskringla' is announced. The translator is Dr. Winkel Horn, who is at present engaged on a translation of Saxo, and who is known to English readers through his History of Scandinavian Literature. The work will be accompanied by a number of illustrations by the Norwegian artist, Louis Moe.

Mr. H. W. Lucy's "diaries" of Parliament are now extended by his 'Diary of the Home Rule Parliament, 1892-1895' (Cassell). We find here the same humor, grateful condensation, compressed information, with swift limning of dramatic scenes and historic moments, that rendered famous the volumes which preceded this one. For its incidental records of bills and votes and sittings, the book is handy for reference. Mr. Lucy's personal affection for Lord Randolph Churchill inclines him to make that fallen meteor the hero of the volume—though he was most decidedly a *Hamlet* left out of the play in the Parliament covered.

In both the plan and the execution of Mr. W. T. Brewster's 'Studies in Structure and Style' (Macmillan) we find much to praise and nothing of any account to blame. The volume is intended to furnish supplementary work to the English studies of the freshman year—work in the analysis of English prose. Froude, Stevenson, John Morley, Arnold, Bryce, Ruskin, and Newman are the authors studied in extracts; and for the most part they are represented in their perspicacious rather than their brilliant moods. Mr. Brewster's studies are practical, and adapted to the needs of his audience. Logical structure a freshman can be brought to analyze, and with endless good to himself. Of style the more obvious excel-

lences, those particularly of fresh and definite diction, he can be led to see; but Mr. Brewster evidently knows the nature of the freshman, and refrains from trying to persuade him of refinements. Not the least merit of the book is the absence from the text of a swarm of reference-figures, those gnats of the student soul. But even this kind of book ought to be indexed.

For students there is much important matter in the 'Biological Lectures Delivered at the Marine Biological Laboratory of Wood's Holl in the Summer Session of 1893' (Boston: Ginn & Co.). It treats, in lines more or less special, but in some degree comparative, of evolution, influence of surroundings, fertilization of the ovum, the cell, development, morphology, and kindred subjects. The different authors of the various chapters, ten in all, rank high as authorities in their particular departments, and these writings fix the present status of science in regard to their specialties, thus furnishing points of departure for the determination of advances and rates of progress. The essays are monographical, and consequently are of especial importance to those studying the same or related subjects, while to biologists in general they are welcome as works of reference. Aside from their direct stimulus to thought, they indirectly incite to research through an evident lack of agreement in the conclusions accepted. A reader, after perusal, is likely to decide from this that there is something unsettled in the foundations of our scientific beliefs.

The 'Biological Lectures and Addresses' delivered by the late Arthur Milnes Marshall, M.A., M.D., and edited by C. F. Marshall, M.D. (London: David Nutt; New York: Macmillan), are mainly summaries from various special researches arranged for popular lectures. Each of the thirteen is complete in itself. All of them relate to biology; yet through such topics as the modern study of zoology, animal pedigrees, the cell theory, death, embryology as an aid to anatomy, the recapitulation theory, and the like, they include a considerable amount of variety. The author was an investigator, and, in preparing his material, has evidently made studies of his subjects, canvassing the fields thoroughly and verifying whenever necessary to a proper understanding. His essays, consequently, have the vitality and enthusiasm of records of original work, though they are comparatively free from the technicalities or the confusion of detail. Their subjects being those claiming most attention at the present, they form attractive reviews, and at the same time are well adapted for entertaining those who have given little thought to such things. Outlines of theories, methods, accomplishments, purposes, and needs in science fill the book with attractive reading-matter.

'Mlle. Huguette' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is one of those books written especially for young girls, and *blanc* enough to satisfy the longing of Sarcey's soul—a perfectly justifiable longing, by the way. It has also the advantage of having been written by Gabriel Franay, whose 'Mon Chevalier' was crowned by the French Academy. There, however, the advantages stop, for the book is somewhat too sentimental, somewhat too *blanc* and too young-girlish. The heroine is a very self-conscious young person who would fain be considered artless, guileless, and all the rest of it, but who is very full of her importance, her looks and a sham belief (which she does not really entertain for a moment) that she is old and doomed to be an old maid.

In 'Une Cour et un Aventurier au 18e siècle: le baron de Ripperda' (Paris: Leroux), M. Gabriel Syveton has given the fruit of much research and reading concerning this minister of Philip V. of Spain, who negotiated the double marriage of the Infanta of Spain and the Archduchess of Austria. Ripperda is proved to have been an active agent rather than a great patriot. The whole question, however, has always been beset with obscurity and difficulties, most of which have been cleared away by M. Syveton, who has ransacked archives and official files with such success as to unearth the "very secret" treaty negotiated by Ripperda.

M. René Doumic, who is steadily gaining ground as a critic, has brought out his sixth volume in this line of work. It is called 'Études sur la littérature française' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), is announced as the first of a series, and is composed of articles contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. These articles are reviews of books serving as a theme for the development of M. Doumic's ideas. The more noteworthy papers are those on "L'Opéra et la Tragédie," in which another cause of the decadence of the latter form is stated and discussed, and "Diderot," an author whose claims to fame and influence are heavily discounted by the critic.

It may be worth while, although a little late, to mention that a very interesting correspondence between Auguste Comte and Gustave d'Eichthal, carried on during a long visit which the latter made to Germany in the years 1824-1825, has been printed in the *Revue Occidentale*. These letters between the great Positivist teacher and a young disciple only twenty years of age, and full of an ardent enthusiasm (which rises even to the point of passion) for Comte's general ideas and for sociology, form a valuable contribution to the biography of Auguste Comte and to the history of Positivism. The date of the number of the review—the conventional date—is March 1 of the present year. Perhaps it will not seem so very long ago if the real date is given, which is 5. *Aristote*, 108.

In the just issued report of the State Geologist for New Jersey for 1895, popular interest pertains to the sections on the development of artesian wells in the southern part of the State, and on forest areas and forest fires. Mr. C. C. Vermeule's report of progress on forestry in northern New Jersey confirms the well established fact of an equilibrium between cutting and repair in that section, and uses this fact (observable for a long period) to impugn the common belief that deforesting has caused the drying-up of once navigable, or more navigable, streams. Mr. Vermeule shows that temperature (through its effect on evaporation) is a much more important factor, and that since 1870 we have been in a generally droughty period. Even the great floods of recent years have had their match at earlier periods. All we can say is, that "heavier-forested catchments furnish a steadier flow, better sustained during dry periods," and suffer rather less from severe floods. Mr. Vermeule's studies have shown him that there is less disposition to destroy and waste the forests on the part of our native rural population than of "the immigrant population from countries where the control and management of forests is, on the whole, far superior to our own methods." This was naturally to be expected in the removal from such control to perfect license.

An encouraging account of the growth of the Providence Public Library, in both size and usefulness, is given in the annual report for 1895, the eighteenth, of the efficient librarian, Mr. W. E. Foster. In an appendix is an interesting table showing the use of fiction in thirty-nine libraries, from which it appears that in eleven the percentage is over 80 per cent., in seventeen it is over 70 per cent., in eight over 60 per cent., and in three it is over 50 per cent. Several large libraries, including Boston and Worcester, do not give the amount of fiction read. The highest percentage is 89.42, the lowest 50.5, which is reported by the library of Los Angeles, with a circulation of 329,405 volumes. Next in rank are Quincy and Newton, Mass., then follow Providence, with 62 per cent., and Chicago, which, with a circulation of more than a million volumes, reports a fiction percentage of only 62.51 per cent. The library is about to be adequately housed in a new building, which will cost, when completed, $200,000.

We have received the first number, for May, of a new monthly called *Public Libraries*, issued by the Library Bureau at Chicago. It has been projected in the interest of the smaller libraries, with a view to meeting their need for detailed information as to practical working. A first section of the tentative A. L. A. Library Primer, compiled by J. C. Dana, is the main feature of this number. News of libraries, librarians, and associations is also much in evidence. There is a column of queries and answers.

Among the various measures for increasing the number of independent occupations for women, the opening of horticultural schools for girls is obviously one of the most sensible and promising. Many of our agricultural colleges admit girls to their classes, but without very seriously attempting to turn out theoretically and practically trained gardeners. In Germany the first Gartenbauschule für Frauen was opened by Fräulein Dr. Castner at Friedenau, near Berlin, on October 1, 1894. The first class of seven members will be graduated from that institution next fall, when one of the graduates will enter as teacher a similar school recently established at Riga, in Livonia. On the 1st of October next the second institution of the kind in Germany will be opened on the estate of the Baroness von Barth-Harmating near Plauen, in Saxony. The courses of study, extending over two or three years, include not only the most varied branches of gardening and horticulture, but also such scientific and commercial instruction as is needed for the successful pursuit of the business. Two students of the first-mentioned school have already established themselves on rented land and proved the profitableness of the occupation. It is also said that there is a demand for thoroughly trained female horticulturists as superintendents of the gardens on large estates. The fact that these new institutions are intended for "gebildete Frauen und Mädchen" is emphasized. In January last a society for the promotion of the support of women by means of fruit-culture and gardening was formed, of which Frl. Anna Blum of Spandau is secretary.

The Vacation School of Modern French founded at Geneva in 1892 has just published its programme for the present season. It is in two courses, from July 15 to August 30, and from October 1 to 21. Every Saturday there will be excursions to the environs, or visits in groups to the National Swiss Exposition now open, closing October 15. The official bureau of information of the *Cours de Vacances* is at 5 Quai du Mont-Blanc.

It has been finally decided that English shall be included among the official languages at the international medical congress to be held at Moscow next year. At first the choice was limited to French, German, and Russian.

In connection with the semi-centennial celebration of Cambridge, Mass., it is proposed to purchase a portion of Elmwood, the birthplace and life long home of James Russell Lowell, and make of it a Lowell Memorial Park. The tract involved has been secured till July 1 at a price of $35.000, and a committee headed by Mrs. Louis Agassiz, and including Miss Alice Longfellow, is soliciting subscriptions in sums large and small. These may be sent to the Treasurer, Mr. William A. Bullard, First National Bank, Cambridge.

—Mr. Albert Shaw's study of the city government of St. Louis is especially opportune in the June *Century*. He had already shown in his two volumes how far British and Continental cities have advanced beyond us in the solution of the problem how to make life in a city decent and attractive. He now shows how far St. Louis has gone ahead of other American cities in the achievement of home rule, in the employment of experts in certain city offices, and in a phenomenal freedom from charges of official corruption. Particularly is St. Louis to be congratulated on having, partially at least, thrown off the shackles of ward representation. While the twenty eight delegates to the lower branch of the Municipal Assembly are still elected from wards, the thirteeen members of the upper branch, or Council, are elected from the city at large. Nothing in Mr. Shaw's article is more striking than his comment on the personal difference between the members of these two branches. Delegates elected from wards exhibit in general the familiar characteristics of their class, but gentlemen of repute and character serve in the branch elected at large, which has contained, under the present charter, "groups of men who would have done credit to any legislative body in the land." St. Louis has lately become an example to other cities in its system of garbage treatment, and avoids at the same time any offensive claim to moral superiority on this score by using a simple invention which "has now made possible, on purely commercial grounds, an advanced step in American municipal housekeeping that neither public spirit, the sanitary motive, nor yet the demands of a fastidious civilization, had sufficed to effect." There are, however, some features of the corporate life of St. Louis which prove that its citizens have not yet altogether emerged from the national stupidity and supineness in the treatment of civic affairs. They still, for instance, accept a clean sweep in offices with each change of administration as part of the providential order of human affairs, and they will make to strangers this summer such an exhibition of poles and overhead wires in their streets as no other great city in the world can show. For the rest of this number of the *Century*, we shall content ourselves with remarking the continuation of Mr. Bryce's "Impressions of South Africa."

—Readers of *Harper's* will find that the artist whom Dr. Charles Waldstein designates as "The Greatest Painter of Modern Germany" is Adolf Friedrich Menzel. Dr. Waldstein's distinction in classical fields creates a predisposition in favor of his paper, which nevertheless makes an impression of inadequacy in this modern branch of criticism. In "A Visit to Athens" Bishop Doane lends to a very trite composition the weight of a widely known name. The most successful literary effort in the number is called out by the venerable pastime of fishing. "The Ouananiche and its Canadian Environment," by E. T. D. Chambers, is a capital paper in its line, combining with a sportsman's knowledge a skill in expression which is worthy of classical tradition. The illustrations to this article are correspondingly attractive. In *Scribner's* the redeeming feature is Henry Norman's "In the Balkans." The fascination of the Balkan Peninsula, not the "Titanic tangle" of its politics, is Mr. Norman's theme. He therefore touches lightly on the Eastern Question as such, stopping merely to give an outline of the diplomatic problems which are "the nightmare of emperors and the despair of statesmen." The reader, nevertheless, after following him from Sofia to Belgrad and from Bosnia to Rumania, will be likely to find that the numerous races and states which are crowded into the "chess board of Europe" present a much less confused aspect to the mind, and that a more vivid impression of foreign parts is seldom received from an article. The Bay of Cattaro, Cettinje, and Prince Nicolas are subjects which naturally animate the pen. Some verses of Stevenson's are included in Isabel Strong's conclusion to "Vailima Table-Talk," but there is a falling off in quality between this and the first part. In the *Atlantic*, Gen. Francis A. Walker's plea for the "Restriction of Immigration" may be singled out as most likely to provoke thought and comment; but Dr George Birkbeck Hill continues to edit the letters of Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and Lord Howe's commission to pacify the Colonies has fresh documentary light thrown on it by Paul Leicester Ford.

—The forty-fourth annual report of the Boston Public Library records the opening of the new building during the past year, the development of the plans and policy of the new librarian, Mr. Herbert Putnam, and a revolution in the personnel and evidently in the ideas of the board of trustees. Steps are being taken to make the work of the nine branches and thirteen delivery stations more effective. The latter are now given something of the character of branches by having on deposit in each a small supply of books, frequently changed, from which applicants may select something if their call-slips sent to the library fail to secure what they want: by telephonic communication with the main library it is proposed still further to increase their efficiency. The West End branch has lately taken possession of its new home, the old West Church, which has been remodelled sufficiently for the purpose while retaining most of its interesting features. This is the church in which James Russell Lowell, as a boy, listened to the excellent sermons of his father, Rev. Charles Lowell, and which was later perhaps equally famous as Dr. Bartol's church. What more fitting use for "abandoned" churches than this? It was to the founders and supporters of a free library that Lowell himself applied the Scripture, The teachers shall shine as the firmament, and they that turn many to righteousness as the stars forever and ever. The main building, while it provides seats for nearly four times as many readers as the old building, and seven times the floor-space in public rooms, has already been quite fully occupied by the public. Contrary to the expectations of the trustees, the remoteness of Copley Square from "down town" seems to make no difference to the frequenters of the library, while the greatly increased facilities attract multitudes who shunned the crowd and the discomforts of the old building. The most significant improvement in the present arrangement is the placing on practically open shelves nearly 200,000 volumes, which may be consulted with almost no formalities, and which, we remark in passing, are particularly sought after for genealogical research. It is in this direction that the best "library science" is tending. It is no matter for surprise that the annual expenses of the library are increased to the extent of $30.000 by the new building, so that some $225.000 must now be appropriated yearly by the city. This sum, capitalized at four per cent, represents an investment of five and a half millions, which must be added to the six millions which the present plant is said to be worth, to show how distinctly Boston is still in the lead as to its provision for its free library.

—The second edition of Mr. George Haven Putnam's 'The Question of Copyright' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) brings this compilation up to date. It comprises the text of our copyright act, a summary of the copyright laws at present in force in the chief countries of the world, together with a report of the legislation now pending in Great Britain, a sketch of the contest in the United States (1837-91), and papers on the development of the conception of literary property, and on the results of the American act of 1891. Mr. Putnam (who advocated the act of 1891, though himself in favor of the most liberal system of copyright) thinks the statute has worked better, on the whole, than there was reason to anticipate; that the most serious and legitimate criticisms of the law have come from the authors of France, Germany, and Italy, who cannot secure American copyright for books requiring translation; but that these might be met by an amendment requiring registration in regular course, while permitting publication of an English version later. Unless something of this sort is done, he fears the abrogation by one or more of these countries of the existing conventions with us. He favors the extension of the term of copyright, and hopes that in time the manufacturing clause may be done away with. So will most of his readers. The present copyright law fixes a period far too short to secure literary property as other property is secured—the extreme term is forty two years—and most copyrights expire at the very time that the author would naturally desire to make them most safe, *i. e.*, when his children begin to reap the harvest from the seed which he has sown. As to the manufacturing clause, it represents simply the triumph of brute protection over the principles recognized throughout the civilized world in dealing with all questions of property. Wherever property is recognized by municipal law, the right to transport it from country to country and enjoy its fruits is also recognized. Our law is one of the first in the history of the world to make the enjoyment of property *dependent* upon the place of manufacture. It is a novel application of the principle of protection, and there is no reason why, if there were anything in it, it should not be applied to all property; would it not greatly stimulate American manufactures if every coat, hat, cloak, cooking-utensil, and steel rail in the country made of imported material could be *owned* only on proof that it had been made in the country? The authors took this monstrous provision on the principle that half a loaf is better than no bread, but the fact remains that our country, after having been for a century the great exponent of Piracy, has substituted for piracy a copyright system still so barbarous that the promoters of the law which introduced it, are mainly occupied with measures to palliate the evil effects of the conditions thrust down their throats by the

labor unions and others, who were the real fathers of the manufacturing clause.

—We are reminded of the English tourists in Boston and its historic vicinity, who said they never should forgive themselves for not having visited America before all the interesting people had died, by the latest 'Journal' of M. Edmond de Goncourt. Nearly all the great names which illustrated the pages of the earlier volumes have disappeared. Alphonse Daudet seems to be almost the only one who is left. The journalist himself, if not exactly on evil days fallen, has at least fallen on less interesting days than were his former ones, and himself begins to feel that the afternoon of life is somewhat wearisome. He records scandals of much the same sort as before, but lesser ones; he has reflections such as he has given us before, and gossips only less entertainingly than he did. But the gossip is rather the worse for being so fresh. It is like hearing the next morning's talk after a ball. One touch of characteristic ingenuousness may be quoted. Under the date of September 4, 1892, M. de Goncourt writes: "Lorrain vient déjeuner ce matin à la maison, et, *confiant en moi*, il se répand sur sa jeunesse." Then, with a most complete unconsciousness of committing any impropriety, he himself confides the whole story of M. Lorrain's youth to the gentle reader. M. Lorrain's adventures were nothing very extraordinary, yet still it may be doubted whether he has been exactly pleased at seeing them in print. The 'Journal' is appearing as a feuilleton in the *Écho de Paris*, where its publication began in April.

—The Association Française pour l'Avancement des Sciences went out of its way a little this year to hold its annual meeting at Tunis, and this fact had some influence upon the character of the papers read. M. Marcel Dubois, Professor of Colonial Geography at the Sorbonne, delivered a most interesting discourse, comparing the different systems of colonization, ancient and modern. He complained of the injustice which often results from such comparisons, in exalting the merits of the ancients, insisting strongly on the advantage which the Romans had in being able to send out to Africa colonists who were already almost as good as acclimated. The Roman colonists, too, were accustomed to the practice of irrigation of the soil, and to the sort of agriculture which is most profitable in Africa. He maintained that, on the whole, France had quite as great an interest in North Africa as Rome had, and that, just deductions being made, France had been no less successful in her work there. Commandant Rebillet then gave some interesting details on the desert tribes, and on the first results of the extension of trade towards the south, incidentally conveying much new information about the Sahara. M. de Coudray La Blanchère spoke of the rural settlements of the Romans in North Africa. Of more general interest, perhaps, was a communication of Prof. Montelius of Stockholm on the distribution of dolmens. This type of tomb, he said, is of Oriental origin, but it has been transplanted even so far as to Scandinavia. The Scandinavian dolmens date from an epoch much earlier than the twentieth century B. C., and we have in these monuments indications of an influence which the East exercised upon Europe at a very early date. If the Scandinavian dolmens were so early, the Oriental dolmens must be at least one or two thousand years earlier still. This is confirmed by the fact that the chambers in the Egyptian pyramids are constructed exactly like dolmens, with the single difference that the stones of which they are built are cut and polished. It is not to one people alone that dolmens belong. An Aryan people was living in Scandinavia, while the dolmens of Syria could not have been built by Aryans. It was, then, a question of influence rather than of migration. Prof. Montelius spoke also of other traces of Oriental influence on the north of Europe in the times which immediately succeeded the dolmen epoch. Throughout this period, communications between the east and the north of Europe followed along the coast of Africa to the Spanish peninsula. It was evidently easier to go along the coast than to cross the sea. Only at a much more recent time did the influence of eastern civilization take another route, traversing first the Mediterranean and then the European continent.

RECENT POETRY.

It is only fair to say of the much-derided Poet Laureate of England that there is, in the preface to his new historical drama, 'England's Darling' (Macmillan), a tone of humility which certainly was not visible when he began his special duties by furnishing the music halls with a song of triumph about the marauder Jameson. He says frankly of his new work, "Would it were worthier!" and goes on to quote manfully from King Alfred's own (reported) words, "Do not blame me; for every man must say what he says, and do what he does, according to his ability." Indeed, the whole preface confirms the suggestion which we made on the appearance of his charming book, 'A Poet's Garden,' to the effect that the new laureate had best write his poetry in prose. We are compelled to see the merely official quality appearing, however, in his bold remark (p. xii): "Englishmen have never conceded unqualified admiration save to those who combined with intellectual distinction the crowning grace of moral worth," and expressed opinion that the national sentiment would never have sustained a Henri Quatre or Louis Quatorze. It is hard to see how such an assertion could be made by any one who had perused Thackeray's 'Four Georges,' for instance; nor would it be hard to gather some later illustrations from *Punch*. But some license must be allowed to a laureate—else why do laureates exist?—and his drama has at least a good subject, and may be praised on the basis recognized by that good woman who admired her pastor because he had such beautiful texts. The play is, indeed, best compared with others whose scene is laid at a period somewhat similar—as, for instance, with Sir Henry Taylor's "Edwin the Fair," to which it is certainly far inferior in interest or action, and strikingly so in the beauty and effectiveness of its lyric passages. The tribute to Lord Tennyson which follows, under the name "The Passing of Merlin," would doubtless be regarded as simple and pleasing, were there not a general disposition to make light of whatever this new functionary does.

The volume of 'New Poems,' by Christina G. Rossetti (Macmillan), will at first suggest the disappointment almost always inspired by posthumous poetry. As a rule, the poet is not seen at his best in what he has kept in reserve; the very fact that it was not brought forward often shows that it did not satisfy its author. But in this case any want of poetic satisfaction is more than balanced by the biographic interest; and in the notes, especially, we see revealed the home-life of a highly gifted family, whose mixed nationality makes their intellectual work more interesting, while their wide divergence in thought makes their frank mutual criticism delightful. They do not hesitate in the least to blame or praise each other's work, and to quote the mutual compliments or condemnations; and this relation is peculiarly noble and sweet between the shy, devout, nun-like sister—for the other sister, Maria, is met but little—and the ardent and free-thinking brothers. Christina and her mother were like lovers, and interchanged valentines; her childhood was cradled in poetry, and this volume contains some seventy pages of her verse written before the age of seventeen. Her Italian poems, which appear here for the first time, are more graceful and lyrical than any of those in English, and there are, among the many *bouts-rimés* sonnets — those, namely, of which the rhymes are given and the text afterwards filled in—three sonnets with the self-same rhymes, showing how deftly she could give that number of varying solutions of a single problem (pp. 20, 21, 22). One of the Italian poems is a curiously felicitous rendering into that language of the oft quoted Latin poem of the Emperor Hadrian, "Animula vagula blandula" (p. 288):

ADRIANO.

Animuccia, vagantuccia, morbiduccia,
Oste del corpo e suora,
Ove or farai dimora?
Palliduccia, irrigidita, svestituccia,
Non più scherzante or ora.

She also wrote an English version of this, both these being intended for a privately printed volume of these translations edited by Mr. David Johnston of Bath—to which compilation her brothers also contributed. Her English translation is the following (p. 171):

Soul rudderless, unbraced,
The body's friend and guest,
Whither away to-day?
Unsupple, pale discased,
Dumb to thy wonted jest.

The curious incapacity of the brother to adapt himself to the highly wrought religious mood of the sister is seen in his comment on her verses called "The End of the First Part" (p 36), where he thinks it necessary to explain the line

"Must change my laughter to sad tears of guilt,"

by explaining that "this would be, for Christina, a very exaggerated phrase," and that it may possibly refer only to original sin. He apparently has never learned by experience that it is usually the most stainless souls which scourge themselves most bitterly with remorse.

One of the shorter English poems has a curious flavor of that other recluse woman of genius, Emily Dickinson (p. 183):

THE WAY OF THE WORLD.

A boat that sails upon the sea,
Sails far and far and far away:
Who sail in her sing songs of glee
Or watch and pray.

A boat that drifts upon the sea,
Silent and void to sun and air;
Who sailed in her have ended glee
And watch and prayer.

Mr. M. M. Cawein's 'Undertones' (Copeland & Day) continue to show that improvement which has been seen in his later (and too numerous) volumes. He has mainly shed the extreme imitativeness of which we have formerly complained, and has also repressed much of his turgidness; although there is still some of this to be got rid of. On the other hand, there is a growing tone of cynicism and of that baleful tendency in which his friend Mr. Howells has preceded him, to regard human love as good for early youth only. He evidently

thinks of it only as Miss Berry's Frenchman thought of a beauty past her prime, "Elle n'a qu'un quart d'heure pour l'être." Neither his technique nor his taste is quite to be trusted; thus, he rhymes *storm* with *harm*, and—which is strange for a Southerner—*moon* with *tune* (p. 10); and to describe the sunlight as "loafing" (p. 1) is certainly not to be commended. On the other hand, he has readiness and affluence of imagination, and his love of local coloring is staunch and American, so that such a poem as this shows him at his best (p. 4):

THE WOOD.

Witch-hazel, dogwood, and the maple here;
And there the oak and hickory;
Linn, poplar, and the beech-tree, far and near
As the eased eye can see.

Wild ginger; wahoo, with its wan balloons;
And brakes of briers of a twilight green;
And fox-grapes plumed with sun mer; and strung moons
Of mandrake flowers between.

Deep gold-green ferns, and mosses red and gray—
Mats for what naked myth's white feet?—
And, cool and calm, a cascade far away
With even-falling beat.

Old logs, made sweet with death; rough bits of bark;
And tangled twig and knotted root;
And sunshine splashes and great pools of dark;
And many a wild-bird's flute.

Here let me sit until the Indian, Dusk,
With copper-colored feet, comes down;
Sowing the wildwood with starfire and musk,
And shadows blue and brown.

Mr. Smyth, in his recent Life of Bayard Taylor, concedes that his verse, except perhaps in the "Bedouin Song" and the "Song of the Camp," had no spontaneity, but was all "carefully built up by the intellect," but tells us on the opposite page—what we had not previously known—that there is still a Taylor cult, at least in New York and Pennsylvania, and names as its chief representative Mr. Clinton Scollard. Now for the first time we recognize the key to Mr. Scollard's limitations, that he has assiduously set before himself an inadequate model. With assiduous effort and the careful collection of materials, he still remains ordinarily, as did Taylor, within the zone of mediocrity, and this applies even to his 'Hills of Song' (Copeland & Day). Few of our younger poets write with so much readiness and fertility as Mr. Scollard; he is cultivated, observant, conscientious, and always keeps to a certain desirable standard of good taste; he has also a wide range of material; and yet he never quite stirs the blood or makes himself essential. What we mean may be best seen by a little comparison. There is no better test of a poet than the way he deals with the ocean, the one thing unchanged and untamable, still as ever elusive, exhaustless, irresistible. This is Mr. Scollard's way of approaching it (p. 21):

THE MARINER'S GRAVE.

Beneath the grim old beacon tower
They made his last straight bed,
The gray and grizzled slope below,
And ocean wide outspread.

There might he see the ships slip in
And out across the bar,
And down the night the warning light
Fling its recurrent star.

There might he hear the harping wind
Retune its ancient strain,
And that sublime musician, sea,
Intone its joy and pain.

There might his sleep be long and deep,
From time and tide withdrawn;
Above, the sea gull's silvery wing
Until the last red dawn.

Now, we will not be so severe as to propose a comparison with a wild Berserker chant like Kipling's "The Dipsy Chanty," but there are two brief poems, briefer than Mr. Scollard's, and both meditative like his, each of which has in it a touch of thoroughly imaginative grasp, as real as the sea itself. Having quoted them in previous notices, we will not give them again; they are Prof. Roberts's "On a sailor buried ashore" and Mr. Carman's "Child Marjorie." There would be no better way of illustrating Mr. Scollard's limitations than to print either of these short studies side by side with his. In saying this, we would again bear witness to his uniformly high workmanship as respects literary execution.

Mr. James B. Kenyon is another of the poets who are cultivated and pleasing, although but mildly inspired. The name of his new volume, 'An Oaten Pipe' (Tait), is rather farfetched, nor is the selection of contents so exclusively pastoral as to make the title convincingly appropriate. Perhaps the strongest of the poems is this sonnet on Sappho, who left fewer verses and suggested more, it would seem, than any recorded poet (p. 119):

SAPPHO.

Where is that bay-crowned head supreme in song?
The tides that darkle round the Leucadian steep
Lap her forever into deeper sleep;
About her heart of fire the cool waves long
Like cerements have been wound, and voices strong
Of winds and waters o'er her pillow keep
Their boisterous lullaby. That frenzied leap
From the hoar height, when sense of sharpest wrong
Ran in her blood like flame—the fears that strove
Within her stormy soul—the lyric tongue
Whose last high music ran through realms of love,
Till hushed by that sea-wind which o'er her flung
Its sudden doom—ah, all the dole thereof
No equal tears have wept, no lips have sung.

We are also led to Sappho in 'Songs from the Greek,' translated by Jane Sedgwick Minot (New York: Richmond), a delightful volume, taking rank with Mrs. Perry's similar book noticed some time since by us, and making with it two most acceptable contributions by American women to the rendering of minor Greek poetry. This volume includes some choruses from the dramatists and an idyl of Theocritus, but it is taken mostly from Sappho and the Anthology. The author shows care, at least in the selection of authorities, as, for instance, in the following (p. 42):

TWO FRAGMENTS BY SAPPHO.

The stars that stand about the moon
Their shining faces veil as soon
As at her full, in splendor bright,
She floods the earth with silver light.

And through green boughs of apple-trees
Cool comes the rustling of the breeze,
While from the quivering leaves down flows
A stream of sleep and soft repose.

The Greek word corresponding to "breeze" is wanting in the original text, which is imperfect. It appears from Wharton's variorum edition that previous translators, as Merivale, Symonds, and Palgrave, have used the words "water" or "stream," whereas Miss Minot, following Wharton, substitutes "breeze," which certainly seems more appropriate, although we know from Theocritus that the combination of orchards and streams was not uncommon. We cannot, however, commend the present translator for inserting "green" to characterize the boughs, for it is an addition of her own, although Frederick Tennyson takes the same liberty. In the other pretty fragments (p. 43) about the apple and the hyacinth, Miss Minot calls the apple on the bough "reddening," whereas Sappho only calls it "sweet" (γλυκύμαλον), and in the other half of the fragment she simply describes the fallen hyacinth as purple, whereas the original word (ἐπιπορφύρει) rather describes it as growing more purple or "impurpling" on the ground as it dies. Here again she has Rossetti and Sir Edwin Arnold with her, but Wharton against her. All this is holding her to that standard of strict literalness which has been demanded (since Longfellow's example) of a translator, and to which few of her predecessors have been confined; and we renew our tribute to the excellent quality of her work.

'The Pilgrim, and Other Poems' (Macmillan), by "Sophie Jewett" (Ellen Burroughs), takes its name from the title-poem, but it might also have taken it from the fact that the best verses in the book have European themes. The most striking is this, on a subject which has doubtless suggested thoughts akin to poetry in many minds—the weird figures in stone which overlook the stir and tumult of Paris from their cathedral heights (p. 64):

A SMILING DEMON OF NOTRE DAME.

Quiet as are the quiet skies,
He watches where the city lies
Floating in vision clear or dim
Through sun or rain beneath his eyes;
Her songs, her laughter, and her cries
Hour after hour drift up to him.

Her days of glory or disgrace
He watches with unchanging face;
He knows what midnight crimes were done,
What horrors under summer sun;
And souls that pass in holy death
Sweep by him on the morning's breath.

Alike to holiness and sin
He feels nor alien nor akin;
Five hundred creeping mortal years
He smiles on human joy and tears,
Man made, immortal, scorning man;
Serene, grotesque, Olympian.

Mr. Charles Leonard Moore, in his 'Odes' (Holt), exhibits his wonted thoughtfulness and grasp, but the very title of his volume shows that he risks himself too much upon ambitious themes and treatment. Even Lowell, in attempting the ode, had but one great and triumphant success; and the irregular and dithyrambic strain has really a more fatal facility than the ballad measure, and admits of as hopeless commonplace. Mr. Moore's best success is in his "Elegy" on Poe, which has really more of fine discrimination than any other of the numerous poetic tributes to that author, so far as we can recall them. This, for instance, comes after a delineation of "the tragic singer of the Shades," and touches with firm hand the key to his forlorn fate (p. 40):

"Viewless he went amid life's garish ills;
He could not wait till twilight owned his race,
Dusk, his new dynasties;
Wan, vacant presence and neglected guest,
Earth placed no throne for him whereon to rest.
Poppy, therefore, and every poisonous growth
Took he, that could transport his soul away
From his wide prison—for his eyes were loth
And weary of the day.
And every steed he chartered, that did go
A little on the journey from the earth,
And joined each distance-seeking caravan;
Where'er the waves did roll, or the winds blow
O'er this world's abrupt and precipitous girth,
Swiftly his spirit ran.
Drunk with imaginations, drunk with wine,
Drowsy with dreams or waking with desires,
He sat at Pleasure's feet and would not rise,
Enamored of oblivion in vain—
Pleasure, no more smooth-lipped, no more divine,
But burning with unfathomable fires,
With melancholy in her mighty eyes,
With proud lips curbing pain.
Long there he sat, while in a cup she gave
Most bitter drink for thirst, and the salt wave."

For some reason, hitherto unexplained, Trinity College has been more successful than other American institutions in producing good college poetry; and while none of it takes us quite back to the classic period of Praed and the "Etonian," yet the new volume of 'Trinity Verse,' edited by De Forest Hicks and Henry Rutgers Remsen (Hartford, Conn.), affords some excellent fooling and some very graceful verse. Under the former head may be classed "The Greco-Trojan Game" of football, in Homeric verse, by C. F. Johnson, and a parody of Rudyard Kipling, "The Marryin' of Danny Deever." This last is meritorious, as is this "L'Envoy":

Where the cliffs of Brittany
Silent watch the sounding deep,
Sunk in an enchanted sleep,
Lies a city 'neath the sea.

Thence, I have heard peasants telling,
When the moon is hanging low,
And the ocean scarce seems swelling,
In its silent ebb and flow,
Softly, sadly comes a stealing
Over all the country side,
Sound of fairy bells a-pealing
In the sainted even-tide,
And the soul which learns that music
Lives forever satisfied.

So from life's untroubled ocean,
In our golden even-time,
We shall hear with glad emotion
Echoes ringing—chime on chime;
And our hearts, those sunken cities,
Stored with thoughts of former days,
Soft shall sing us olden ditties
Of our college life and ways;
And the soul which learns that music
Never longs for newer lays.

In the little volume of thirty pages called simply 'Verses,' by May Wright Plummer (Cleveland, O.: Lemperly), there is more of the poetry of earnest thought than in many larger books. The following bit of blank verse —Cicero's supposed soliloquy on the death of Cæsar—is perhaps the strongest, and has indeed some lines of remarkable strength (p. 31):

Ay, look, and look again, at him who bore
The world and flinched not, but an hour ago.
In his colossal shadow yours was lost:
"Down with him, down, that we may see ourselves!"
He lies there; are ye greater than before?
Beyond the door the world he carried waits
To fall upon your staggering feebleness
And loosen into chaos once again.
Flee ye, indeed! From that still figure prone
Stretches a shadow that may well affray.
Living, it alternated with the sun;
Dead, it creeps onward, licking up the light.
So have ye chilled the pulses of the world
Into stagnation. Flee, and be content!

We have before now called attention to the remarkable vigor and freshness with which the younger Canadian poets write of nature, and the manner in which they show also a feeling for the human side; their landscape almost always skilfully including something of that kindlier tie. Perhaps this is a more instinctive tendency in a colder clime, where the indoor aspect of things can never be long ignored, as compared with the larger share of dreamy outdoor indolence practicable, for instance, to Lanier. At any rate, the fact is there. Note how quickly it makes itself felt in the close of these charming verses of the spring-time, from Archibald Lampman's 'Lyrics of Earth' (Boston: Copeland & Day):

JUNE.

Long, long ago, it seems, this summer morn
That pale-browed April passed with pensive tread
Through the frore woods, and from its frost-bound bed
Woke the arbutus with her silver horn;
And now May, too, is fled,
The flower-crowned month, the merry laughing May,
With rosy feet and fingers dewy wet,
Leaving the woods and all cool gardens gay
With tulips and the scented violet.

Gone are the wind-flower and the adder-tongue
And the sad drooping bellwort, and no more
The snowy trilliums crowd the forest's floor;
The purpling grasses are no longer young,
And summer's wide-set door
O'er the thronged hills and the broad panting earth
Lets in the torrent of the later bloom,
Haytime, and harvest, and the after mirth,
The slow, soft rain, the rushing thunder-plume.

Note how noiselessly the human aspects "hay-time and harvest" steal in at the end to take us from the realm of wild nature into that half-tamed world which Thoreau, in spite of all misrepresentations of him, maintained to be the best theme for literature. In this case the quiet phrase serves the same purpose as when Sir Philip Sidney flings out the glowing description of his Arcadia, and puts into it, as the centre of the whole display of delight, "there a shepherd-boy piping, as though he should never be old."

'Little Rhymes for Little People,' by Anna M. Pratt (Cleveland: Lemperly), is more successful than books of deliberate nonsense and child-talk are wont to be, and one of the poems is so odd and unexpected in its outcome as to have already won a great newspaper and school success, thus (p. 31):

A MORTIFYING MISTAKE.

I studied my tables over and over, and backward and forward too;
But I couldn't remember six times nine, and I didn't know what to do,
Till sister told me to play with my doll and not to bother my head.
"If you call her 'Fifty-four' for a while, you'll learn it by heart," she said.

So I took my favorite, Mary Ann (though I thought 'twas a dreadful shame
To give such a perfectly lovely child such a perfectly horrid name),
And I called her my dear little "Fifty-four" a hundred times, till I knew
The answer of six times nine as well as the answer of two times two.

Next day Elizabeth Wigglesworth, who always acts so proud,
Said "Six times nine is fifty-two," and I nearly laughed aloud!
But I wished I hadn't when teacher said, "Now, Dorothy, tell, if you can,"
For I thought of my doll, and—sakes alive!—I answered, "Mary Ann!"

There is a tradition that Dr. S. Weir Mitchell carried in his youth a book of MS. poems to be inspected by the late Dr. O. W. Holmes, and was advised by that gentleman—speaking from his own experience—to acquire his medical reputation first and then print what he wished. He has certainly fulfilled both precepts, as his 'Collected Poems' (Century Co.) includes the substance of no less than seven volumes in verse, besides a preliminary advertisement of six novels and two books of essays. So vast a range of activity, for one still otherwise engaged in an absorbing profession, might awaken suspicion of slovenly work, and yet the dramatic studies of Dr. Mitchell are never slovenly—we cannot say quite as much for some of his shorter pieces—and we have before now, in noticing the separate volumes, conceded to him a distinct, though not absolutely controlling and dominating, power as a dramatist.

'Nymphs, Nixies, and Naiads: Legends of the Rhine,' by M. A. B. Evans, with illustrations by Wm. A. McCullough (Putnams), is a little book on the plan of those *Rheinsagen* which are sold along the famous river, with versified legends from the different localities—the traditions of the Lorelei, Bishop Hatto, and the rest. It is pleasantly done, but not brilliantly, and good translations of the German ballads would on the whole be better. 'America Liberata,' by Robert H. Vickers (Chicago: Kerr), is a little book without much interest as poetry, but possessing a good deal as an epic describing the South American revolutions, of which events we need to refresh our knowledge, especially when so much attention is now attracted to the affairs of our Southern neighbors. 'The River Bend, and Other Poems,' by Tacitus Hussey (Des Moines, Iowa: Carter & Hussey), is a sort of home product with home-made illustrations. The book has, without signal merit, a genuine quality which is not unattractive, except that the shadow of Riley hangs over it, as over so much Western American poetry, and makes it seem imitative and even a little second-hand. There is at the end of the book a prose sketch called "A River Idyl" which strikes us as being more simple and enjoyable, on the whole, than any of the verses.

'Armenian Poems Rendered into English Verse,' by Alice Stone Blackwell (Boston: Roberts), is an ingenious transfusion, through two hands, of the original poetry, which is translated into prose by one person and moulded into verse by another. The poems survive this double process as well as might be expected—that is to say, not very well; but there is much of the essence of vigorous national poetry in them, even at the end, and the book will serve to renew the general sympathy with that wronged race—a sympathy which shows as yet no signs of waning. But as compared with the Rumanian ballads published in 'The Bard of the Dembovitza,' for instance, they seem neither powerful nor picturesque. The best aspect of 'Sunshine and Shadow,' by Caroline Edwards Prentiss (Putnams), is in its choice of subjects. These are full of local coloring. "Summer's Calendar," for instance, comprises poems on the ox-eyed daisy, the pond-lily, and the golden-rod; and elsewhere there are verses on violet, anemone, bluet (or Houstonia), buttercup, morning-glory, arbutus, wild-rose, Indian pipe (or ghost-flower), and even poison-ivy, which last, we believe, even Emily Dickinson has not included in her weird gallery. This alone would give to the present volume a sense of elevation above mediocrity, though the handling of these simple themes is not always as successful as their selection. The novel binding of the book, a sort of leather or leatherette, we cannot quite commend.

A charming little edition of the pretty, old French tale, 'Aucassin and Nicolette' (Boston: Copeland & Day), has the prose as translated by M. S. Henry and the verse by E. W. Thomson, and is, as always, something unique in literature. The same very enterprising firm have issued, as another volume of their delicate "Oaten Stop" series, 'Soul and Sense,' by Hannah Parker Kimball, a collection of short meditative poems, carefully finished and always with a certain amount of thought and power, but pervadingly sad. Mr. William Vincent Byers is his own publisher of 'The Glory of the Gods, and Other Odes; Sonnets and Ballads in Sequence; with a note on the relations of the Horatian Ode to the Tuscan Sonnet.' Whatever genesis he may find for the sonnet measure, he certainly tests it too severely when he offers us a volume of 166 poems in that measure; it is something which even Rossetti would not dare offer to his most enamoured readers. It does not help the matter that he tortures some of them into a lilting measure and calls them ballads.

The poems of Caroline and Alice Duer (New York: Richmond) are somewhat unequal, but deserve to be praised for this vigorous ballad, with which they open, and which is, just now, what the daily newspapers call "timely":

AN INTERNATIONAL EPISODE.

(March 15, 1889.)

We were ordered to Samoa from the coast of Panama,
And for two long months we sailed the unequal sea,
Till we made the horseshoe harbor with its curving coral bar,
Smelt the good green smell of grass and shrub and tree.
We had barely room for swinging with the tide—
There were many of us crowded in the bay:
Three Germans, and the English ship, beside
Our three—and from the *Trenton*, where she lay,
Through the sunset calms and after,
We could hear the shrill sweet laughter
Of the children's voices on the shore at play.

We all knew a storm was coming, but, dear God! no man could dream
Of the furious hell-horrors of that day:
Through the roar of winds and waters we could hear wild voices scream—
See the rocking masts reel by us through the spray.
In the gale we drove and drifted helplessly,
With our rudder gone, our engine fires drowned,
And none might hope another hour to see;
For all the air was desperate with the sound
Of the brave ships rent asunder—
Of the shrieking souls sucked under,
'Neath the waves, where many a good man's grave was found.

About noon, upon our quarter, from the deeper gloom afar
Came the English man-of-war *Calliope:*
"We have lost our anchors, comrades, and though small the chances are,
We must steer for safety and the open sea."
Then we climbed aloft to cheer her as she passed
Through the tempest and the blackness and the foam:
"Now, God speed you, though the shout should be our last,
Through the channel where the maddened breakers comb,
Through the wild sea's hill and hollow
On the path we cannot follow,
To your women and your children and your home."

Oh! remember it, good brothers. We two people speak one tongue,
And your native land was mother to our land;
But the head, perhaps, is hasty when the nation's heart is young,
And we prate of things we do not understand.
But the day when we stood face to face with death,
(Upon whose face few men may look and tell),
As long as you could hear, or we had breath,
Four hundred voices cheered you out of hell.
By the will of that stern chorus,
By the motherland which bore us,
Judge if we do not love each other well.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

THE first edition of Mr. William Edward Hall's 'Treatise on International Law' appeared in 1880; at the time of his death in November, 1894, the fourth edition was in press, and part of it had been finally revised by the author. As now published by Macmillan it contains a considerable amount of new matter not found in any of the previous editions, relating to protectorates and spheres of influence, territorial waters, jurisdiction over foreign ships, nationality, the Bering Sea controversy, and the principles of law applicable to the subjects of a neutral nation who may, before the outbreak of war, be in the service of one of the belligerents, and who may be made the object of the first hostilities, as in the case of the *Kow shing*. These and other additions enhance the value of a work which proceeds from a publicist who has been described by an eminent contemporary, also a personal friend, as "one of the most accomplished men of his generation." The son of a physician who was attached to the court of Hanover and then to the British legation at Naples, he early acquired a knowledge of modern languages and a taste for art, both of which he subsequently cultivated. He studied law and was called to the bar; but he diversified his pursuit of his profession, which perhaps was never very assiduous, by various studies and extensive travel. He had collected materials for a history of civilization and a history of the British colonies, when he was led to concentrate his attention on international law, in which he soon became an acknowledged authority.

His 'Treatise on International Law,' which was preceded in 1874 by a small volume on the 'Rights and Duties of Neutrals,' achieved immediate success. It is characteristic of the man. Without attempting the cumulative and somewhat ostentatious show of learning of Phillimore, it combines the results of deep research, discriminating thought, and clear common sense, and approaches nearer to the standard of Wheaton's 'Elements' than any other English treatise on the same subject, though it lacks the calm philosophical spirit, the judicial tone, and sometimes the absolute accuracy of that great masterpiece. In its discussion of the laws and usages of war, and of the various questions arising out of the existence of a state of war, it is especially comprehensive and thorough; and in this category we desire particularly to mention its treatment of the subject of neutrality—a subject which has, in the course of the last hundred years, acquired a definite form and attained an immense importance.

Dr. T. J. Lawrence's 'Principles of International Law' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.) apparently comprises the elaborated text of lectures of which the syllabus was published in 1885, under the title of 'A Handbook of Public International Law,' a manual the excellence of which was attested by its adoption by the British Admiralty for the use of officers of the royal navy. The 'Principles,' like the 'Handbook,' is divided into four parts, but it contains four more chapters than the latter, partly representing the subdivision of subjects. Some of the definitions of the 'Handbook' have been slightly condensed, and some have been amplified, but not always to advantage. For example, the 'Handbook' defines independence as the "right of a state to manage all its affairs, whether external or internal, without interference from other states"; the 'Principles' adds, "as long as it respects the corresponding right possessed by each fully sovereign member of the family of nations." This qualification seems to have been so expressed as to exclude the idea that a suzerain may lose its right of independence by ceasing to respect the rights of a subject state, possessed of some of the attributes of sovereignty. But, assuming this to be so, let us suppose that the aggressor is a sovereign state other than the suzerain. Is not the legal consequence of its action the same as if the state whose rights it had failed to respect were fully sovereign?

While we are of opinion that this work is a useful elementary manual, we have observed in it several apparently inadvertent statements, to two of which we will refer. In section 115 it is said that the United States "decline to recognize that any change of allegiance has taken place when an American woman marries a foreigner, though they regard a foreign woman married to an American as an American subject." The authority cited for this statement is Wharton's 'International Law Digest,' section 186. But an examination of the whole section will show that while it has not been held that the marriage of an American woman to an alien subjects her to all the disabilities of alienage, such as inability to inherit real property, it is the prevalent view that her political status follows that of her husband at least during coverture; and it is hardly to be supposed that the United States would claim a right to intervene, in behalf of the American wife of a foreigner, against the action of her husband's government. Again, in section 168, on the effect of war on treaties to which the belligerents are parties, there is a diagram in which it is said, as to treaties for regulating ordinary social and commercial intercourse: "Effect doubtful. Generally the treaty of peace deals with such matters; if not, it is best to take the stipulations as merely suspended during war." For this statement the text affords no actual authority. Two judicial decisions are cited, but they relate to rights in real property, and refer to the peculiar conditions resulting from the division of the British Empire at the close of the American Revolution. The author observes, it is true, that, while "some treaties of peace expressly stipulate for the revival of postal and commercial agreements subsisting before the war," in other cases, where the treaties of peace contained no such stipulation, agreements of the kind in question "have been acted upon after the peace on the understanding that they were restored to efficiency by it"; but of such tacit revival he gives no example. Hall says that, in respect of such treaties, the simplest course is "to take them to be all annulled." This view has been so prevalent among publicists, has been so frequently recognized by governments, and has so much of the force of reason to support it, that the opposite view would seem to require substantial proof of its validity, though it may find sanction in loose expressions of some writers. The work contains an excellent statement of the distinct subjects of neutrality and neutralization; and it properly discusses certain recent aspects of the Monroe Doctrine as involving the assertion of the primacy of the United States in America.

The latest addition to the Hornbook series is a volume on the 'Interpretation and Construction of the Laws,' by H. C. Black (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.). It is designed to elucidate the cardinal modern rule that a court's chief duty is to seek out and enforce the actual meaning and will of the lawmaking power. The law is stated in the form of rules, of which there are a hundred and sixty-one, and there is a final chapter on the interpretation of judicial decisions and the doctrine of precedents, which will be found of value. Some twenty-four hundred cases are cited, and among them we are somewhat surprised not to find Gelpcke vs. Dubuque, decided by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1863, a very leading authority on the subject of *stare decisis*. It is much safer and far less difficult to write about decisions than it is to attempt to embody in accurate and terse language the principles of law which they embody. Mr. Black's little code of interpretation is on the whole well constructed; here and there it lacks precision and accuracy of statement. Rule 146, for instance, is as follows: "In law a precedent is an adjudged case or decision of a court of justice, considered as furnishing a rule of authority for the determination of an identical or similar case afterwards arising or a similar question of law." The first half of this is perfectly correct. A precedent is always a case, and always an adjudged case; and when such a case is examined as a precedent, it is always for the purpose of extracting from it a rule or authority for the determination of another case. But the rest of the rule is confusing. It appears that a precedent will furnish a rule in an "identical" or "similar" *case, or* for a "similar" question of law. The inference seems irresistible that it will not dispose of the *identical* question of law if it arises again. This is of course absurd, and not what Mr. Black intended. Rule 148 contains a definition of a *dictum;* seven lines of it are wholly superfluous. No. 149 is half rule and half comment. Nos. 150 and 151 correctly state the rule of *stare decisis*, but conclude with the statement that it does not apply in "exceptional cases" if there are "urgent reasons." This is a favorite but very bad way of saying that there are cases in which a rule of decision is not followed; but there is hardly any rule in the world governing human conduct to which there are not exceptions, and it is far better not to use a formula to characterize a particular rule which is uniformly true of nearly every rule. The exceptions to the rule and the urgency of the reasons for them must in the end be stated and explained separately. On the other hand, Rule 153 contains a very good enumeration of the considerations which bear upon the force and effect to be given to precedents. At p. 402 the fundamental differences between the principle of *res adjudicata* and *stare decisis* are pointed out with great clearness.

The subject of interpretation and construction will always be a fascinating one to minds of a logical and philosophical cast. On looking over a book such as Mr. Black's, one is struck with the multitude of problems still open to discussion, while (owing to the fact that our constitutions embody the primary principles of common right and civil liberty in the form of a written charter) in no country are the materials for a sound solution of such questions so abundant as with us. All our great constitutional conflicts for the hundred years of our existence as a nation have turned upon the meaning which the law should declare to be the true construction of a few printed words. As has often been said in the legal forum, words are things; and wherever written constitutions as well as the rule of precedent are the supreme law, the highest questions of all, the questions on which the lives, liberty, and property of millions depend, hinge upon the meaning of words. Were it not for the enlightened manner in which courts have applied the principles of interpretation and construction to questions of public and private

right as they have arisen, the Union itself might, before now, have come to a violent end.

The fourth edition of Mr. James W. Gerard's well known treatise on 'Titles to Real Estate in the State of New York' (Baker, Voorhis & Co.) gives all the code and statute changes, with notes of decisions, since the last edition. The editor, Mr. Edgar Logan, who was one of the editors of the third edition, states in a preface that he has had great assistance from the author. Between the two editions there is an apparent difference of only twenty-two pages, but this is owing to a change of type, which masks very large and important additions. There is, we suppose, no use in protesting against the absence of a Table of Cases, the success of a standard book without one having, no doubt, convinced the author that such tables are superfluous; we always find, nevertheless, that in actually tracing a doctrine or proposition through the courts the name of a case is quite as important a clue as an index title. How many thousand cases are cited, we have no accurate means of judging. We should not be surprised at being told that there are over 15,000. At any rate, the learning packed into this volume is prodigious in amount, and makes one shudder to think what it must swell to in another fifty years. This, it must be remembered, is a real property lawyer's *vade mecum* for a single State. No one can follow its rules blindly in another jurisdiction, not because the principles of land law are not the same throughout the United States, but because of the perpetual changes in legislation.

Mr. Gerard's book is made up in large part of statutes many of which have introduced innovations peculiar to New York. Ever since the time of Lord Coke, for instance, it had been the rule that if land were devised or granted to A for life, and after his decease to his heirs and assigns for ever, A took the whole estate in fee. The rule was connected with feudal military tenures, and, once explained, a child in law could never forget it. A fee must not be in *abeyance*, because, if it were, there would be no one who could discharge the services incident to it and due to the lord; but since, as long as A is alive, no one can tell who his heirs may be, it was impossible for such a grant or devise to vest a remainder in them; *ergo*, the whole fee must vest in A. This is what must have been *intended*. This rule was long the law in this State; but the revisers of 1830, who seem to have been infected with the delusion that the way to make law clear and comprehensible was to sweep away all rules the original reasons for which had ceased to exist, abolished it on the ground that the feudal system had come to an end. The consequence was not, as they hoped, a simplifying of the drawing of wills, but a new batch of decisions determining the effects and limits of the change. In other States the old rule prevails, so that the decisions here since 1830 are in Massachusetts, for example, of no authority. The same thing may be said of the rule against perpetuities, which makes it impossible to tie up property for more than a certain period. The common-law rule on the subject made the period a life or lives in being, and twenty-one years afterwards. This rule was English in origin, but was adopted generally in this country, and in those States where it still exists it is not found to produce any evil results. But it was not good enough for the revisers of 1830, who changed it to two lives, with the result that for any one in this State who wishes to provide for grandchildren, no lawyer can safely draw a will without a careful study of the very peculiar local rules of construction which have been laid down since that time.

These are two notorious instances of the confusion which comes from even well-meant and intelligent interference by the legislatures with settled common-law rules of property. What such legislatures as we have now would do if they allowed themselves full swing in these matters, one can only guess. Fortunately, they are conscious of their own ignorance and incompetence to deal with them, and usually there are no powerful interests struggling at Albany for the enactment of new rules changing the law of property. Notwithstanding this, half the volume of judicial decisions which goes to make up the substance of such a book as Mr. Gerard's is due to mistaken and unnecessary legislation—and to nothing else. So long as we have legislatures of the present sort, it is absurd to groan over the perpetually increasing volume of decision and annotation. For the practising lawyer the field of inquiry covers *all* the cases—not such only as may be valuable as illustrating principles.

The third edition of Mr. D. S. Remsen's 'Manual of Intestate Succession in New York' (Baker, Voorhis & Co), forms a convenient little book of reference of some hundred and fifty pages. The law of inheritance and distribution is, fortunately, rarely meddled with by the Legislature. Last year an attempt was made to alter it by making a man's widow one of his direct heirs, and a law was passed for this purpose in March. It aroused such an amount of indignation on the part of those who knew what confusion the change would cause, that in June the act was repealed; it was, however, in force for nearly three months, and may have given rise to questions of property yet to be disposed of by the courts. It does not seem to be noticed by Mr. Remsen.

In the second edition of his 'Law of Collateral and Direct Inheritance, Legacy, and Succession Taxes' (West Publishing Company), Mr. B. F. Dos Passos states that since 1890 this system of taxation has been introduced into Maine, Massachusetts, Ohio, Illinois, California, Connecticut, and New Jersey, to say nothing of Canada and Australia. It is evidently in a fair way to become universal. In New York, lineal heirs pay 1 per cent. and collaterals 5, and from 1885 to 1894 the State has collected by means of this tax some $11,000,000. In England the revenue from "death duties" of one kind and another is said to amount now to more than £11,000,000 annually. Mr. Dos Passos suggests that in New York a very small increase in the inheritance-tax-rate would enable us to dispense with the personal-property tax altogether. The great recommendation of the tax is that it is easily collectible, and that the cost of collection is small. In England a new inheritance tax (imposed in 1894) of 1 per cent. on all real and personal property was strenuously opposed as increasing the heavy burdens already weighing upon land. In this country the succession tax is mainly a personal tax, and has been attacked as unconstitutional. The courts, however, have generally upheld it as being a tax on the privilege of succeeding to property. It has led to many curiosities of construction. In Massachusetts the privilege has been held to be a "commodity," while elsewhere the attempt to secure a ruling that property invested in Government bonds is exempt from it has failed; the courts holding that the person paying the tax does not pay it on the bonds, but to secure the privilege of succeeding to them. The tax has enabled one court to decide upon the exact nature of money awarded for French spoliation claims; the ruling being that the money is a mere gratuity from Congress to the heirs, and not inherited from anybody whatever. The present edition seems very full and useful.

A new edition of Edmond Kelly's 'French Law of Marriage and Divorce,' by Oliver E. Bodington (Baker, Voorhis & Co.), is marked by an increase in bulk, though the number of cases cited is only forty-five; it is ten years since the first edition appeared. The subject is to us one of very considerable and growing importance, not merely because many Americans live in Paris, but because international marriages become more and more common every year, while the law governing the contract of marriage and the relation of husband and wife is wholly different in the two countries. American parents whose daughter marries an Englishman have a general notion of what will be their daughter's position as regards property, social and household life, etc. If their daughter becomes engaged to a Frenchman, they know little or nothing about the world into which she is going. Nevertheless they have it in their power to know in advance much more about the effects of a French than of an English marriage. The whole French law of the domestic relations—a compromise between legal arrangements handed down from the days of Justinian and innovations introduced in the interest of modern individualism and liberty of contract—is at odds with our system. To begin with, one condition of valid marriage in France is the consent of parents or other ancestors in the ascendant line; and since these may be of different sex and stand in an unequal degree of consanguinity to the person who desires their consent, elaborate rules have been formulated in order that some decision may be reached. Thus, if there are no parents, but a grandmother and a great-grandfather survive, nearness of degree prevails over considerations of sex, and the grandmother has the last word; but, if the degrees are equal, the grandfather carries the day. Fortunately for the peace of families, the number of persons of marriageable age who have great-grandparents living and capable of taking an active and intelligent interest in the matrimonial designs of their great-grandchildren is not great. Supposing the consent obtained, the whole French law affecting property rights under the marriage is utterly different from ours. An Anglo-Saxon marriage settlement deals, as Mr. Kelly clearly explains, with specifically designated property, while a French *contrat de mariage* establishes a system of law *for the parties*, governing not merely the determinate property which may be described in it, but various classes of property not specifically designated, either possessed at the time of the marriage or afterwards acquired.

We have nothing in our law or marriage-customs corresponding to the various *régimes* of the French code. Indeed, leaving out of view marriage settlements (which are unknown except among the well-to-do), the essential difference between the property relations of a husband and wife in France and America is that in one country the whole matter is regulated, so far as possible, in advance (*e. g.*, household expenses and expenses of education of children), while, with us, it is all left to chance. Marriage is proverbially a lottery; the French endeavor to eliminate chance as much as possible from the result, while we practically act upon the principle that prevision is impossible, and each household must

fight it out for itself. Which is right? We do not know, though we have a strong suspicion that neither system could be well transplanted from the soil of which it is a growth. Mr. Kelly seems to think that the French rule of the legitimization of children by marriage after their birth is an essential feature of their system, but does not clearly explain his reason for thinking so. To our minds it is simply an enlightened and humane rule, which should be introduced everywhere, and is just as likely to produce good results in New York (it is now the law of this State by L. 1895, c. 531) as in France. With regard to breach of promise, by the way, Mr. Kelly removes a common misconception—that no such thing is known in France. It is true that a lady cannot get thumping damages for injury to her feelings, but a contract is a contract, all the world over, and if the wronged party has suffered any material damage, recovery may be had. In a recent case the would be husband recovered for money wasted on jewelry, a wedding ring, and presents of flowers and candy. The English judges who tried within a year or two to persuade themselves that breach of promise of marriage was a *tort*, had, no doubt, not heard of this judgment.

Mr. Arthur G. Sedgwick's 'Elements of Damages' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) is not an abridgment of the well-known text-book of similar title, but a reëxamination of the subject, having different form, scope, and purpose. As the book appears in the "Student's Series," it is presumptively intended rather for study than for reference; but it will be found by no means useless by practitioners. The method adopted is to state the principles of the law of damages (so far as possible) as rules or principles of law, such as a court might lay down to a jury, and to follow these statements with the cases that illustrate them. The plan is very well carried out, and students will find the subject brought within their reach in a systematic and comprehensive exposition. The most interesting part of the book, from a scientific point of view, is that showing the relation of the modern functions of the jury to the development of the law of damages. Nothing can be more instructive than the system of concurrent jurisdiction now exercised by the court and jury, and its explanation is very succinctly given by Mr. Sedgwick.

The chief interest in Mr. Henry L. Clinton's Extraordinary Cases' (Harpers) is that it carries us back to a period in the administration of criminal justice in New York which already seems remote. The earlier cases in it, such as those of Polly Bodine and Henri Carnal, belong to a time when it was still common for the leaders of the bar to be retained in criminal cases, when judges took fees, when aldermen sat as side judges, when judges engaged in newspaper controversy over cases pending in their courts, and when reprieves by the Governor seem to have been as common as stays of proceedings by judges became later—indeed, when it was still to be decided whether a judge had power to grant a stay in a capital case. We have found the case of Henri Carnal the most interesting in the book, but to understand it thoroughly the reader must consult also the decisions in the reports to which Mr. Clinton refers. It lasted several years, and ended in a substantial triumph for the defence. The accused was tried and found guilty of what seems to have been a plain case of murder. Nevertheless, Mr. Clinton, who was assigned to defend him, succeeded within ten minutes in "planting an exception" in the case which took root and throve, so that in the end it "vitiated and rendered null and void all subsequent proceedings"; through it a new trial became necessary, and on this (the former witnesses having meantime disappeared) the accused pleaded guilty to a low degree of manslaughter, was sentenced to a short term of imprisonment, at the expiration of which he married, purchased a farm in the West, settled there, and, when last heard of, was "doing well." The laity, who cannot appreciate legal points, will not enjoy the story as much as Mr. Clinton's professional brethren. The merits, for obvious reasons, are not gone into; the case, as we read it, is an exciting game between the district attorney and the counsel for the defence, in which the stakes are the life of the defendant; the district attorney tries to hang, the counsel for defence to prevent him; the judges see that the rules of the game are observed, and the question of guilt or innocence is wholly immaterial, except so far as adverse evidence encountered in the progress of the game may handicap one side or the other.

De Quincey and his Friends. By James Hogg. London: Sampson Low; New York: Scribners.

Mr. James Hogg, son of a more famous publisher, has here collected a mass of "personal recollections, souvenirs, and anecdotes" of De Quincey. It was a good thing to do, for although much of the volume has been printed before, the articles, which contain matter of value to the De Quincey student, have mostly escaped such biographers as Dr. Japp. Dr. Japp himself contributes an outline life, with emphasis on De Quincey's associates; for few men of his time were more sought after by distinguished pilgrims, and few were so charming to so many kinds of people. Other friends, Mr. Colin Rae-Brown, and Mr. Hogg himself, contribute recollections, the latter telling, among other things, how, but for his own youthful sanguine efforts, we should probably never have had an edition of De Quincey collected by the author. There are reprinted memories by Richard Woodhouse, Mr. John Ritchie Findlay of the *Scotsman*, the late John Hill Burton, the Rev. Francis Jacox, Mr. James Payn, the late James G. Bertram of *Tait*, Hood, Carlyle, and others. Dr. Shadworth Hodgson's essay on De Quincey is appended. There is a long poem by Dr. Moir, which has an antiquarian interest touching the name De Quincey. Finally, there is an essay "On the Supposed Scriptural Expression for Eternity," dating back to 1852 or 1853; this essay is included in the American edition, but in no English edition of "Collected Works"; Mr. Hogg has reprinted it once before in a volume on 'The Larger Hope.' We should further note that there are a few unpublished letters; also, a Latin theme written by De Quincey for one of his examiners at Worcester College.

All the contributors to the volume dwell on two things: the extreme sweetness and courtesy of De Quincey's manner, and his fragile, intellectual personal appearance. In person he reminds Mr. Rae-Brown of Cardinal Manning—the slightest of bodies serving as a stem to a gloriously intellectual head. All the writers speak of the refined face and the changing eyes, dull, filmy, almost dead in one moment, glowing and full of depths in the next. That the sweet low voice and antique courtesy could mask an urbane causticity is clear from various calm remarks of De Quincey here recorded. He speaks of Wordsworth's "usual haughty and discourteous manners," and of his "sidling" walk (p. 97). He cannot admit that Burns is a great poet (p. 97). He refuses to dine with Thackeray because he is not, like Dickens, *benignant* (p. 194). It is interesting to know that he did not at first join with the more earnest admirers of Hawthorne and Emerson, but that he afterwards recognized the genius of the 'Scarlet Letter' (p. 234). Of his many eccentric little dicta none is more striking than the remark that "walking—a long walk—gives extraordinary depth and expression to ladies' eyes" (p. 9).

The volume is light in weight and beautifully made, but there are slips in printing, *e. g.*, p. 93, line 9; p. 115, line 17; p. 228, line 18.

Social Rights and Duties: Addresses to Ethical Societies. By Leslie Stephen. [The Ethical Library.] London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 2 vols.

"Really delightful reading," wrote Edward Fitz Gerald of an earlier volume of Mr. Stephen's, "and, I think, really settling some Questions of Criticism, as one wants to be done in all Cases, so as to have no more about and about it." But those were questions of literary criticism, where finality may make a more plausible show of being attained than in the wider and more complex themes treated in these volumes. Yet they are none the less really delightful reading, a good part of their charm consisting in the writer's frank disavowal of finality. A full and flexible and honest mind going "about and about" such subjects as Science and Politics, the Morality of Competition, Ethics and the Struggle for Existence, Punishment, Luxury, the Duties of Authors, the Vanity of Philosophizing, and the half dozen other titles of these addresses, is doubtless giving the very best that can be given in this line, whether to ethical societies or the general public. Those who know what the free play of Leslie Stephen's mind means, will ask no better treat than to see it applied to such congenial discussions. His acuteness, his fatal eye for the heart of a question, and the swift thrust of his pen right at it, his quiet humor, his tolerance, his modesty, his inveterate habit of boldly flinging into words the thing he thinks—all these are present throughout, and, in the eyes of everybody but the Scotchman who wanted to know what "Paradise Lost" "proved," more than make up for the absence of dogmatic positiveness.

These addresses are a sort of lay sermon, and show how the inherited homiletic instinct of the Stephen family survives the narrow evangelicalism which gave it birth and on which it once fed. Like a true preacher, Mr. Stephen is conscious of present questionings and present needs, and speaks to them directly. Most of the problems that have offered themselves with the greatest insistence to thinking men in the past twenty years figure in these pages, if few thoroughgoing solutions are offered. Hence the frequent reference to contemporary theories and writers. Even the late Mr. Kidd, as he may now safely be called, comes in for some of Mr. Stephen's most deft swordsmanship, the result being to cut off the head of this second-hand philosopher so neatly that he himself can scarcely be aware of his loss. Huxley's famous Romanes lecture suggests such remarks and qualifications of a rather hasty statement as Huxley himself felt bound to make, on reflection. Mr. Balfour is, of course, the man who philosophizes to prove the vanity of all philosophizing, and destroys the founda-

tions of scientific belief in order to maintain that theology is as firmly based.

Mr. Stephen's organon of knowledge, so far as he professes to employ any, may be said to be the method of careful statement. This is always half the battle with him. Nor is it the device of a logic-chopper choosing his own premises. He has the air of a man anxious simply to get at the core of a question, and brushing aside all that is merely incidental or adventitious in order to see what the real difficulty is. Perhaps the best of all the addresses here printed, for the illustration of this way of winding himself like a serpent into his subject (as it was said of Burke), is the one on Ethics and the Struggle for Existence. Most admirable and convincing is his grasp upon the truth that no theory of the facts of life, of evil and suffering, can at all alter those facts. One theory explains some of them, another some more; one theory has the advantage over another in point of completeness and likelihood; but under all theories the facts remain the same, and have their ugly implications under all.

"Does the theory of the 'struggle for existence' throw any new light upon the general problem? I am quite unable to see, for my own part, that it really makes any difference: evil exists; and the question whether evil predominates over good can only, I should say, be decided by an appeal to experience. One source of evil is the conflict of interests. Every beast preys upon others; and man, according to the old saying, is a wolf to man. All that the Darwinian or any other theory can do is, to enable us to trace the consequences of this fact in certain directions; but it neither creates the fact nor makes it more or less an essential part of the process. It 'explains' certain phenomena, in the sense of showing their connection with previous phenomena, but does not show why the phenomena should present themselves at all."

We should be glad, if space admitted, to quote other passages from these notable addresses. Some of them have previously seen the light in magazines, but the old ones are worth rereading, and the new ones have solider charms than those of novelty.

Fishes, Living and Fossil: An Outline of their Forms and Probable Relationships. By Bashford Dean, Ph.D. [Columbia University Biological Series, III.] Macmillan & Co. 1895.

THE fishes as they now are, and as they have been in the course by which they have reached their present condition, are fairly well set forth in this attempt at a concise general, and to some extent popular, presentment. The work is comparative and very comprehensive. Perhaps it might have been improved by a greater amount of text, yet an abundance of drawings obviates much explanation. It deals with forms, habits, structure, functions, embryology, affinities, genealogy, distribution, etc., and has classified lists of publications relating to its various divisions. As a whole it is to be commended, numerous particulars rendering it liable to criticism notwithstanding. The exceptions, and the remedies to be applied in a future edition, will be sufficiently evident in a few examples from the more noticeable.

Classification, being so much a matter of personal opinion, for present convenience, and liable to changes as investigation proceeds, should have less weight than some other features. We should prefer the fishes divided into four primary groups rather than two. The lampreys would stand for one; the others would be sharks and skates, chimæras, and lung fishes and bony fishes. Mainly the descent of the fishes is traced by means of forms containing a great deal of solid matter in dermal armature or in skeleton; these forms were the most specialized, and, consequently, while best adapted for preservation as fossils, were most affected by causes which tended to the extinction of their species. More plastic forms, with less of the hard matter, did not petrify so readily, but were better prepared for adaptation such as would prevent extinction. These last retained more of the structure common to the earlier types—that is, they were less specialized. Our author treats such species or genera as "the most generalized forms," though he nowhere establishes the existence of a generalizing process. In truth, when he says more generalized he means less specialized; but the expressions are not synonymous. The Cladodont (Cladoselache of Dean), a highly specialized type, is a good instance. This is said to be one of the most generalized of known sharks, the possible ancestor of Acanthodes, Pleuracanthus, Heterodontus, and modern sharks, of great degrees of specialization, also, in very different directions. The contention that the Cladodont changed, in its progeny, in form, armature, dentition, etc., lost a dorsal fin while acquiring an anal and fin spines, and became Acanthodes, should be supported by some kind of proof; the theory of a common ancestor is too available to be put aside for a mere suggestion of possibilities.

Regarding loss of fins, we are informed that, "should life habits require undulatory motion, paired fins must inevitably tend to disappear." The fishes cited in support of this are some that rest on the bottom, where paired fins are not needed as balancers; but in these cases it is disuse, not undulatory motion in swimming, that caused the paired fins (as also in many cases the vertical fins) to disappear. In similar manner disuse has carried away the limbs of certain lizards and of snakes. "It may now aid the mouth in admitting water to the gills" is said of the spiracle; but in certain rays that rest and feed on the bottoms this organ is greatly developed; they depend on it in breathing, not on the mouth.

"Partially true," is all that can be said of the statement that the majority of the sharks are viviparous and have a placental attachment; in a considerable number of viviparous sharks there is no such attachment. Dean says the egg of the Greenland shark is said to be spherical and relatively small and to be deposited unprotected by capsule; Günther says of the same shark that it is stated to be viviparous and to produce about four young at a birth. Pristis and Pristiophorus should change places in the arrangement; the former is the ray, the latter the shark.

Some of the figures are not up to the standard. Figure 29, named Trygon with a question, is Aëtobatis of Müller and Henle. It and figure 30 are incorrect in showing the front teeth wider than the hind ones; the latter are of most recent growth, and should be the wider. Figure 173, Bathyonus, is entirely out of proportion; and figure 184, said to be the porcupine fish with needle-like scales, is really the swell fish with compressed, blade-like rigid spines. It should have been said that the needle-like spines of the porcupine fish are erectile, which increases the resemblance to the mammal.

Need of revision is apparent in the nomenclature; for instance, Butrinus stands for Butyrinus, Christiceps for Cristiceps, and Læmargus for the prior name, Somniosus. Heptabranchias, Notidanus, and Heptanchus, names for a single genus, are used in a way to confuse the student. In the derivation of the last of these the author finds ἄγχω, Lat. *ango*, to press tight, to throttle. A better rendering is that of Agassiz, from ἄγκος, sinus, a notch, referring to the gill openings; this would give c instead of *ch* in Heptancus and Hexancus. Heptranchias, the earliest name, however, is most likely a Rafinesquian distortion of ἑπτά and βράγχια. Commonly, generic names are formed in the singular. Thus, Chlamydoselachus was originally derived from χλαμύς, and σέλαχος; Dr. Dean changes it to Chlamydoselache, deriving from σελάχη, which he defines shark instead of sharks. Why the plural name of cartilaginous fishes in general, always so used by Aristotle, should be taken in lieu of the singular, applicable to a single shark, is not demonstrated. Günther, who previously made the mistake, may have been followed, or both authors may have been led astray by Cuvier, who similarly fixed the name Selache on a shark now known by the prior name Cetorhinus. Corrected, Dean's Cladoselache becomes Cladoselachus; whether it is a synonym for Cladodus, he has not yet fully decided.

In conclusion, it should be said that this volume has many excellent features, and will do a great deal of good.

In India. Translated from the French of André Chevrillon by William Marchant. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

THE Kutab Minar is a fitting frontispiece to a book on India. Kutab commemorates the Moslem conqueror who reared it in 1193; Minar (the minaret) is the distinctive badge of the most energetic race among Indian populations. Confessedly the grandest work in the world of its class, it seemed to the present writer, as he climbed it after circling the globe, the most impressive pillar of any class.

M. Chevrillon, bound in buckram, brings to mind *Falstaff's* rogues who were so habited. He flits along as evanescent as those minions of the moon. His whole pilgrimage from Kandy to Kinchinjanga, as well as through the Mogul cities and many others, was compressed into less than fifty days. Nor did he dare go alone, but was personally conducted by what he calls a "boy," more commonly styled a "bearer" by Anglo-Indians. From the start he was imposed upon by this functionary, who shrewdly bargained that, on the score of conscientious scruples, he should never wait on his master at table nor carry a satchel for him. Such was the guide, philosopher, and friend who kept him in leading-strings, once wellnigh delivering him up to Nautch Delilahs. His book, however, has a charm. It is never dull, and it shows India from a French point of view. Yet but few of his nation have such a savor of Anglomania. Landing at Pondicherry, the last vestige of French domination, he sheds no tears over the French downfall, feeling that the English have done a better service. Thanks to the good ends gained, he justifies the evil means, as some do African slavery, viewing it as a whip in the hand of the Almighty for scourging Africans into civilization. Thus the apple of Paris has gone to the worthiest. *Datur digniori.*

M. Chevrillon's first chapter betrays a traveller embarked on his first voyage. Everything on the steamer and the sea fills him with amazement. His emotions burst out in such hyperboles that readers laugh at him as very green and equally sentimental. His gushing pages on Red Sea heat are pointless compared with five words of the captain of whom the reviewer

had asked why that sea was named Red. His answer was because it is *red hot*. Half-a-dozen cities often taken in by Cook's tourists were beyond the range of M. Chevrillon. His sole excursion outside the beaten path of those personally conducted adventurers was to Ellora. Regarding the caves there we have a chapter. In this there is little description of what the stranger saw, but much reading of his own notions into Hindu carvings. A large section of the book is of a similar make-up, either from need of padding or from the writer's subjective cast of mind—his nature, like the dyer's hand, subdued to the Oriental element it worked in. At Benares, for example, five pages suffice for setting forth the bathing during a morning on the Ganges—a scene which, but for associations, stone stairs, and the lack of bath-houses, would strongly remind one of New Jersey beaches. But this brief relation is text for a sermon more than ten times as long of theosophical mysticism. The style is lively and fresh, but unless readers believe the speculator inspired, they must at length skip or fall asleep. M. Chevrillon often makes us doubt whether his own speculations are in dead earnest or are ironical jokes. What he dignifies as heavenly meditation we call earthly laziness raised to its highest power. How much is man above the jelly-fish when his prayers are made by machinery, or consist in vain repetitions of the monosyllable OM—one hundred and eight times at a heat?

Our author's Hindu ideals are vague—gelatinous, so to speak—deficient in dates and facts. He has caught the contagion, and is himself negligent of accuracy. At the gate of the Taj Mahal garden, he says, "we pass under the arch, and the Taj appears in sight half a mile distant" (p. 169). It is no more than one-third so far. Half a mile is 2,640 feet, while the actual length of the avenue from the garden-gate to the opposite portal of the Taj, according to English engineers, is 880 feet. Again, the great wonder at Ellora he describes as "a temple cut in an isolated rocky mass which is itself 160 feet long, 100 broad," etc. (p. 228). In this mass there is no room for the real temple, which, as we read in Fergusson, the supreme authority, measures 247 feet by 150. "The isolated mass" is Isaiah's bed, too short for a man to stretch himself on it, and the covering too narrow for him to wrap himself in it.

Notwithstanding shortcomings—sometimes by reason of them—we lay down M. Chevrillon's rhapsody more reluctantly than many a better book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, J. L. Summer in Arcady: A Tale of Nature. Macmillan. $1.25
Black, William. Briseis. Harpers. $1.75.
Bois, H. du. The Magnetic Circuit in Theory and Practice. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.
Cold Dishes for Hot Weather. Harpers $1.
Collins, Mabel. A Debt of Honor. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Dalbiac, Lieut.-Col. P. H. Dictionary of Quotations (English). London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Esler, E. R. The Way they Loved at Grimpat: Village Idylls. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Farjeon, B. L. A Fair Jewess. Cassell. 50c.
Garry, A. Out of Bounds. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Gee, Henry, and Hardy, W. J. Documents Illustrative of English Church History. Macmillan. $2.60.
Hamilton, M. Across an Ulster Bog. Edward Arnold. $1.
Harding, J. W. An Art Failure. F. T. Neely.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. VI. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Judson, Mrs. Isabella F. Cyrus W. Field, his Life and Work. Harpers. $2.
Knight, William. The Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vols. I.-III. Macmillan. Each $1.50.
Lindsay, Lady. The Flower-Seller, and Other Poems. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Macbeth. [English Classics.] Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 20c.
McLennan, J. F. Studies in Ancient History: An Inquiry into the Origin of Exogamy. Macmillan. $6.
McMaster, Prof. J. B. With the Fathers: Studies in the History of the United States. Appletons. $1.50.
Melville, Herman. Typee. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
Merriman H. S. Flotsam; The Study of Life. Longmans, Green & Co. $1 25.
Montrésor, F. F. False Coin or True? Appletons. $1.25.
Nesbit, Edith In Homespun. London: John Lane; Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.
Orchard, Dr. T. N. The Astronomy of Milton's Paradise Lost. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Pontoppidan, Henrik. Emanuel; or, Children of the Soil. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Pratt, Cornelia A. The Daughter of a Stoic. Macmillan. $1 25.
Ravenel, H. H. Eliza Pinckney. Scribners. $1 25.
Reid, Christian. The Picture of Las Cruces: A Romance of Mexico. Appletons. $1.50.
Rideing, W. H. At Hawarden with Mr. Gladstone, and Other Transatlantic Experiences. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Stevenson, R. L. Poems and Ballads. Scribners. $1.50.
Stevenson, R. L. Weir of Hermiston. Scribners. $1.50.
Stories by English Authors. London. France. New York: Scribners. Each 75c.
Stout, G. F. Analytic Psychology. 2 vo's. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $5.50.
Swinburne, A. C. The Tale of Balen. Scribners. $1 50.
Taussig, F. W. Wages and Capital. Appletons. $1.50.
Tennyson, Lord. The Princess. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
The Century. Nov., 1895-April, 1896. Century Co.
The Chap-Book. Vol. IV. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
The *Savoy*. An Illustrated Quarterly. No. 2. London: Leonard Smithers.
Thurber, A. M. Quaint Crippen, Commercial Traveller. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Trask, Katrina. White Satin and Homespun. Randolph.
Twain, Mark. The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn. New ed. Harpers. $1.75.
Warren, H. C. Buddhism in Translations. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University.
Whitney, Caspar. On Snow-Shoes to the Barren Grounds. Harpers. $3.50.
Wingate, Gen. George. History of the Twenty-second Regiment of the National Guard of New York. E. W. Dayton. $5.
Woodbury, W. E. Photographic Amusements. Scovil & Adams Co. $1.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Release; or, Caroline's French Kindred. Macmillan. $1.
Zola, Émile. Rome. Paris: Charpentier; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer, and Lemcke & Buechner.
Zola, Émile. Rome. Translated by E. A. Vizetelly. 2 vols. Macmillan. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 11, 1896.

The Week.

THE menace of last week's vote on the Butler bond bill is the cloud which it throws over the financial policy of the Government during the next Administration. There was a majority of seven in the Senate for repudiation, and previous votes have shown about the same strength for any proposition which the silverites favor. The alarming feature of the senatorial outlook is the certainty that there will be a majority for equally wild measures in that body during the next Congress. The sound-money men will gain several seats, but the admission of Arizona, New Mexico, and Oklahoma as States will reinforce the soft-money side by six votes, leaving things as they now are—and nobody can doubt that the scheme for bringing in these three Territories will be carried through next winter. The country, therefore, must face the certainty that the upper branch of Congress will be on the wrong side of every financial question which may arise under the next President. How the lower branch will stand, nobody can tell. The House of Representatives elected next fall may be all right, while its successor, to be chosen in 1898, may be all wrong. The necessity, therefore, for the most robust independence in the executive will be even greater during the next Presidential term than during the present. He will confront a Senate with a majority of members so ignorant, reckless, or crazy that they will be capable of anything. If the Republicans carry the election next fall, their President will come in committed to the early enactment of a tariff bill which will restore prosperity. A Republican House will pass a McKinley bill fast enough, but it will be "held up" in the Senate by the Republican silverites, who will demand heavy ransom in the shape of legislation for their metal. We shall have 1890 over again, only worse, if we have a President who will make concessions to the repudiationists, as Harrison did six years ago.

Many Republican newspapers in the East are shamefully deceiving their readers as to the significance of the Oregon election. They say that the Republicans carried the Legislature and one of the congressional districts, that the party stood for sound money, and that the result is therefore a defeat of the silverites. The truth is that the Republican State convention voted down a resolution against free coinage, and adopted a "straddle" in its stead; that the Republican candidate for Congress who was successful is a 16-to-1 man; that the Republican candidate in the other district, who was beaten by a Populist, was a "straddler," who refused to oppose free coinage; and that the Legislature is overwhelmingly for free coinage, the only question being whether it will send to the Senate some other financial lunatic or reëlect Mr. Mitchell, who not only supports free coinage, but voted the other day for the anti-bond resolution. For a Republican organ to call such results as these a triumph for sound money, because Mitchell and the Republican free-coinage candidates in the two congressional districts call themselves by the name of that party, is a shameful attempt at deception.

The Oregon election seems to have unnerved the McKinley men completely. Not only has the Populist-Democratic combine upset the usual Republican majority there, but the Republican party in that State split on the silver question, and the gold-standard faction was the smallest of all that took part in the contest. Another fact, most surprising to the McKinleyites, is that the tariff question was not heard of in the campaign. Although Oregon is one of the largest sheep-breeding States in the Union and ought to be pining for a duty on wool, that subject was not mentioned. The silver delusion had smothered the tariff delusion completely. The news from Oregon has sent all the weak-kneed brethren running for cover. Senator Aldrich says now that it will be sufficient if the St. Louis platform pronounces against free coinage at 16 to 1, leaving the ground open for free coinage at 17 to 1, or at some other ratio, or for a reënactment of the Sherman law. A lot of nerveless Republicans on the ways and means committee oppose the taking of any vote on the bond-repudiation bill which has just come from the Senate. The whole McKinley programme depends upon making the tariff the issue and adopting a straddle at St. Louis on the silver question. If this cannot be done, McKinley is as illogical a candidate as a Methodist preacher would be in an election for Pope of Rome. If the real issue—the issue which dominates men's minds and controls their feelings—is the question, What shall be the standard of value? then the McKinley edifice, which looks so imposing now, is a house of cards which is liable to fall either before or after the St. Louis convention meets.

Suppose that a "straddle" is adopted at St. Louis. Where are any votes to be gained by that? The 16-to-1 men are not going to be satisfied with it. Senators Dubois and Teller smile when that kind of platform is mentioned. They say that the silver-men have been fooled too many times in that way. They are going to St. Louis with an unequivocal free-coinage platform. If they do not get it adopted there, they are going to Chicago to ask the Democrats to adopt it. If they fail in that quarter, they intend to hold a convention of their own on the 22d of July and adopt a platform and nominate candates of their own. This was the position taken by them months ago. They are now more than confirmed in it by the result of the election in Oregon. On the other hand, the supporters of the gold standard are equally in earnest. The proof of this is found in the declarations, heard on every hand from life-long Democrats, that they will vote the Republican ticket if the St. Louis platform is sound and the Chicago platform unsound on the money question. These are men who do not change their party ties lightly. It must be some consideration of overwhelming import that moves them to so strange a step. Is it supposable that this feeling is less dominant, less intense, in Republican circles?

Whatever political divisions there may be among the American people, they have but a single thought on the money question. To a man they are for "honest" money, the "soundest" currency known to men or angels. This is the great comfort which optimistic patriots may extract out of Thursday's Democratic platforms in Kentucky and Virginia. The Kentucky platform is simply ferocious in its determination to have nothing but an honest dollar. Anybody who doubts that the fifty-cent dollar which the resolutions proceed to call for is "honest," had better be prepared to meet a Kentucky gentleman in a rage. As for Virginia, the kind of money the silverites want there is so wonderful, so heavenly, that the mere thought of it sends them into raptures and rhapsodies. It is "sound money, the soundest the world has ever had or can have, the money of our Constitution, the money of the people, the money of civilization through the ages past and destined to be such for ages to come." It is a pity that this miraculous money has to be explained, farther on, as fiat rags and half-weight coin—but it is honest just the same, sound, unsullied, glorious. As to the honesty, however, there will be a chance for two inflections, as in the case of the unpractised *Iago*, in whose mouth the words "Honest, my lord?" became, "Honest! My Lord!"

The Maine Republicans nobly renewed last week, in State convention, their "unswerving loyalty to that great champion of protection and sound money, Thomas B. Reed," and hoped that the national convention would heed the demand of "the business interests of the country"

for his nomination. Another slant at McKinley was visible in the chairman's speech, when he spoke of Reed as a man whose "lips are not sealed in silence when silence is dishonor, nor opened to words that are meant to have no meaning." It must be said, however, that this description of the Speaker is true, if at all, only since the nomination has been lost to him. As long as he saw, or thought he saw, that his best chance of getting it lay in silence, McKinley himself was not more voiceless. And did ever the Ohio coiner of winged words beat Reed's fatuous message to the Home Market Club about the dawn soon coming? It is of the essence of brains and courage that they show themselves as such at all times; and the "brainy, masterful Reed" was so long content to play the part of a nerveless trimmer that it is no wonder the party forgot what manner of man he was.

We are indebted to the Buffalo *Courier* for a supplement to McKinley's record on the silver question in the shape of an important and significant vote which we had overlooked. On the 16th of January, 1878, Stanley Matthews carried through the Senate a concurrent resolution which, after quoting various laws relating to the public debt, including the act of 1870 for the refunding of the national debt, and the resumption act of 1875 authorizing the issue of bonds for the maintenance of specie payments, declared that all the bonds of the United States issued under these acts "are payable, principal and interest, at the option of the Government of the United States, in silver dollars of the coinage of the United States containing 412 1-2 grains each of standard silver"; and that such payment would "not be in violation of the public faith nor in derogation of the rights of the public creditor." On the 29th of the month the resolution came before the House, and was carried by a vote of 189 to 79, McKinley being recorded in the affirmative, while on the other side were Garfield of Ohio, Reed, Frye, and Hale of Maine, Robinson of Massachusetts, Hewitt of New York, and many other prominent sound-money men of both parties. This was, of course, a repudiation of the gold standard, and was so understood by both the advocates and the opponents of the resolution.

The latest contribution to McKinley's record is the publication of a letter written by him on the 27th of October, 1890, just before the congressional election that ended his career in the House, in which he answered inquiries about his position on various public questions put to him by the Secretary of the Stark County (O.) Farmers' Alliance. He declared himself opposed to all Trusts and combinations in the restraint of trade, favorable to regulation of railroad rates, opposed to the holding of lands by aliens, and a supporter of a lard bill in which farmers were interested; while as to the financial question—

"I am in favor of the use of all the silver product of the United States for money as circulating medium. I would have silver and gold alike."

This letter was published by the *World* on Thursday morning. Its authenticity is not questioned. Indeed, it is taken from the files of the local newspaper in Canton, which printed it in the issue of October 30, 1890. McKinley himself, according to his usual habit, refuses to say anything for publication on the subject, although he is reported as having explained to personal friends that "the letter was written at a time of great excitement, when he was making from six to ten speeches a day," and, furthermore, that "his argument in favor of silver was at that time in harmony with his party."

In the debate on the President's veto of the river and harbor bill, Senator Sherman again took the novel view that the President ought not to veto an appropriation bill, because it is always within his discretion to pay the money or not to pay it. If there is no money in the Treasury to pay it, or if for any reason his judgment is against paying it, then he ought not to pay it. Acts making appropriations are merely permissive, and for that reason ought never to be vetoed. This is an astounding doctrine, or would be so if any utterances of Mr. Sherman could astound us. His argument (on page 6603 of the *Congressional Record*) begins by quoting the first paragraph of the bill, viz.:

"That the following sums of money be, and are hereby, appropriated, to be paid out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to be immediately available and to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War and the supervision of the Chief of Engineers, for the construction, completion, repair, and preservation of the public works hereinafter named."

This, says Mr. Sherman, "is merely permissive; and, in the case of every one of these appropriations, if the Secretary of the Treasury should say that he has no money for this purpose that is not otherwise appropriated, as a matter of course he is not bound to expend it, . . . or if the President of the United States should see proper to say that 'the object of the appropriation is not a wise one; I do not concur that the money ought to be expended,' that is the end of it." If the appropriation is merely permissive, the words "to be immediately available" have no meaning. If the first section is to be construed as Mr. Sherman thinks it should be, it ought to contain the words, "provided the President of the United States considers such appropriations, or any of them, wise." The Sherman construction, if correct in law, would reach by a short cut the constitutional amendment which many people favor, enabling the President to veto particular items in an appropriation bill, as the Governor of New York can do.

Another part of Mr. Sherman's contention deserves notice, and that is his insinuation that there is no money in the Treasury to meet this appropriation. Unfortunately, and in consequence of a law which Mr. Sherman was instrumental in enacting in 1878, the greenbacks which have been redeemed in gold must be "reissued and paid out again and kept in circulation." About $115,000,000 by legal-tender notes has been accumulated in this way. It is very easy for Mr. Sherman in the Senate and Mr. Dingley in the House to say that greenbacks so received ought not to be used for paying the current expenses of the Government. Why, then, do you not repeal the law of 1878, or at least bring in a bill for that purpose and take a vote on it? Do you fancy that people can be hoodwinked with the notion that the President is violating law or morals by paying out money which an existing statute says he shall pay out? If the committee of ways and means, in its report adverse to the Butler repudiation bill, criticises the Secretary of the Treasury for using the proceeds of bond sales for current expenses of the Government, then the committee must be in favor of letting the Government stop for want of means to go on with. Perhaps Mr. Dingley would say that if his bill were passed, there would be means to go on with. Other people might differ from him in opinion as to this, but it is a sufficient answer to say that his bill has not passed, and that the Secretary has to deal with existing facts, and not with Mr. Dingley's conjectures of what would happen if something else happened.

Senator Morgan's attempt to lash a dying Congress into fresh fury about Cuba will probably fail. The whole thing is in the hands of the President—properly so—and there it will remain. As to the particular case of the American citizens in jail in Cuba for being caught red-handed in filibustering, no one has a scintilla of evidence that the President has not acted in their behalf with prompt energy. On the contrary, it is known that his firm protest has already secured a suspension and review of their first hasty and dubiously legal sentence, and that everything possible has been done to secure them a fair and speedy civil trial, which is the extent of their rights. Morgan was vastly indignant that the court proceedings had been conducted in Spanish. Of course, the Spanish officers should have used English or Alabamese. Anyhow, a war-ship should be sent at once to Cuba to take those Americans straight out of their dungeon. No American who has violated the laws of his own country and has been captured with an armed force attacking a friendly foreign power would be left one day in jail, or even under bail, if Morgan had his way. Meanwhile, the scheme to compel Mr. Cleveland to show his hand in the Cuban business is a highly dangerous one. He may almost any

day show so many trump cards that his furibund enemies will wish they hadn't done it.

The decision of the Appellate Division of the Supreme Court at Albany on the Albany police bill is of the utmost importance. Should it be confirmed by the Court of Appeals, to which it is going, its significance for this city cannot be overrated. It not only declares the Albany police bill unconstitutional—that is a comparatively small matter—but the grounds of the decision are very far-reaching. It decides, in the first place, that an act which seeks to divide the Police Commission equally between the two leading political parties, is an attempt to place the minority on an equality with the majority, and give the majority no more power than the minority. This the judgment declares to be "in violation of the fundamental laws of a republican government":

"The principle that the majority shall govern lies at the very basis of our government. Among the rights of the majority, as a part of its sovereign power, is the right to select officers, either directly by election, or indirectly by authorities or officers whom they have chosen by election. This power of the majority to govern, the Legislature cannot take from them. The Legislature exercises the legislative power of the people, it is their agent for that purpose, but it cannot limit or surrender any of the power or authority of its principals."

This is a tremendous, let us hope a fatal, blow to the "bi-partisan" foolery. You may give a minority representation; you cannot give it equal power.

The act next violates the principle of local self-government:

"But it may be said that the Legislature is composed of the representatives of the people, and that, therefore, their acts are presumed to be the acts of a majority of the people, and that while this act deprives the majority of the people in one locality of their power, still it is in accordance with the will of the majority of the people of the whole State, and that thereby the principle of majority government is recognized. There would be force in that suggestion if it was not for another principle of our government, recognized by our Constitution, and if the people had not by the Constitution limited their power to override the will of a majority in any locality. The principle I refer to is the principle of local self-government. The principle of local self-government is regarded as fundamental in American political institutions. It means that local affairs shall be decided upon and regulated by local authorities, and that the citizens of the different political divisions of the State have the right to determine upon their own public concerns and select their own local officials without being controlled by the general public or the State at large. For this purpose municipal corporations are established and are invested with rights and powers of government subordinate to the general authority of the State, but exclusive within their sphere. The principle is one that runs through our entire system of government, from the road and school district up to the federal Government. The right of cities to govern themselves has been the subject of attack by arbitrary power from a very early period. In our own State, it seems to me, the subject has been placed beyond question. All through our State Constitution this principle of local self-government is recognized."

Should this principle receive the highest judicial sanction, it will stop for ever the incessant and nefarious legislation for this city at Albany regarding its most vital local concerns which goes on every winter at the instigation of the local Democratic or Republican boss. It would infuse new life, new activity, and a new spirit into our municipality. It will be seen that the decision bears flat-footed on our police here. Until it is reversed, our Police Board is unconstitutional, and we trust that immediate steps will be taken to apply the law.

Mayor Strong's action in extending the civil-service rules to cover about all the desirable places that are left in the municipal service will be a truly terrible blow to all Boys, in Tammany and elsewhere. There is really little left in the way of offices for them to fight for at the polls. If Abe Gruber is right about it, they are all likely to cease to manifest any interest in politics, and to leave our elections to take care of themselves. This last extension takes away all the biggest "plums" as the preceding ones took away the great mass of little "plums." Of course the heads of departments remain, and a new Mayor can always remove them all and put his own men in their places; but these cannot change the subordinates in the departments, for they are now all within the rules and cannot be removed except for cause. All vacancies, however created, must be filled through competitive examinations. The Boys will surely think that the republic is tottering to its ruin. The mere perusal of the list of nearly seventy places, with salaries ranging from $900 to $5,000 each, and a grand total of $318,000, is enough to strike a Boy dead on sight. Think of all that being put out of the reach of the Boys for all time!

The dissolution of the union between the Irish and the English Nonconformists, which has been formally announced by the organ of the English Methodists, on account of the action of the Irish members in supporting the education bill, and over which there is much jubilation among the Conservatives, shows clearly, what was always suspected, that this union, while it lasted, really rested on Gladstone's prestige. The home-rule doctrine was never held with any real heartiness by the leading English Liberals, say Lord Rosebery and Sir William Harcourt. They held it because Gladstone had got it incorporated into the Liberal creed, but it was always to them something like the Athanasian Creed to good churchmen. The mass of the English Dissenters, as we now see, clung to it because eighty-six Irish votes were a powerful assistance in getting other things they wanted and cared for more than home rule. The split can do no great harm to the home-rule cause at present, for it was already as dead as Julius Cæsar, owing to the largeness of the Conservative majority and the disappearance from the political scene of the one able Englishman who ever gave it any vitality. But it renders any reunion of the Irish with the Liberals indefinitely remote, and makes it more probable than ever that some little measure of home rule, something in the County Council line, will yet come from the Tories themselves, who, in fact, are much more like the Irish than the Liberal Dissenters, and come nearer to them on several points.

The arguments with which the Dissenters justify their separation from the Irish would make ludicrous reading if placed side by side with those by which home rule used to be advocated in the same quarter. The anti-home-rulers opposed home rule on the ground, among others, that it would not do to give home rule to such bad men as the Irish; but the home-rulers said that it was to be given as a wise political measure, and not as a reward for good behavior, and that, no matter how they behaved, unless Liberal doctrines were all wrong, it was better for both Ireland and England that the Irish should manage their own affairs. It appears now, however, that the Irish ought not to have home rule unless they agree with the English about the management of common schools. This inconsistency is perceived by some Liberal leaders like Sir Frank Lockwood and Mr. Asquith, and they laugh quietly over it, but there it is. The affair really furnishes one more argument for home rule to the Irish arsenal, for it shows once more how inevitably all parties in England, Whig and Tory, pass on Irish questions on English grounds. Nearly everything the Irish have ever asked for in a hundred years has been refused, at first at least, for an English reason. Of course there are many causes for the present obliteration of home rule—Parnell's death, Gladstone's retirement, and the Irish dissensions—but we have no doubt the one which acts most powerfully on the English mind, perhaps unconsciously, is Irish tranquillity. Public attention in England has never been seriously given to Irish questions except in periods of disturbance, and even then it is only very recently that healing measures have been substituted for coercive measures.

The deaths of Jules Simon and Léon Say, following each other so closely, will not lessen the anxiety of Frenchmen over the signs of decay in their public life. This is a phenomenon which is giving trouble in every democracy. In France, as in this country, the abler and better men have so long abstained from an active political life that they now find their public influence reduced almost to a nullity, and discover that they cannot exert effective political power even when they try to. This ought not really to surprise them, for nothing will more quickly forget and ignore you than politics when you consent for any long time to forget and ignore *it*.

A LESSON IN FINANCE.

THERE is in progress at the present moment an object-lesson in the value of an elastic currency so remarkable that it deserves especial mention. For several months past, the Russian Government has been pursuing what is evidently a concerted plan to reform its coinage. With this in view, gold has been drawn from all countries on which Russian exchange was favorable, and the specie has been flowing steadily into the St. Petersburg reserves. Since January 1, according to its latest published statement, the Imperial Bank of Russia has increased its stock of gold $39,000,000. This increase of the national gold reserve has been carried out, according to economic rule as practised in every civilized modern state except our own, through reduction of the paper currency. Even the circulation of the Bank of Russia has been reduced within the same period $25,550,000.

It happened in this Russian operation, as it did in the similar Austrian episode a few years ago, that Germany was at first the easiest gold market on which to draw. While the Bank of Russia's gold reserve was thus increasing rapidly, the gold supply of the Imperial Bank of Germany, between February 22 and April 7, decreased $23,500,000. At this time, it will be remembered, the United States was negotiating its $100,000,000 loan, our money markets were contracted, and gold shipments from New York had ceased. The Bank of Germany, like other national banks of European states, supplies the needed currency by its own note issues. When the outward gold movement had begun seriously to deplete the Bank's specie reserves, a very perceptible movement to contract this note circulation was adopted. From April 7 to May 26, the notes of the German Bank in outside circulation were reduced $40,000,000. The result was at once apparent in the money market. The Berlin open-market interest rate advanced from 2⅛ per cent. at April's opening to 3 per cent. at the close of May. Immediately the gold depletion ceased. The German Bank's reserves began to rise again. Week before last they had increased $13,750,000 from their recent minimum. This restoration of the gold supply having brought the Bank's reserve once more to a safe percentage of note liabilities, the Bank's report for the next week showed once more a moderate expansion of circulation, with an accompanying decline in money rates. In other words, a simple and scientific process, applied when the circulating medium was relatively in excess, and when the percentage of reserve was running down too rapidly, has served the double purpose of restoring the currency to equilibrium and wholly preventing any doubts as to its security.

Ever since 1890, the currency inflation under the Sherman silver-purchase act had forced the foreign-exchange rates of the United States to so high a level that this country was habitually looked to as the cheapest gold market in the world. Our own insane currency legislation drove out our gold to Europe, and it was merely a question which nation should receive the precious metal. The process of buying gold to keep our Treasury reserve intact resulted in a further heavy redemption of legal tenders, and, by this temporary retirement, an awkward sort of currency contraction was in progress which failed invariably of its object. If the currency of this nation, like that of every other great financial state, were subject to automatic contraction or expansion according to the money market's true requirements, we should long ago have checked the embarrassing gold-export movement, as surely as this season's German export was arrested. If we did not instantly check the specie export, we should at all events, on such occasions, have sustained a safe percentage of reserve to liabilities, instead of witnessing a decline in this reserve percentage, as our Treasury did in 1894, to barely 14 per cent. For a time, this year, as we have said already, the "tying up" of money incidental to the February loan served all this purpose. But meantime confidence and trade activity had flagged, first as a result of the repeated Jingo menaces at Washington, then because of doubt and suspicion respecting the leading candidate for the Presidential nomination. As the needs of trade contracted, the money rate declined, and idle paper currency again piled up in the city depositories.

Finally, exports of gold began again, and the Treasury reserve is now running once more rapidly down the scale. If we were doing business in this country on a properly elastic currency, the recourse would be as obvious as it has been in Germany. Contraction of the circulating medium would probably indeed be automatic. Bank currency would presumably be called in simply because bank loans, needed no longer in a sluggish trade, were paid off by the borrowers. Having no pretence of any such device of modern scientific financiering, our paper currency, once more far in excess of business needs, is piling up again in institution vaults, and more than $22,000,000 gold has gone abroad since April 4. The United States, in fact, a seemingly willing victim, is providing all the gold asked by the Russian Treasury. It is hard to say whether regret at the event, or contempt for the stupid policy which makes it possible, ought in such an episode to be an intelligent American's chief sentiment.

THE PENSIONER AND HIS DOLLAR.

THE German-American Gold-Man-on-a-Gold-Platform League is doing good work in distributing leaflets, showing in what classes of the community the silver swindle is likely to work most damage. For instance, all persons living on wages and salaries, and all depositors in savings-banks, will suffer *at once* by the introduction of a fifty-cent dollar. No matter what glorious future they may promise themselves through a rise in wages and salaries, and consequent surplus for "the bank," what stares them in the face is poverty the moment the money they are paid in becomes payable in silver instead of gold. Not only so, but their poverty will last a long time, for neither a high tariff nor a silver currency will bring a single wage-earner a day's work more than he has now. As to this the inflationists are deluded by the recollection of the good times which accompanied the inflated war currency. The war not only steadily lessened the supply of labor, through the withdrawal of the whole body of soldiers from industry, but created an artificial market in which all products as fast as they were produced and purchased were consumed and destroyed, and which therefore could never be glutted. All this is so plain that if the wage-earner could be induced to look the matter in the face, he would be no more deluded by the promise of prosperity made by the silverites than the manual laborer could be to-day by arguments—once so efficacious—that machinery would prove his ruin.

There is one class addressed by the League which will, however, be even more plainly and shockingly swindled by the silver dollar than the wage-earners—and that is the whole body of men, women, and children on the pension list. The swindle is more plain in this instance than in any other, because a pensioner is in most cases in a position in which he can be but little benefited by any exertions of his own. The $140,000,000 divided annually among the 970,000 pensioners on the rolls will never be affected by a tariff nor by any rise in wages. The moment the silver basis comes, the 970,000 pensioners will have, not $140,000,000, but $70,000,000. The swindle is peculiarly shocking because it falls upon a dependent class which is supposed to have particularly meritorious claims upon the public.

No doubt in the South a great many silverites chuckle over the idea of swindling the pensioners, imagining that the whole body of them are in the North and Northwest, and that for the South to help on the good work of cheating them would be nothing but tit for tat, the South having been unduly taxed for their benefit. But this is a total mistake. Owing to immigration into the South from the North, and other causes, the Southern pension list is very large. There are 13,557 Federal pensioners in West Virginia, 8,043 in Virginia, 7,902 in Texas, 18,017 in Tennessee, 53,959 in Missouri, 3,715 in Mississippi, 12,979 in Maryland, 4,453 in Louisiana, 28,905 in Kentucky, 3,708 in Georgia, 3,217 in Florida, 8,354 in the District of Columbia, 2,730 in Delaware. 10,364 in Arkansas; and even in South Carolina there are 1,717. How many votes this list represents it would be im-

possible to say; many of them are women and children; others may be colored soldiers or their families; but it must represent a good many votes; perhaps votes enough in one or two States to turn a close election.

In the Northern States, of course, the case is much plainer. The present pension law was passed for the express purpose of getting votes. The effect of silver inflation will be to cheat every pensioner out of half the income which was to be a claim upon his gratitude. In Illinois 68.678 of them will be cheated out of $4,963,823, in Indiana 69,850 of them will be cheated out of a little larger sum —$10,000,000 in round numbers in the two States. In Ohio there will be 105,160 victims, and they will be "done" out of $7,779,283. These three States might alone determine the election. Altogether in the Northern, Northwestern, and Eastern States there are nearly 800,000 victims who will be cheated out of more than $50,000,000 a year by the silver swindle.

A campaign among these victims would be a campaign of education, no doubt, as we have said, and fortunately the Government has a list of them. There are many of them who are women and children, and many of them are negroes who live in States where their votes are of small consequence. But there are many thousands of white voters among them, and the figures given show that it is probable that in several States the pensioner may influence the result conclusively. Even where he has some other means of livelihood he is almost always a person whose pension is a considerable part of his whole income. He is open to argument, and what the German-American League want to do, as we understand their purpose, is to make the silver swindle so plain in its effects upon individuals that the operation shall of itself create a gold party once and for all. The way to do it is to bring it home, not merely to classes in the mass, but the individual in the class; to show the pensioner, the savings-bank depositor, the mill-hand, that his dollar under the new régime will be fifty cents; that his pension will be half what it now is; that his children will get fewer shoes for it, his wife and he less meat; that his rent will be higher, his coal bill larger, and that at the end of every year he will be poorer than he was at the beginning. These are the true pictures of what the political Hungry Joes have in store for him.

THE FRENCH CLAIMS VETO.

The President's veto of the general deficiency bill is mainly based on the item for the French spoliation claims, amounting to $1,027,314.09. He very justly says that these claims have no proper place in a deficiency bill. But the grounds of the veto are such that he would be required to withhold his approval from any bill which contained them.

The claims arise out of depredations upon American vessels by French privateers between 1791 and 1800, in the course of the Franco-English war, in which we were neutral. These claims were filed at Washington by those injured, and presented by our Government to France, and thus became the subject of negotiation between the two countries. Other matters were pending between them, however, at the same time, and, in the final settlement made, the United States abandoned those private claims, adjusting its own difficulties with France partly through this abandonment. The claimants have ever since contended that this was unjust and gave them an equitable claim on their Government for reimbursement.

The President's reply to this is, first, that the claims are not legal claims; second, that, being founded on our neutral status, they would have no standing if the fact was that this country was not a neutral, but at war with France—there being of course no redress for one belligerent as against another for depredations committed in the course of war—and that, as a matter of fact, the better opinion is that we were then at war with France; third, that it is "confidently alleged" that these claims were really abandoned because they were good for nothing, and that if they were used in obtaining our national settlement with France, this result did not make them good against the United States; fourth, that in the first quarter of the century, while they were still fresh—at a time near the period of the depredations—there was adverse action in the Senate and House, which creates a presumption against them; fifth, that bills for the relief of the claimants have been twice vetoed; sixth, that it is "now estimated" that the claims "may amount" to $25,000,000; seventh, that none of these claims have been paid except $1,300,000, put into the general deficiency bill in the last hours of the session of Congress, March 3, 1891; eighth, that many of the claims are those of insurers, who ought not to be paid under any circumstances.

We have endeavored to state the President's objections fairly, but must point out that he has wholly omitted to refer, except in the most indirect way, to the most important recent facts in the history of the claims. Many people in reading his message must wonder what his reference to cases "pending for examination in the Court of Claims" means; and how it was that $1,300,000 came to be paid at all. The fact is, that after these claims had been before Congress for three-quarters of a century, and after the historical objections urged by the President had been brought up over and over again, and when, in addition to the unfavorable reports and vetoes referred to by him, forty-five reports in Congress had been made in favor of the claims, and after Marshall, Madison, Pickering, Clay, Clinton, Edward Livingston, Everett, Webster, Cushing, Choate, and Sumner had recognized the claims as valid, the whole matter was finally referred to the Court of Claims for a judicial opinion as to their merits, by an act of Congress passed January 20, 1885. This act said nothing about gratuities or largess, but gave permission to such persons, or their representatives (the original claimants being all long since dead), as had "valid claims to indemnity upon the French Government arising out of illegal captures," etc., to apply to the court by petition within two years; directed the court to ascertain and determine the "validity and amount" of the claims; directed the Secretary of State to procure all accessible foreign evidence and documents; and directed the court to make reports of its findings every year—such reports, however, not to be conclusive. Under this act, the claimants presented their evidence and made their arguments, and the United States did the same on its side, and the court on May 17, 1886, in the case of Gray vs. the United States, decided the claims in general to be valid, using the following language:

> "The result which we have reached is supported by resolutions passed in each of the thirteen original States, by twenty-four reports made to the Senate by its committees, by over twenty similar reports made to the House of Representatives, by the fact that, while three adverse reports have been made, one to the Senate and two to the House, no adverse report has been made in either body since the publication of the correspondence in 1826, and by the further facts that the Senate has passed eight bills in favor of these claimants, and the House has passed three of these, of which one is the present law—the other two having been vetoed, one by President Polk, substantially upon grounds not at this time important, the other by President Pierce for reasons which we have considered very fully in this opinion, and with which, after the most careful and painstaking consideration, we cannot agree."

It was now supposed by most persons that the matter was settled, but the unfortunate reservation of the right of Congress to disregard the finding of the court remained. The claimants went on and proved their claims, but until 1891 Congress refused to appropriate money to pay them. In that year $1,300,000 of the claims was passed by Congress, and subsequently paid. Here the matter stands. The validity of the plaintiffs' claims as a whole has been decided in favor of the claimants by the tribunal to which the defendant referred them, and one batch of judgments has been paid by it. It now refuses to pay the rest, on the ground that the plaintiffs have no case.

The President has no doubt killed the claims for the present, but that the claimants will accept his decision as a finality is not to be expected, as there is not a single argument in it that has not been already considered by the Court of Claims and disposed of in their favor. While the result, in sending off the first claimants with their money paid, and denying all redress to the others who stand in exactly the same position, may be the part of financial wisdom at the present time, it is certainly not justice. Those who are familiar with the history of the controversy

will remain convinced that the French-claims controversy will never be settled until the Government is willing, not only to send the matter to a court, but to abide by its finding.

THE RULE OF THUMB.

THE Society of the Army of the Tennessee determined last year to erect an equestrian monument to Gen. Sherman, and a committee was appointed for the purpose of which Gen. G. M. Dodge was chairman. Conscious, apparently, of their own want of skill and experience in the matter of judging sculpture, they very properly asked four leading American sculptors—J. Q. A. Ward, Augustus St. Gaudens, Olin L. Warner, D. C. French, and a prominent architect, Bruce Price—to aid them in making a selection among the designs for which they had advertised. In this they followed the admirable example of Mr. Burnham at Chicago. He summoned the leading American artists, and asked them to make designs of exhibition buildings and divide the work among themselves. The world knows the result. In other words, he acknowledged that the men who give attention to a thing, and win fame in doing it, especially in matters of taste, are most likely to be right in their judgment about it.

We have said in "matters of taste," but this is really true in all matters. Civilization is built on, and progresses on, the idea that the men who occupy themselves with any pursuit are likely to know more about it than those who do not, and that their advice touching that pursuit is good to take. This is true of war, of literature, of science, and of art in all its branches, of small things as well as great, from arranging a dinner-table to fighting a battle. A man who arranges a dinner-table may be an ass in most things, but if he has long given his attention to this matter of arranging dinner-tables, he is a master in that field, and his word should be listened to. If everybody in the world thought he knew as much about everything as everybody else, social chaos would ensue, and we should end, in a few generations, in the woods, clothed in skins of beasts like our ancestors.

The five artists thus selected promptly complied with the request of the committee, and went to Washington, where they passed judgment on the designs there collected, selected two as of more merit than the others, and recommended that further competition between the authors of these two should be ordered. They acted without compensation, for the honor of Gen. Sherman and the credit of American sculpture. This advice was given, they say, "in the clearest way, and with every precaution to guard against misunderstanding." Far from taking it, the committee promptly proceeded to call for further competition between, it is true, the two recommended by the judges, but also between two others, one of whom had been already specially disapproved, or not at all approved, by the judges. Worse than all, when the award was finally made, it was made, without communication with the judges, to that one of the two supplementary competitors "whose model in the first competition was not considered by the committee of experts as worthy of consideration."

The want of courtesy to the artists called on to advise would be very shocking if we were not used to it in our official life, where old and valuable public servants are often turned out of office without other notice than the appearance of their successors to take their places. But this can readily be overlooked, in view of much more serious considerations. The snub to the judges, coupled with the award, contains the assertion that the committee of the Army of the Tennessee know more about sculpture and are better judges of it than anybody in Europe or America; for this is what I say if I observe that I do not mind what Messrs. Ward, St. Gaudens, Warner, French, and Price say. I put myself on a level with Phidias and other great sculptors of antiquity whose superiority all moderns acknowledge. In the very droll letter from Mr. J. R. Dunlap, editor of the *Engineering Journal*, in defence of the committee's action, which was published in the *Evening Post* on Wednesday week, he not only put the committee before the sculptors, but put Secretary Lamont, Gen. Miles, Gen. Sherman's family, and himself before them. He gave information about the conditions of a good Sherman statue, and about sculptor Rohl-Smith, which would have put Lessing to the blush, and caused the closing of the Beaux-Arts as a useless institution.

Nothing much more extraordinary or discouraging has happened since the days of Vinnie Ream. Our older readers may remember that advocacy of this lady's work developed the fact that both houses of Congress swarmed with some of the best judges of painting and sculpture in the world, and that one man was exactly as good a judge of a picture as another—a fact which can be readily ascertained by frequenting any picture-gallery in the world, on a free day. Application was made here in New York some time ago to the Board of Aldermen for permission to copy one of the portraits in the City Hall—a Stuart, we believe—and the objection was made by an aldermanic connoisseur that the copy might turn out better than the original, be sold for more, and thus lower its value. This shows that there is really no kind of knowledge more widely diffused than art knowledge. Considering this, the enormous sums spent all over the world on art schools and schools of design have always puzzled us. Their promoters say it is to promote art education and art culture among the people. Bless your souls, they do not need it. They have got it. There are Mr. Dunlap, for instance, and Secretary Lamont. We warrant neither has frequented any of your art galleries, and yet they can both give points to Mr. St. Gaudens.

The matter has more than an art bearing; it is symptomatic of many other things. It is another indication of the struggle we have in America to assert the claims of knowledge about everything which does not yield an immediate pecuniary return. The currency question is one of them. The real masters of this question, the men who know, are the men who are daily engaged in the work of exchange. It is they who can tell what is the best measure of value, the best money for civilized men. Yet they are rarely heard from or listened to on this subject. A few years ago the late Mr. Blaine was telling an ignorant audience on the stump that we lost $60,000,000 a year in our trade with Cuba. When you went down to Front Street, and saw the men who carried on the trade with Cuba, you found they were all making money, and when you showed them Blaine's statement, they smiled broadly. At this moment the Western world is filled with the babble of people who do not exchange at all, but insist, with furious gestures, that the exchange dealers and merchants are ignorant fools and base "gold bugs." Every farmer in the South and West, though he has never handled more than $100 in his life, is sure that all the financiers of Europe and the Eastern States are wrong in this matter, and that he knows better than they how to provide "the soundest money the world has had, or can have—the money of the people, the money of civilization through the ages past, and destined to be such for ages to come." We thus see how much time is wasted by the human race on instruction, in study, and in practice.

POLITICAL GENTLEMEN.

MR. LECKY, in his book on Democracy, argues that gentlemen, as a class, are likely to govern other people better than such as are not gentlemen; the reason he gives being that, owing to their position, associations, training, and ambitions, they are more likely to discharge political duties with faithfulness, and to be intelligent, just, and honorable. The suggestion greatly irritates Mr. John Morley, who, in his scathing review of the book, asks, in substance, why gentlemen who idly abuse the bad times over their whiskey and soda in the club smoking-room, should be supposed to be an exceptionally good governing class. Talleyrand said: "What is democracy but an aristocracy of blackguards?" and Mr. Morley evidently at bottom thinks that Mr. Lecky is of Talleyrand's opinion. Perhaps he is not far out of the way in this suspicion.

For us the matter has a somewhat different interest from that which it has for Englishmen, because we have never lived in an atmosphere in which gentlemen, as

such, have been deemed a class specially endowed with political virtue, and the idea, held by so many people only a few years ago, that the degradation of our politics would be ameliorated by introducing gentlemen into them, has not been confirmed by experience. As a rule, instead of politics having been elevated by them, they have been degraded by politics. Some of them have no sooner seen office dangling before their eyes than they have forsworn their whole early training, thrown aside independence and principle, become blind partisans, and made ferocious war upon the causes they had been brought up to fight for. Others have, as in this city, thrown overboard all pretence of decency, made common cause with thieves and blackmailers, and assured their amazed friends that this was what "politics" really meant, and the only way in which government could be carried on. A very few have been driven out of politics because they were too good for it. The greater number have brought a good deal of discredit upon the class from which they came, and the republic would have taken no harm had their places been filled from any other.

Our experiment cannot be cited to show that there is any magical effect produced by making use of gentlemen to elevate politics or keep them pure. Are there any facts which point to a different conclusion?

To answer this or any other question about gentlemen is not easy, because the word gentleman is used in two senses very wide apart. Mr. Morley's criticism of Mr. Lecky illustrates this. When Mr. Lecky speaks of the advantages to be derived from gentlemen taking part in government, what he has in mind is either himself and his friends and acquaintances, or else an ideal gentleman, who has all the best qualities of the class and none of its defects. When, on the other hand, Mr. Morley ridicules the idea of gentlemen's being of much use in politics, he has in mind bigoted Tory squires, bad Irish landlords, and young clubmen who curse the followers of "Gladdy," and wonder how they are going to put their tailor off a few months longer.

Now, everybody has a great respect for gentlemen of the first sort, and no respect at all for gentlemen of the second. To say with emphasis that a man is a gentleman, in our language is proverbially, so far as this world goes, the highest encomium that he can receive. No epithet adds anything to it; on the contrary, it is reduced by epithets, because it implies in our usage all the highest qualities that a man can have among men. A truthful gentleman, a brave gentleman, a reliable gentleman, are pleonastic and even vulgar expressions—pleonastic because the word gentleman implies all these other qualities; vulgar because no one who is a gentleman would be capable of failing to recognize this fact. As the Roman *vir* had by the term itself the qualities which *virtus* implied, so our gentleman has all the qualities which in mediæval theory or fancy went with "gentle" blood. This can be seen by the qualities left out as well as by those included. Virtues peculiar to women are not "connoted"; it has been very justly said that a woman cannot by any possibility have the feelings of a gentleman. It is a man's ideal, and it is not altogether an ideal of moral perfection by any means.

If there were in any country any numerous body of men of this sort in control of the government, the question could hardly arise whether they had qualities adapted to make their services in politics valuable. Inasmuch as they represent the ideal of a race, held up to be admired for generations by its bards, philosophers, romancers, and historians, there can hardly be too many of them in any government. A celebrated lord chancellor, asked by some one what principle he adopted in selecting judges for nomination, said, "I always pick out a gentleman; and if he knows a little law, so much the better." What he meant was that learning could be acquired, but the qualities of character which constitute our ideal must be there already. Unfortunately, however, the gentleman of actual social existence means something very different from this. It is impossible to define the word exactly, but for practical purposes it means any man who either shares in or is recognized as fitted to share in the society which is generally regarded in any community as the best. The qualifications for admission are so different at different times and in different places that it is impossible to enumerate them. In one place family alone will answer; in another mere wealth, accompanied by a very slight modicum of manners, will be enough; in all, occupation counts, but very differently in different countries. We rarely meet apothecaries or dentists in society. In Austria, however, a country governed in great measure by an aristocracy, we have known an apothecary at the head of a Spa administration, and an officer compelled to fight a duel with another apothecary — gentlemen all. In many places in England the local school-teacher is not a gentleman.

Used in this sense, the word means nothing but a certain social distinction, which is far removed from indicating with any certainty the possession of qualities specially adapted for the discharge of political trusts. On the contrary, it indicates almost nothing with regard to character. In the course of a year every one meets dozens of gentlemen who have hardly a moral quality or peculiarity in common. They may be brave or cowardly, truth-tellers or liars, faithful or unfaithful. A man may be a ruffian among his wife and daughters, treacherous, a miser, corrupt, and still pass in society for a gentleman, if he has never done anything for which this society itself looks askance at him. In fact, a gentleman remains a gentleman, no matter what he does, until something or other happens which makes it necessary for society, as a matter of self-preservation, to eject him. Formerly, no doubt, birth was essential; but, even in those remote days, a gentleman by birth was not *ipso facto* a Colonel Newcome in character. George IV., Sheridan, Byron, and Talleyrand himself were all gentlemen. The mad King of Bavaria who bankrupted his kingdom for the sake of art, was a gentleman, though very fond of the society of those who were not. In New York, conviction of crime will rule a man out in most cases.

If what we have said is true, there can hardly be a presumption that a man recognized among his fellows as a gentleman for social purposes will therefore probably make a good legislator, cabinet minister, governor. So far as he has the qualities with which we endow our manly ideal in song and story, he is indubitably qualified. As a test of fitness, the fact that a man is a gentleman will not do, in politics, any more than it will in railroads, engineering, surgery, law, architecture, or art. The standard has the defect of having little or no intrinsic value, except for the purpose for which it is used—which is purely social.

TWO NEW GERMAN TRAGEDIES.

CAMBRIDGE, May 25, 1896.

ERNST VON WILDENBRUCH and Gerhart Hauptmann are, in a way, representatives of two extremes in contemporary German literature: Wildenbruch fiery, passionate, rhetorical. Hauptmann dreamy, brooding, visionary; Wildenbruch, an ardent monarchist, a zealous supporter of the present régime, seeing the salvation of Germany in a continued supremacy of Bismarckian principles; Hauptmann, a Democrat if not a Socialist, in deepest sympathy with the sufferings of the "disinherited," hoping for the millennium of universal brotherhood. Wildenbruch, an idealist of the straightforward, unreflective type, sunny, serene, somewhat inclined toward melodramatic effects; Hauptmann, a strange mixture of a pessimistic realism and of a mystic faith in the glory of the unseen, disdaining all that is not absolutely genuine and true. Wildenbruch the greater playwright; Hauptmann the greater poet. This contrast of artistic temper, while it marks the whole literary career of the two men, has never been brought out more conspicuously than in the two great historical dramas which have been the event of the year on the Berlin stage: Hauptmann's "Florian Geyer" and Wildenbruch's "Heinrich und Heinrichs Geschlecht."

That Wildenbruch's "Heinrich" should have easily carried off the crown of popular success, is not surprising. As a stage show it is simply overwhelming. Here we have all the brilliancy of diction, the intensity of action, the irresistible surging up to a grand climax which give eternal youth to Schiller's dramas; and, added thereto, we have the lifelikeness, the palpability, the breadth of detail, in which modern realism revels. Here we see, indeed, the gigantic figure of History herself striding over the stage, but we also see our own feelings, longings, and aspirations embodied in human forms, and recognize them as the real movers

and makers of national destinies. The subject of the drama is a struggle which, as Bismarck has said, dates back to the days when Agamemnon quarrelled with Calchas, the struggle between king and priest. The principal combatants in this struggle are Henry IV. and Gregory VII.; the prize for which it is fought out is Germany. With true dramatic instinct Wildenbruch throughout the play—which is intended for two successive evenings—maintains himself on the very height of his subject; he leaps, as it were, from catastrophe to catastrophe, leaving it to the imagination of his hearers to make its way after him through the dark glens and ravines that lead up to these shining mountain peaks.

In the beginning we see Henry as a boy, an impetuous, imperious youth, smarting under the discipline of a fanatically religious mother, burning with the desire to equal the fame of his heroic father, at last thrust into the prison walls of monastic asceticism under the tutorship of Anno, Archbishop of Cologne. Next he appears as King, in the acme of his power. He has subdued the rebellious Saxons; he enters triumphantly his faithful Worms; he is received by the citizens as the protector of civil freedom against princely tyranny and clerical arrogance; all Germany seems to rise in a grand ovation to her beloved leader. Intoxicated by his success, he resents all the more deeply the paternal admonitions of Pope Gregory about the looseness of his private life which are just then conveyed to him; he insists on being crowned Emperor at once; and, when this request is not complied with, he allows himself to be carried away by his indomitable wrath, he forces his bishops into that insulting letter by which Gregory is declared a usurper, a felon, a blasphemer, to be driven out from the sanctuary of the Church which he pollutes by his presence.

And now we are introduced to the other great character of the drama, to the opposite of this fiery, unmanageable young ruler, to Gregory, the self possessed and self abasing priest, the man in whose soul there seems to be no room for any passion except the passion for the cause of the Church, for the triumph of the spirit over the flesh, and who nevertheless harbors in his breast, unknown to himself, the most consuming ambition and the most colossal egotism. We see him sitting *in cathedra* in the basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore. Suppliants and criminals are brought before him. A Flemish count, who has committed murder, and who has in vain fled throughout the length and breadth of Europe in quest of delivery from the anguish of his tormented conscience, beseeches the Pope to put an end to his wretched life; Gregory, instead, holds out to him the hope of salvation through joining a crusade. A Roman noble, who in robber knight fashion has made an assault upon the Pope, and who by the clergy and the people has been condemned to death for this crime, is pardoned by Gregory—"for he has sinned, not against the Church, the holy one, but against Gregory, a poor, feeble mortal." A lay brother of St. Peter's, who, disguised as priest, has taken money from foreign pilgrims for reading mass to them, and who by the clergy and the people has been sentenced to a fine and exile, is ordered by Gregory to be thrown into the Tiber—"for he has sinned against the Church, he has cheated human souls of their salvation."

These scenes have just passed before our eyes when the messengers of King Henry, bearing the letter of libel and vilification, are admitted. Gregory is the only one who in the tumult that follows its reading remains absolutely calm; he protects the messenger himself against the rage of the Romans; he forgives Henry, the man, for what he has said against Gregory, the man.

"For what he has said against the head of the Holy Church, for that let Henry be cursed! I forbid all Christians to serve thee as a King, I release them from the oath that they have sworn thee. Thou, darkness revolting against light, return to chaos! Thou, wave revolting against the ocean, return to naught! No bell shall be sounded in the city where Henry dwells, no church be opened, no sacrament be administered. Where Henry dwells, death shall dwell! Let my legates go forth and announce my message to the world!"

The climax of the whole drama is, as it should be, the Canossa catastrophe. It is here that Gregory, the victor in the political game, succumbs morally; that Henry, the vanquished, rises in his native greatness. It is here that Gregory, with all his soaring idealism, reveals himself as an inhuman monster; that Henry, with all his faults and frailties, arouses to the full the sympathy which we cannot help feeling for a bravely struggling man.

The excommunication of Henry has plunged Germany into civil war. A rival king, Rudolf of Swabia, has been proclaimed. He and the chiefs of his party have come to Canossa to obtain the papal sanction for their revolt. Gregory clearly sees that Rudolf is nothing but a figure-head, a mere tool in the hands of fanatic conspirators, totally unfit to rule an empire. He clearly feels it his duty to discountenance this revolt, to restore peace to Germany by making his peace with Henry. But the demon of ambition lurking in his breast beguiles him with a vision of world dominion: he, the servant of the servants of God, shall be the arbiter of Europe; he, the plebeian, shall see the crowns of kings roll before him in the dust. He does *not* discountenance Rudolf and his set; and when Henry appears before the castle, broken and humiliated, asking for absolution from the ban, Gregory remains unmoved. For three days and nights the King stands before the gate in ice and snow; for three days and nights the Pope sits in his chair, speechless, sleepless, refusing to eat or drink. At last, the intercession of Henry's mother, who, herself in the shadow of death, has come to pray for her son's salvation, softens Gregory's heart: he admits Henry to his presence. Henry appears, a king even in his misery. He bends his knee before the Pope, he confesses his guilt, he acknowledges the justice of his punishment. The reconciliation is brought about. Just then Henry's glance falls upon Rudolf and his followers standing in the background. He greets them as friends, thinking that they have come to renew their allegiance to him. But they rudely repulse him, and boast of the Pope's intention to acknowledge Rudolf as King. And Gregory does *not* contradict them. With fearful suddenness Henry sees what a shameful game has been played with him; and yet he masters himself, he makes one last appeal to whatever there is of true feeling in his opponent:

"God, help me against myself! Christ, Saviour, who wast thyself a king among the heavenly host and didst bow thy neck under the scourge, help me against myself! (*He turns abruptly toward Gregory.*) Once before I knelt before thee—I did it for myself. (*He falls down on his knees.*) Here, a second time, I lie before thee, for Germany lie I here! Break thy silence! Thy silence is the coffin in which the happiness of Germany is entombed! If thou didst know how unhappy this Germany is thou wouldst speak—speak! Thou, ordained by God to bring peace to the world, let me take peace with me on my way to Germany, not war, not howling civil war!"

And Gregory remains silent! From here on to the end of the drama there is nothing but revenge, and revenge on revenge. And this work of destruction does not stop until both Gregory and Henry have breathed their last. Both men die in defeat and desolation; both die inwardly unbroken—Gregory trusting in the future triumph of the Church, Henry trusting in the indestructible vitality of the German people.

A few words may be added about Hauptmann's "Florian Geyer," although it is impossible to do justice to this work except by reading and analyzing it scene by scene. The defects of Hauptmann's dramatic style are here, perhaps, more clearly visible than in any previous production of his. The lack of unity, the absence of a true hero, which were seen in "Die Weber," characterize this drama also. And, in addition to this, there is a slowness and diffuseness of movement which must be fatal to its effect as a theatrical piece. And yet it is impossible to resist the impression that here we are face to face with the creation of a great artist. Hauptmann sees things not as they appear on the stage, but as they are in life. He seems to have no thought of how his figures may affect his hearers. He simply tells what he sees, and he tells it with that wonderful directness which is the privilege of children and poets. Not a phrase which could not thus have been spoken; not an event which could not thus have taken place; not a character which would not probably have taken just this turn; and, beneath all this realism, that strange belief in a hidden life which makes us feel that all these outward happenings are only feeble manifestations of some grand mysterious central force working under their surface. This is the manner in which Hauptmann in this drama makes us live through the great German peasant revolt of the sixteenth century, its glorious beginning and its miserable end; its hopes, triumphs, excesses, massacres, failures; its noble enthusiasm, its dark fanaticism, its savageness and greed, its egotism and pettiness. And it is not too much to say that in order to understand what is implied by the word "Revolution," one could do no better than to study the details of this strangely monotonous and strangely fascinating picture of popular wrath and popular delusion.

That German literature during the last decade has entered upon a new era of genuine productivity must have been clear for some time past to every intelligent observer. That this new movement should have acquired sufficient strength to produce, only a year or two after the triumphs achieved by "Heimat" and "Die Weber," two dramas of such heroic dimensions and such extraordinary power as Hauptmann's "Florian Geyer" and Wildenbruch's "Heinrich," is nevertheless a surprise, and seems to justify the hopes of those who see in the present revolt against conventions the dawn of another epoch of classic perfection of form.

KUNO FRANCKE.

MADAME DE CHASTENAY.

PARIS, May 21, 1896.

THE period of transition between the Terror and the establishment of the Empire will always possess the greatest interest; we find in it the remaining representatives of the old régime mixing with the representatives of an entirely new social order. The émigrés are returning one by one from their exile; they are anxious to have their names struck off from the lists which marked their persons for the

guillotine and their estates for confiscation. They are no longer in fear of the guillotine, but they are still under the eye of the police; they have found a part of their estates sold as national estates, oftentimes to their ancient dependants; they try to save what still remains unsold. They are obliged to solicit the help of the men in power; they are seen in the anterooms of the Terrorists who made the ninth Thermidor; they present petitions to the Directors; they see a new Paris, new fortunes, new dresses, new manners—a new France. This contrast has seldom been shown in a better light than in the memoirs, recently published, of Madame de Chastenay, who belonged to a distinguished family of Burgundy. Born in Paris in 1771, she died at Châtillon-sur-Seine only on May 9, 1855. I have known a few persons who saw her in her old age, and who were habitués of her salon. She was always called Madame de Chastenay (though she had never been married), by virtue by her title of Canoness, given to her when she was only fourteen. This title was conferred only on ladies who could prove the nobility of their paternal and maternal families for a number of generations by written documents. It was in itself a mark of the highest gentility. Some of the abbeys which conferred the rank of Canoness were so strict (for instance, the Abbey of Remiremont in Lorraine) that it would have been impossible for the ladies of the highest rank, even for the Princess of Bourbon, to become canonesses in them on account of some misalliance or of some morganatic union.

We can therefore take it for granted, without losing ourselves in genealogies without interest, that Mlle. de Chastenay was of the purest aristocratic class or set. Her father was an officer of dragoons. At the age of fourteen she was named Canoness of Épinal (her aunt was Abbess of Épinal). The proofs had been made according to rule, a paternal filiation of eight nobles *d'épée*, and the same number on the maternal side:

"I remember that at vespers the whole chapter [there were twenty ladies in all] came to take me from my aunt's house. I had a black gown. One of the knights of the chapter gave me his hand; the garrison band preceded us. When we arrived in the choir of the church, I kneeled; the abbess said to me, 'What do you ask, my daughter?' Answer: 'The bread and the wine of Saint Goëry [the patron of the chapter], to serve God and the holy Virgin.' I had to eat some biscuit, to wet my lips in a cup; they put on me a great blue cordon, with a hanging cross, a long mantle fringed with ermine, a black veil. A Te-Deum was sung, the procession returned in the same order, and a ball began at my aunt's. I amused myself much at this ball, as well as at those which succeeded during the five days of my stay at Épinal. I had wept during the ceremony, but the dance consoled me very rapidly."

Mlle. de Chastenay was eighteen years old in 1789; she was very intelligent and quite capable of understanding all the questions which agitated the country before the Revolution. She was reading Montesquieu, Locke, Mably, and a thousand political productions of the time. "I loved liberty," she says with a rare candor. "I was, in the fullest sense of the term, a very 'exalted' person." When the election to the States-General took place, her father was elected by the nobility of the bailiwick of Châtillon in Burgundy. Mlle. de Chastenay analyzes very well the sentiments which animated the order of the nobility at the States-General. In the elections, the question at issue between the candidates was the vote per caput or the vote by order. The vote per caput implied the principle of popular representation, in which the three orders were to be merged; the vote by order implied the political distinction of the ancient orders of the nobility, the clergy, and the Tiers-État. At Versailles the order of the nobility divided promptly. The majority was formed of the nobles who from this moment were called aristocrats—chiefly provincial nobles, who had not lived at court, and who lived on their estates. The minority was liberal; it comprised the most brilliant young men, whose families were accustomed to live at court, the leaders of fashion, the young officers who had fought in the American war. The Duke of Orleans, a prince of the blood, belonged to this minority. The members of the majority meant to maintain the privileges of their order, with the exception of the pecuniary privileges, which they were willing to sacrifice, and to preserve the prerogative of the Crown. The minority was prepared to make all needful sacrifices to work in harmony with the Tiers-État.

Mlle. de Chastenay was, like her father, an ardent admirer of the reformers. "I was," she says, "*dans le délire*." She tells us the story of the first events of the Revolution in a graphic manner. Her *délire* received great shocks when she saw an "odious multitude" take Louis XVI. back from Versailles to Paris. "Some men had loaves of bread on their pikes or their bayonets; but, what people will find difficult of belief, the heads of the murdered Guards preceded, borne in triumph, and, by a horrible refinement, they had their bloody hair *frisé* at Sèvres. The National Guard marched behind these horrible banners." Mlle. de Chastenay remained in Burgundy during the winter of 1789-1790; she returned to Paris in the spring, and found the tide of emigration in full force, and society having for its *mot d'ordre*, "The King is captive and all his acts are forced." She spent the worst times of the Terror in Rouen, and nothing can be more interesting than her narrative of the life which she led in the capital of Normandy during this terrible period. There is a realism in her account which transcends in its eloquence the declamation of many writers:

"The life which we led was of great simplicity and of profound obscurity. The art of the time was to isolate one's self. . . . We had no illusions; we said to each other, my brother and myself, when walking in the evening in the delicious vales round Rouen, that within six months we should all fall under the axe of the Revolution. Still, the flowers charmed us, we made drawings, we indulged in music, we read novels, we had our moments of pleasure; and after our violent and sudden emotions we experienced every day those movements of joy which resemble hope. The days succeeded each other. Mamma had heroic courage; and we had been forbidden to hear the horrible reading of papers. . . . A complete famine, an absolute poverty, added to the misery of the times; the *maximum* made it complete. A deputy named Siblot appeared in Rouen, and, as meat was becoming scarce, he gave orders that not a pound of it should be sold. . . . People had to form in *queue* at the baker's; a few pounds of rice would have been called a monopoly. . . . A ring at the door-bell caused us horrible pains and a cold sweat."

A member of the Convention named Alquier was sent to Rouen on a mission. He knew the father of Mlle. de Chastenay, and was able to protect him.

"Regicide through fear, he yet voted for the appeal to the people, and hoped thus to save his own life and not to commit a crime. I know how this mixture of acts and sentiments will seem odious to persons fortunate enough never to have sinned, perhaps because they never had occasion to do so. We were under the greatest obligations to M. Alquier. . . . We had also in the committee a very obliging protector, M. Godebin, a dyer, who was not a bad man, but whose manners and tone, without being inspired by the great wrath of the *Père Duchesne*, were far from mild. My father, towards five o'clock in the morning, paid him short visits, and received from him rules of conduct; in no way to attract attention was the primary lesson. My father ordered, by his advice, a coat styled *carmagnole*, so as to appear on the street dressed like everybody else."

A law of April 16, 1794, directed against suspected persons and the nobles, forbade the latter to remain in Paris or in the maritime cities. Mlle. de Chastenay had to return with her father and mother to Châtillon. They had to pass round Paris by Saint Denis and Charenton; it was on the day when Mme. Elizabeth ascended the guillotine. The poor travellers met with constant and touching pity among the people in their difficult journey. "My brother having left the carriage while the postillion was mending something, they remained for a few minutes together, sad and silent; 'So you are a nobleman,' at last said the postillion. 'Yes,' answered my brother. 'Oh, God!' said the postillion with a great sigh, and remounted his horse." It was so everywhere along the road; at Châtillon they found the Terror in full force. By an unfortunate mistake, the name of M. de Chastenay had been placed, in his absence, on the list of the émigrés, and he had to hide himself. Mlle. de Chastenay was imprisoned. We learn from her what a provincial prison was in 1794. She had to live in the same room as the concierge, his wife, several children and several prisoners. Her father was arrested, taken to Dijon, and from Dijon to Paris. The 9th Thermidor saved him; he had had the good fortune to be defended before the tribunal by Réal, who was to play an important part in Mlle. de Chastenay's life. Réal was a lawyer and gave himself up to the defence of the accused. "Witty, animated, with a shining talent; good, natural, full of sensibility, he espoused my father's cause with enthusiasm." The admiration thus expressed for the man who saved her father's life was the beginning of a *liaison* which lasted nearly all her life.

Mlle. de Chastenay behaved very courageously before the municipality of Châtillon; she was set free, but the times were still very troubled. The 9th Thermidor had not put an immediate end to the Terror. "The day which followed the acquittal of my father was," she says, "marked in Paris by the apotheosis of Marat—that is to say, by the transfer of his remains to the Pantheon." Mlle. de Chastenay spent the autumn of 1794 in Dijon; she was at Châtillon in 1795, and had occasion to see there an officer of artillery, Marmont (who became Marshal Marmont). "The young officer had just come from the army of Provence, then called the army of Italy; he was accompanied by General Bonaparte, a general of artillery, who was on his way to Nantes, where he was to take command of the army of the West. M. de Marmont was his friend, but not his aide de-camp. The General, who was then twenty-six years old, had been educated at the Military School with a cousin of M. de Marmont." General Bonaparte was accompanied by his brother Louis, who was then sixteen years old, and was himself getting his education. Mlle. de Chastenay made the acquaintance of Bonaparte; her face had struck him. She had with him a conversation which lasted four hours after dinner (people dined then at two o'clock).

"I am sorry not to have written down our conversation; there are only fragments of it in my mind. . . . I soon discovered that the General had no republican faith or maxims. I was surprised, but he was absolutely frank

on the subject. He spoke of the resistance which the Revolution had met; the resistance was not over, and success was impossible. . . . The General told me, what was true, that the mass of the army was wholly alien to the bloody events of which France had been the theatre; it ignored them completely, and he seemed to believe that the army, always in the hands of the *de facto* authority, would not interfere with parties, and would take on no special color. Bonaparte spoke of the poems of Ossian, whom he admired, of 'Paul and Virginia'; he spoke of happiness. He said that for a man it ought to consist in the highest development of his faculties.

"At the time when this conversation, memorable for me, took place, I had the intimate conviction that whoever should offer a centre to opinion would seize the helm which was in nobody's hand, would dare to call himself, and would in effect become, chief and king, and would find no obstacle, because nothing was established, and no man fixed the confidence or even the attention of all. I think that I said so, and it would be singular that I should thus have been his prophetess. I know positively that, preoccupied with this idea, I spoke of it to everybody. . . . My memory does not give me any assurance of having laid this idea before Bonaparte. However, he always remembered our conversation, and I do not think that it was because I spoke to him of Virginia and of Ossian."

Correspondence.

WASHINGTON'S LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Ford's 'Washington,' vol. xiv., p. 286, there is some account of the Bishop Wilson Bible which Washington gave in his will to Bryan, Lord Fairfax, with a few remarks about the circumstances of its acquisition by Washington. In a search among the Washington papers in the State Department for information about the gathering of Washington's library, I found a letter from Clement Cruttwell, which explains how Washington came by the Wilson Bible, and a copy of which I enclose. The Concordance mentioned in the letter is now in the Washington collection in the Boston Athenæum, a catalogue of which is now in the press. According to Mr. Ford, the Bible is now in the Library of Congress.

Very truly yours,

Appleton P. C. Griffin.

Boston Athenæum, June 3, 1896.

Wokingham Berkshire May 1st 1794

Sir,—By the Will of the late D[r] Wilson Prebendary of Westminster & Rector of S. Stephens Walbrook in London I was directed to transmit to your Excellency a Copy of his Fathers Works, the Venerable Bishop of Sodor & Man; and the English Bible in which are contained the Notes of the good Bishop.—I have yet delayed to fulfill the desire of my friend that I might at the same time have the honour of requesting a place in your Library for a work of my own A Concordance, by me intended as a Companion to the Bible. That you may long enjoy the Honours you have so well deserved in a country of peace & prosperity is the fervent wish and prayer of Your Excellency's

most obedient Servant and admirer

Clement Cruttwell.

AN OBJECT-LESSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Recently I had occasion to make a remittance to a correspondent in the city of Guatemala, Central America. I sent a bank draft for $25, drawn by a Chicago bank on a New York bank. Under date of May 16 I am advised by my correspondent in Guatemala, "Your check of $25 realized in this money $53, which amount is placed to your credit."

Just at this time a plain statement of facts such as the above may help some of those who are in the air theorizing to get back to terra firma and common sense. What honest man of ordinary intelligence can face the proposition

$25.00 = $53.00

and not realize that those who are clamoring for 16-to-1 silver are more dangerous to our country than if they were engaged in an open insurrection? A nation can stand wounds and hard raps and deprivations and come out all right, but it can't stand an unlimited amount of mind-poisoning.—Very respectfully,

A. T. H. Brower.

Chicago, June 4, 1896.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish 'Sport in the Alps,' by W. A. Baillie-Grohman, with numerous illustrations from instantaneous photographs.

G. P. Putnam's Sons issue immediately 'Camping in the Canadian Rockies,' by Walter D. Wilcox, with many plate and text illustrations.

'A Cycle of Cathay,' by Dr. W. A. P. Martin; a Life of Robert Whitaker McAll, founder of the mission which bears his name; and a Life of Dr. A. J. Gordon, are in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

The Macmillan Co., as we must now denominate the newly incorporated firm, have in preparation a 'Kipling Birthday Book,' with decorative illustrations from the deft hand of the elder Kipling; and 'Humphry Davy, Poet and Philosopher,' in the "Century Science Series."

Henry Holt & Co. will make a book of Horace Annesley Vachell's serial story, 'The Quicksands of Pactolus,' lately running in the *Overland Monthly*.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will bring out the lectures recently delivered in this city and elsewhere by Prince Volkonsky, under the title, 'Pictures of Russian History and Literature,' with an introduction by Prof. C. E. Norton.

'The Graduate Courses' for 1896-'97, offered by twenty-three of our leading colleges and universities, is just ready. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn are the publishers.

A coöperative volume, 'The Cambridge of Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-Six,' with the imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., will be a permanent outcome of the current celebration of that Massachusetts city's fiftieth anniversary of corporate existence.

The Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo, have nearly ready a 'Dictionary of Buffalo, Niagara Falls, Tonawanda, and Vicinity,' with maps and illustrations.

Way & Williams, Chicago, announce 'The Sonnet in England, and Other Essays,' by the late James Ashcroft Noble; a volume of essays by Mrs. Meynell, 'The Color of Life'; and 'From Cairo to the Sudan Frontier,' by H. D. Traill.

'In the Kingdom of the Shah,' by E. Treacher Collins, is a timely publication to be expected from T. Fisher Unwin.

Mr. T. Hamilton Crawford's illustrations in line and wash were not unworthy to be made the occasion of a fresh edition of Robert Louis Stevenson's "picturesque notes" of his 'Edinburgh' (Macmillan), a work having, in addition to the author's wonted charm of style, an historical value. Perhaps the style will not bear comparison with George Borrow's in the stirring Edinburgh chapter of 'Lavengro,' where one may read of mob warfare between Old Town and New, of which even the memory has disappeared from Stevenson's annals. The volume is beautifully made. The same firm sends us two more volumes of its Dickens reprint, edited by the younger Dickens, containing (1) 'The Uncommercial Traveller' and 'A Child's History of England,' and (2) a number of pieces from *Household Words* and *All the Year Round*, chronologically arranged, excepting "The Lazy Tour of Two Idle Apprentices," written in collaboration with Wilkie Collins, which is reserved for the end, and furnishes nearly a fourth of the volume. Finally, we report further progress in Mr. Gollancz's dainty edition of Shakspere (Dent-Macmillan), by the appearance of "Julius Cæsar," "Romeo and Juliet," "Timon of Athens," and "Titus Andronicus."

The Harpers have given a handsome new dress to Mark Twain's anti-slavery tract, 'The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn,' providing it with a frontispiece portrait of the author and with some rather slight illustrations by E. W. Kemble. Its power to interest and amuse has suffered nothing in the dozen years since it first saw the light.

Messrs. Putnam have published apart from Mr. M. D. Conway's edition of Thomas Paine's Writings the 'Age of Reason' in a thin volume uniform with 'The Rights of Man.' An introduction by Mr. Conway has much curious information to impart about the fortunes of the work at the hands of editors, printers, and translators.

A little volume styled 'McKinley's Masterpieces' has been put together by R. L. Paget and published, with a portrait, by the Joseph Knight Co. of Boston. The editor assures us that "No American of this age can afford not to read McKinley's speeches." There is a sense in which this may, unhappily, become a truth; but in the evil day of his candidacy it will be needful to go to the larger collection made by the aspirant himself with a view to the impending contingency, for a just appreciation of the dull, commonplace, untrained, incoherent mind of the rigger of the St. Louis convention. Still, let us quote this "masterly" definition of the "good dollars" the now silent Ohioan wanted in 1890 (June 25), speaking in his place in the House: "As good in the hands of the poor as the rich; equal dollars, equal in inherent merit, equal in purchasing power, whether they be paper dollars, or gold dollars, or silver dollars, or Treasury notes—each convertible into the other and each exchangeable for the other, because each is based upon equal value and has behind it equal security; good, not by fiat of law alone, but good because the whole commercial world recognizes its inherent and inextinguishable value."

Mr. Temple Scott's 'Book Sales of 1895' (London: Henry Stevens' Son & Stiles) challenges comparison with Elliot Stock's 'Book-Prices Current' for the same year. The new-comer is more elegant, but not, we think, more exact, in its typography, is not alphabetically arranged under each sale as in the rival compilation, and only rarely names the purchaser. Its index has a certain superior convenience in that it often repeats the dates of the works catalogued. Finally, the volume, though standing as high on the shelf, is somewhat thicker and broader than 'Book-Prices Current.' The latter seems the more inclusive, but we have made no searching test of this, and are, for our own part, glad to have both

volumes at hand, while not persuaded that the book-buying public needs the double service.

If one were to judge merely from the numerous attempts and repeated failures, the task of writing an account of the government of the United States for the use of schools would have to be set down as one of extraordinary difficulty. We had supposed that the old method of commenting upon the clauses and phrases of the Constitution seriatim had been long since abandoned; but Prof. Allen E. Rogers returns to it in 'Our System of Government' (Orono, Me.: The Author), and with rather unsatisfactory results. The book is really an elementary text-book of "civil government," with frequent excursions into constitutional law; but, while there is too little law for the lawyers, we fear there is a great deal too much for the schools, at the same time that the detailed information regarding the practical workings of government in the United States is comparatively slight. There is a chapter on the Constitution and administrative organization of Maine which will have some local interest and importance.

Another volume in Methuen & Co.'s series of classical translations has reached us, Cicero's 'De Natura Deorum.' The translator, Mr. Francis Brooks of University College, Bristol, is not without skill in the art. His version is close, yet idiomatic; readable, without being disfigured by the modern colloquialisms with which many recent translators, while seeking after liveliness, succeed only in bringing the classics down to their own level of mediocrity. We should have welcomed fuller notes than those which Mr. Brooks has given us, and we may repeat that a translation, to be really useful, should have, at the top of every page, references to the book and section of the original.

M. Deloche, in his 'Le Port des Anneaux dans l'antiquité romaine et dans les premières siècles du moyen âge,' by no means exhausts a subject which in those periods was concerned with public and official as well as with private life. It is, in fact, much too extensive for treatment, like his, in the "Mémoires de l' Académie," and it deserves a large volume to itself. His brochure, however, may serve to map out the ground and to show the divisions into which a fuller investigation may conveniently fall, for he has a good conception of its broader outlines and is capable of taking wide views of the field. It is in details that he breaks down, and indeed he seems better acquainted with the mediæval than with the classical part of his subject. It is suspicious when a writer refers to Plautus (*M. G.* 95), as evidence that rings were used in betrothals so early as the second century B. C., when in fact the ring there in question is supposed to be sent as a love-token by a married woman to her lover! It looks almost worse to find Terence cited as authority for *Roman* life without a hint of his Greek originals. And M. Deloche does not seem to understand the principle on which the ring was given in betrothals—as a symbol of *arrha*, earnest money to bind a bargain. For, to the old Roman, marriage was nothing if not a business contract. On the whole, we cannot recommend M. Deloche to any but collectors of material.

The fourth volume of Coppée's 'Mon Francparler' (Paris: Lemerre) contains many pages of excellent reading, notably those on Bourget, Les Parnassiens, and Alexandre Dumas.

Dr. Henri Lion's thesis for the doctorate forms a solid volume on a solid subject, 'Les Tragédies et les théories dramatiques de Voltaire' (Paris: Hachette). Naturally enough, having read and reread the tragedies, having studied the correspondence and the criticisms, friendly or hostile, Dr. Lion ends by having a pretty high opinion of Voltaire as a dramatist, and a still higher one of him as a Force, with a capital. It is not possible to agree fully with this writer, but one is grateful to him for the conscientious piece of work he has produced, and which becomes at once indispensable to students of the drama or of Voltaire. The book is full of valuable information.

Boussod, Valadon & Co., 303 Fifth Avenue, send us the first parts of the annual "Figaro Salon," each of which is accompanied by a color print of double size. M. Philippe Gille supplies the discourse for the illustrations; his task has not been easy this year.

The Atlas of the Pacific Ocean lately issued by the Deutsche Seewarte at Hamburg follows similar works for the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and will soon be supplemented by a sailing handbook of thorough German quality —a quality commonly regarded as too high for our run of seamen, but greatly appreciated by those of more scientific training. The charts of the winds for the opposite seasons are perhaps of the most general interest. Here we see the southeast trades persistent in the eastern south-torrid ocean, but gradually curving to join the Australian northwest monsoon of the southern summer, or extending far beyond the equator as the southeast monsoon of Asia, even as far north as the Sea of Okhotsk in the northern summer. The prevailing westerly winds of far southern latitudes maintain their considerable strength with small change the year round, but those of the high northern latitudes vary from gales in winter to moderate winds in summer. The charts of ocean currents are also prepared for the opposite seasons; these exhibit with great clearness the variation of the counter current that flows eastward north of the equator, broad and fully developed in our summer, narrow and weak in our winter. Agreeably to the theory that ascribes the equatorial counter currents to the monsoon-like deflection of the trades as they cross the equator into the summer hemisphere, a counter current appears trending along the Solomon Islands, east of New Guinea, during the summer. In this same region, the Pacific has tropical cyclones in January and February; thus repeating in both these features the habit of the Indian rather than of the Atlantic Ocean.

The liberalizing spirit of to-day asserts itself in the latest recommendation of the Council of the Senate of Cambridge University in favor of the affiliation of St. Edmund's College, Old Hall, Ware. This Roman Catholic College claims to be the oldest seat of higher education in England belonging to the Romish Church, having in 1793 become the recognized successor to the original college of Douai, France, established in the sixteenth century for the education of English priests. The curriculum of St. Edmund's College, hitherto based on the requirements for the Arts degrees at London University, will in the future be arranged so as to harmonize with the courses at the University of Cambridge.

Certain reactionary influences of college life in a university town are no less strikingly shown by the results of a recent plébiscite taken by the *Cambridge Review*, to test the feeling among resident members of this same English university, below the degree of M.A., in regard to the admission of women to Cambridge degrees. Out of 2,830 post-cards distributed for voting purposes, 2,138 were promptly returned, filled out; of this number 1,692, or nearly 80 per cent., were against the granting of degrees to women, and only 437, or less than 21 per cent., in favor of it; four cautious spirits reported themselves as neutral on the subject.

The new Southern History Association will hold its first annual meeting at Columbian University, Washington, on June 12, at eight P. M. The programme includes an inaugural address by the President, Postmaster-General Wilson, and seven papers, limited to twenty minutes in length, with five minutes for comment. Headquarters will be at the Ebbitt House.

A confusion favored by family affiliations occurred in our notice last week of Recent Poetry, when we attributed (p. 438, middle column) 'Songs from the Greek' to Jane Sedgwick Minot in place of Jane Minot Sedgwick, to whom we tender an apology.

—Some years ago Prof. Alois Brandl (then of Göttingen, now of Berlin) startled Chaucerians by a new thesis concerning "The Squire's Tale." He maintained that this poem, hitherto regarded as one of the most spontaneous and spirited of Chaucer's works, was nothing but an allegorical account of the matrimonial infelicities of John of Gaunt's daughter Elizabeth. Though supported with much acuteness and some learning, this hypothesis was palpably untenable, and it was accordingly withdrawn by its author after it had "walked the town awhile." Since then little has been done for "The Squire's Tale," and discussion of its sources has pretty well ceased. The latest number of the "Publications" of the American Modern Language Association, however, contains an article which is likely to cause some throwing about of brains. We refer to Prof. Manly's essay on "Marco Polo and the Squire's Tale." As our readers are aware, Prof. Skeat, about twenty years ago, maintained, in his school edition of "The Squire's Tale," that Chaucer was indebted to Marco Polo's 'Travels' for his description of the Tartar court, and this contention has met with general acquiescence, though here and there a scholar has expressed himself with reserve on the subject. In his Oxford edition of Chaucer, reviewed in these columns last year, Prof. Skeat contented himself with reprinting the substance of his previous investigation. Dissatisfied with the grounds of Prof. Skeat's opinions, Prof. Manly has examined the question afresh, and his results differ widely from those of his predecessors. If Marco Polo, he argues, was Chaucer's authority for Tartar manners and politics, the English poet has treated his voucher in an extraordinary fashion, omitting or altering all that is characteristic or peculiar, and retaining only those commonplaces which he could have found as well in a dozen other accessible sources. Prof. Manly's destructive criticism seems to us altogether convincing; unless unexpected evidence is forthcoming, Marco Polo is "out of the story" henceforth. Construction Prof. Manly does not attempt. He contents himself with remarking, at the end of his excellent paper, that, in his opinion, Chaucer found the names of his characters and his *mise en scène*, as well as the outline of his plot, in the as yet undiscovered source of the tale. With this conclusion we are inclined to agree, and we await with lively interest Prof. Manly's promised article on Chaucer's "relations to certain men who had travelled widely." Unless some record-searcher makes an uncommonly lucky discovery, we seem to be at the end of our immediate information about Chaucer: all the more reason why scholars

should look sharply after those of his contemporaries with whom he may have come in contact.

—Mr. George Neilson has added to his instructive and entertaining essays on mediæval subjects an investigation into the source and extent of the widely current belief that Englishmen had tails. It appears in a reprint from the Proceedings of the Glasgow Archæological Society, and seemingly exhausts the history of the *Caudatus Anglicus*—the reproach which for centuries was cast upon natives of Britain by their enemies and rivals in Scotland and on the Continent. Even towards the close of the sixteenth century, William Lambarde, in his Perambulation of Kent, is moved to indignation at the slander "so that the whole English nation is in foreine countries abroad earnestly flowted with this dishonourable note in so much that many believe as verity that we be monsters & have tailes by nature, as other men have their due partes & members in usuall manner." The belief seems to have originated in the later twelfth century as a legend that when St. Augustin of Canterbury was preaching to the pagan Saxons of Dorsetshire, they not only refused to be converted, but in derision pinned fish-tails to his garments, whereupon the angry saint prayed that their children might be born with tails, and God granted the prayer. A later variant ascribes it to another Archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Becket, the tail of whose sumpter-horse was docked to despite him. The growth and extension of the belief are followed by Mr. Neilson through the centuries with his customary research and vigor of exposition down to the time of Andrew Marvell, who illustrates the danger of episcopal indignation:

> "Never shall Calvin pardoned be for Sales;
> Never, for Burnet's sake, the Lauderdales;
> For Becket's sake Kent always shall have tails."

—Recently published educational statistics of Germany present some points of interest as regards the relative attendance of members of the principal religious bodies at the higher institutions of learning, namely, the scientific and classical gymnasia, in which courses of study are pursued preparatory to the polytechnic school and the university. On a basis of 10,000, the proportion of pupils attending these institutions is in Prussia 27 Catholics to 50 Protestants and 333 Jews; in Saxony 22 Catholics to 40 Protestants and 357 Jews; in Bavaria 42 Catholics to 67 Protestants and 370 Jews; in Würtemberg 53 Catholics to 93 Protestants and 590 Jews; in Baden 41 Catholics to 86 Protestants and 417 Jews; in Hesse 50 Catholics to 67 Protestants and 333 Jews. Thus it will be seen that, in the six largest German states, containing 87 per cent. of the entire population of the Empire, the Catholics are far behind the Protestants in their desire for higher education, and the Jews vastly superior in this respect to both the Christian organizations together. It would, therefore, be perfectly natural and just, other things being equal, that, in proportion to their numbers, Protestants should hold more positions of honor, trust, emolument, and influence in the state than Catholics, and Jews more than Protestants and Catholics combined. Indeed, this is generally true in respect to Protestants, but not in respect to Jews, who, owing to anti-Semitic prejudice, fail to receive the recognition in the civil and military service to which their culture and capacity would entitle them. Not long since an anti-Semitic orator in Berlin made it a reproach to the Jew that he is eager to give his children every possible educational advantage and thus render it more difficult for Christians to compete with them. "Therefore down with the Jew!" was his conclusion.

—The undeniable fact that Catholics furnish proportionately fewer aspirants after higher education than Protestants is due to a variety of causes, two of which may be mentioned as perhaps the most important. The first of these is sacerdotal celibacy. The Protestant clergyman conscientiously fulfils the Scriptural injunction to "be fruitful and multiply," and is usually blessed with a numerous offspring. He belongs, also, to what has been called "the Academic Races," and his sons are expected to study, if not theology, at least one of the learned professions. Thus the Protestant parsons of Germany furnish quite a large quota of its academical citizens, and their descendants, whether clergy or laity, inherit a taste for learning, and, in most cases, pursue some course of study at the university. On the other hand, whatever may be the aptitudes and attainments of the Catholic priest in scholarship, these traits remain purely individual and are not transmitted to posterity. The second cause is the persistently hostile attitude of the ecclesiastical and political leaders of the Catholic party to the superior grades of secular education. In conventions of the Church as well as in public assemblies and in Parliament they are constantly denouncing scientific schools and universities as hotbeds of irreligion, and thus deter many sincere Catholics from patronizing such godless institutions. But who ever heard a Jewish rabbi or the elders of the synagogue indulge in vituperation of this sort?

—Raoul Rosière's 'Recherches sur la Poésie Contemporaine' (Paris: A. Laisney) is a valuable contribution to critical literature, and must find a place on the shelves of every student of French literature. It is composed, as is usually the case at the present day, mostly of articles which have appeared in reviews and magazines, but, unlike many such articles, these are well worth collecting and preserving in book form. The two chapters on English and German influence on France in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries would alone give value to the work. They form part of a very sound criticism of Brunetière's 'Évolution de la Poésie lyrique en France au 19e siècle,' and are full of information. The "Genèse d'Hernani," which appeared in the number of the *Revue Bleue* for April 25, and in which the sources of that famous play are investigated, excites the desire that M. Rosière would publish an edition of that play with a commentary embodying the result of his investigations. He indicates "Amy Robsart" as the source of the first act. This drama, founded on Sir Walter Scott's 'Kenilworth,' was produced at the Odéon in 1828, and was a flat failure. At the time, the play was signed by Paul Foucher, Hugo's brother-in-law, but Foucher had nothing to do with it. The second act is inspired by Alarcón's "Tejedor de Segovia," the plot of which gave Hugo the main lines of "Hernani." The principal incident of the third act is drawn from another of Alarcón's plays, "Ganar Amigos." The fourth act is a reproduction of a portion of "Cromwell," famous for its preface. The fifth act is partly inspired by Shakspere's "Romeo and Juliet" and partly drawn from "Amy Robsart." Two other chapters are also especially worthy of attention, that on "Shakespeare sur nos Théâtres," and that on Jean-Marie Heredia.

MORSE'S HOLMES.

Life and Letters of Oliver Wendell Holmes. By John T. Morse, jr. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Our expectation of what a writer will do is shaped, perhaps unduly, by the best that he has done. Certainly when we heard that Mr. Morse would write the Life of Dr. Holmes, we recalled his Life of Lincoln, and congratulated ourselves upon another biography from the same skilful hand. In the 'Lincoln,' however, there was a necessity for compression everywhere. In the 'Holmes' a necessity for expansion seems to have possessed the biographer, and we have two volumes where all might have been said, and better said, in one. In the larger work Mr. Morse moved easily and as one at home; here fretfully, like a horse in an uncomfortable harness. Not only in his general manner is he somewhat deprecatory and apologetic, but of particular apologies there are not a few—some of them for the biographer's performance, and some for Dr. Holmes. One thing is sure—that no one will accuse Mr. Morse of having unduly magnified his subject. If Dr. Holmes thought more highly of himself than he ought to think, as has been sometimes charged and frequently surmised, Mr. Morse has made large atonement for his fault, for he has written of him as if beset by fears of claiming for him anything that the most grudging critic would not cheerfully allow.

In one respect the reader may justly complain that the promise of the Lincoln book is broken in the Holmes. There was no good reason why this should not have been made as coherent and symmetrical as that. In fact, it is more a series of separate essays than a continuous biography. Many things are anticipated that would better have waited for their appropriate time. The least excusable waste is that of Samuel May's pathetic letter describing the last meetings of the class of '29, which appears in vol. i., p. 78, when it should have been reserved for the concluding pages. The book lacks order and it especially lacks chronology, proper to which we have a notable instance in the case of "The Last Leaf." This poem is several times referred to, but its date, even proximately, is not given, and the poetry of the period is spoken of disparagingly, without an exception in favor of the poem which Mr. Morse himself sets in a higher niche of fame than "The Chambered Nautilus," though this was for Dr. Holmes his "one entire and perfect chrysolite."

Mr. Morse's arrangement of his matter is defective in one gross particular as well as in minor instances. In vol. ii., beginning with p. 107, we have several groups of letters—to Lowell, Motley, and others—which, interspersed with the narrative and critical portions of the book, would have given to those portions a much more important and attractive character than they now possess. For Mr. Morse does not conceal from us the fact that he has kept his best wine to the last, and served the poorer kinds along the earlier courses of the feast: "Nothing has been omitted which, by any liberality of judgment, could be supposed to have any interest; on the contrary, notes and letters are printed which would hardly have been selected if there had been an *embarras de richesses*." This is certainly not encouraging for a beginning. It is needlessly discouraging. Even the letters in the body of the book are better than this warning leads us to expect. Neither these nor the others have the charm of Lowell's bubbling effervescence

and explosive spontaneity. They were, for the most part, written as carefully as Emerson's to Carlyle, and as if with a view to posthumous publication. But they are good letters nevertheless. The trouble is, they are related to Holmes's prose publications as "the same continued." But when Mr. Morse says, in his second paragraph, "In point of fact, Dr. Holmes had not only put the best, but absolutely *all*, into the volumes with which he had amused and instructed the English-reading world," he is again needlessly discouraging, and exceedingly unjust both to Dr. Holmes and to his own work. There is a great deal in these volumes that we did not have before, and much of it has a personal accent which more than confirms the pleasant impression made by the author as such; it demands for Dr. Holmes an esteem and affection which outrun all bounds reached by the public heretofore.

Dr. Holmes's interest in problems of heredity did not lead him to study carefully his own pedigree, but Mr. Morse has given us enough to show that his blood had several admirable strains allying him with people of historical and local reputation. His theological heresy was germinal in his great-grandmother, Mrs. Temperance Holmes, whose minister preached such strange and incredible things that she "refused to write after him"—*i. e.*, to make short-hand notes of his sermons. He inherited the features of his mother's mind and disposition; it is a pity that he did not inherit those of his father's face, the beauty of which, as here reproduced, is so remarkable that the page which it adorns is the most attractive in the book and that to which the reader oftenest returns. The father wasted no ink in recording his son's arrival. The entry in his almanac is, "29, son b."

"It seemed to mean so little; meant so much."

There are some interesting fragments of an autobiography which Dr. Holmes never carried very far. They do much to justify Mr. Morse's opinion that he was more interested in theology than in anything else. His revolt from Calvinism began early and ended only with his death. He had "a kind of Indian sagacity in the discovery of contraband reading." He "always read *in* books rather than *through* them, and always with more profit from the books read *in* than from the books read *through*." For 'The Pilgrim's Progress' he has no conventional praise: "It represents the universe as a trap which catches most of the human vermin that have its bait dangled before them." In poetry his favorite reading in his youth was Pope's Homer, and he never repented of his admiration. Accounting for his poetic temper, he puts for Wordsworth's "heaven" the earth which lay about him in his infancy, the scenery of his childish years. In college the home splints were off, and he enjoyed his freedom. He recalls that once for several days his room was the seat of continuous revelry. But when his father went to college "his mother equipped him with a Dutch liquor case containing six large bottles filled with the various kinds of strong waters," from which it would appear that the former times were not in all respects better than these.

In 1833, Holmes came to New York, "seeing for the first time in his life a real city," and took ship for Europe. Pursuing his medical studies in Paris, he soon became deeply engrossed in them, but with a margin for some gayety. The descriptions of his teachers are taken from his 'Hundred Days in Europe,' and they are felicitous, that of Louis enthusiastic in its praise. Another was "a great drawer of blood and hewer of members." The young student took himself very seriously, and did his best to enlighten his parents as to the civilizing influence of the theatre and so on, adding, not very prettily, "You must excuse these little remarks, and not waste your next letter in refuting them." There is a good deal of forcible characterization in these early letters and some anticipations of the coming humorist. Edward Irving, of Carlylean immortality and the "gift of tongues," is described as "a black, savage, saturnine, long-haired Scotchman, with a most Tyburn-looking squint to him"; the King (William IV.) "looks like a retired butcher," and his face is "probably the largest uncivilized spot in England." In general, "the crudities and yeast of youth" are more amusing than the deliberate fun.

He returns to America full of enthusiasm for the practice of his profession. "Literary parturition" taxes him too severely to be united with medicine, as if it were the common sort; so "not another hair from the locks of Poesy." But he did not find the practice of medicine what he had anticipated. The best thing about it was that he had to keep a horse and chaise—his joy, the terror of his friends. His exuberant jollity stood in the way of his success, and, more seriously, the muses whom he had forsworn. The story of his inability to divide his practice because he had but one patient is not told, and is probably mythical, nor are we informed if he ever practised after his return to Boston from Dartmouth, where he taught anatomy in 1839-40. There is much emphasis on his volume, 'Medical Essays.' The date of the volume is withheld, but the most important essay, "Contagiousness of Puerperal Fever," appeared in 1843. He was not quite sure whether he took more satisfaction in this essay or in "The Chambered Nautilus." He said:

"I think oftenest of 'The Chambered Nautilus,' which is a favorite poem of mine, though I wrote it myself. The essay only comes up at long intervals. . . . But in writing the poem I was filled with a better feeling—the highest state of mental exaltation and the most crystalline clairvoyance, as it seemed to me, that had ever been granted to me; I mean that lucid vision of one's thought, and of all forms of expression which will be at once precise and musical, which is the poet's special gift, however large or small in amount or value. There is more selfish pleasure to be had out of the poem—perhaps a nobler satisfaction from the life-saving labor."

Dr. Holmes wrote to Dr. Weir Mitchell that the wood of which academic chairs are made has a narcotic quality which occasionally renders the occupants somnolent, lethargic, and even comatose. His own case was an exception to the rule. Mr. Morse avails himself of a very picturesque bit of writing about Dr. Holmes's medical professorship by Dr. Cheever, and a careful estimate by his successor, Dr. Dwight. He liked to lecture on the "dry bones" better than on dissections, because they *were* dry and clean. Vivisection he accepted as a justifiable method of investigation, "odious beyond measure in its abuse," while in his heart he hated it and would run out of the room when a rabbit had to be sacrificed upon the altar of science. Perhaps the hardest thing he had to do was to withhold the best that he could give in order that the duller boys might get their share of help.

When the *Atlantic* was started in 1857, Mr. Morse tells us that Holmes's name "had scarcely been heard outside the small town of Boston." But he had then been a lyceum lecturer for many years and had had no lack of engagements. The general lack of dates is absolute in this particular, nor are any of his subjects indicated except a course before the Lowell Institute on the English poets. It would be good to know how much his lectures helped his literary work when the establishment of the *Atlantic* gave him his great opportunity. His contributions to the *Atlantic* are not estimated too highly, but with a refreshing difference from the treatment of his poetry and letters. Albeit "the critic is only the mosquito of the literary world," and though "it is not worth while to discourse *in his vein*" (we italicise the unconscious pun), Mr. Morse proceeds to criticise the Autocrat, Professor, and Poet with considerable elaboration; and the criticism, approving Holmes's New England limitation, is much wiser than Mr. Henry James's regret of Hawthorne's "narrow plot of ground," though he grew on it such specimens as the 'Scarlet Letter' and 'The House of the Seven Gables.' No attempt is made to reverse the general impression that the "Breakfast Table" series was a descending one. As for Holmes's three novels, 'The Guardian Angel' is held to be a great improvement on 'Elsie Venner,' but 'A Mortal Antipathy' far below it, and a sign of failing power. The snake story interested him greatly in rattlesnakes not only while he was writing it, but for years after. At one time he kept one for observation and experiment until a rat was given him to kill, with unexpected results: the snake it was that died.

The treatment of the Doctor's poetry is very brief, and of all the poems he wrote hardly a dozen are mentioned for reproof or praise. But "Dr. Holmes was more anxious to be thought a poet than anything else," and Mr. Morse would have done well to avail himself of outside help at this point as in the matter of his professorship. What he claims for him is that he was "a charming singer," and his expansion of this claim, though brief, is excellent. To his occasional verse we have a single paragraph allotted, a short one at that. Dr. Holmes's interest in the Saturday Club was one of his most vivid personal traits. It was the burden of his letters to Lowell, and of those to Motley in a less degree. These letters are his best. Those to Lowell are under some constraint to make them worthy of his critical admiration; those to Motley are written with a freer hand. An early one to Lowell criticises 'Sir Launfal' with much frankness; and such a fire, kept up, would have obliged Lowell to deploy his forces in a more careful manner. There are nice appreciations of his literary companions, like this one of Emerson: "If you have seen a cat picking her footsteps in wet weather, you have seen Emerson's exquisite intelligence feeling for its phrase or epithet." Alcott, with even greater felicity, represented him as sorting the keys of his cabinets. In two groups of the letters—those to an unidentified James William Kimball and Mrs. Stowe—he is almost entirely theological. Mr. Morse thinks the battle he was fighting is now so completely won that the report of it will excite little interest, but we are not so sure of this. It would appear from these pages that Dr. Holmes's hatred of the penology of Calvinism was as intense as Theodore Parker's; and to the remarkable adumbration of it which has taken place, the exhalations of his wit and humor, as well as his more serious dealing with it, must have contributed a great deal. His pious emotions and his Unitarian affections ran parallel with much tender doubt and serious questioning. Suffering was to him a greater mystery than sin, and the sin he found himself blaming less and less and pitying more and

more, so conditioned is the will by organization and environment. He delighted in the evidences of good ethics and religion outside the Christian bounds. The Chicago Congress of Religions he hailed "as the longest stride towards the Millennium" that he had seen.

There is a good chapter on his occupations and methods of work, a trivial one on the burdens of his correspondence, and a very important one on his distaste for public affairs as evinced by his freedom from all complicity with the anti-slavery spirit into which all his great literary companions were caught up. The longest letter in the book is a painful justification of his course in reply to certain criticisms from Lowell. During the war his engagement in public matters was all that could be asked, and he was never again so indifferent as he had been before. That he had a son in the army brought the great struggle home to him sharply, and he contributed to it a few Tyrtæan odes and a strong Fourth of July oration. But if his hearty malediction upon John Quincy Adams and his metrical defence of Webster ever caused him a regret, no sign of it is here.

MORE FICTION.

Dr. Gray's Quest. By Francis H. Underwood. Boston: Lee & Shepard.

My Lady Nobody. By Maarten Maartens. Harper & Brothers.

Dolly Dillenbeck. By James L. Ford. George H. Richmond & Co.

Boss. By Odette Tyler. The Transatlantic Publishing Company.

The One Who Looked On. By F. F. Montresor. D. Appleton & Co.

Paul and Virginia of a Northern Zone. From the Danish of Holger Drachmann. Chicago: Way & Williams.

Pinks and Cherries. By C. M. Ross. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan.

The Sister of a Saint, and Other Stories. By Grace Ellery Channing. Chicago and New York: Stone & Kimball.

Christian and Leah, and Other Ghetto Stories. By Leopold Kompert. Translated by Alfred S. Arnold. Macmillan.

Irralie's Bushranger. By E. W. Hornung. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Dr. Warrick's Daughters. By Rebecca Harding Davis. Harper & Brothers.

Comedies of Courtship. By Anthony Hope. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Chronicles of Count Antonio. By Anthony Hope. D. Appleton & Co.

In the last novel of the late Francis Underwood, his wide reading, extensive knowledge of literature, law, and medicine, and a familiarity with the customs of fifty years ago, enabled him to give an elaborate frame to his story, and to show what the traveller of that period found in Boston, in rural New England, in Chester, London, Paris. The description of the dress of an East India merchant in Boston, from purplish-blue coat, canary-colored waistcoat, striped seersucker trousers, to the blue-clay, napless hat, perhaps does as much to carry the reader into the past as the familiar and contemporaneous mention of Chateaubriand and Lamartine. Assuredly the invasion of Daniel Webster's law office by the pretty girl client is realistic if not real, and the grateful kiss she imprints upon his cheek at parting takes its place beside that other *baiser célèbre* that was bestowed upon the young Liszt by Beethoven.

Novel-readers will be pleased to find that Mr. Maartens has relaxed his clenched fists, drawn together his wide-stretched eyelids, and smoothed his porcupine locks; has abandoned hysterics and returned to his first manner. We find in 'My Lady Nobody' the features which gave his early stories their reputation. In minute and deep-piercing observation of manners, customs, characteristics, and motives, this book, like those, stamps him a rare forager for material, providing, too, a rare garnish of wit worthy the banquet. When he mounted the socialistic platform in certain of his novels, he grew tiresome and incoherent; his preaching here is more forcible for not being in sermons, and of the 400 pages of 'My Lady Nobody' there is not one that is dull. It cannot be said that the story marches rapidly. Its attraction lies less in the development of a plot (though there is one, hinging on the laws of inheritance) than in the pictures of Dutch society and universal humanity. With a book that yields such a plentiful harvest of both feeling and satire we feel no disposition to quarrel on trifling grounds. Therefore, it is undisturbing to reflect that a woman so severely conscientious as the heroine would scarcely have lent herself to a fraud, however pious; that a sewing-girl, offered marriage by the officer who had betrayed her, would hardly have refused it. These and similar inconsistencies, after all, are not the book, nor is it on trial for absolute probability. If one is little disquieted by the improbabilities, one is perhaps most of all attracted by the irrelevancies—by the characters and scenes which do not propel the story, by the little world of beings made up of interwoven frailties and virtues; not by the laws of Dutch inheritance, but by the touches of nature shown in the soldier-parson; the land-poor baron, "denying himself a Corot" and counting it to himself for economy; the beruffled baroness, coddling a lap-dog and facing a mob; the yellow-cheeked, oily hypocrite; the invalid, making Scriptural designs in worsted work and debating what might have been the color of Leah's "tender eyes," and whether she should embroider L on Laban's table-cloth. Epigram, of course, since Maartens writes, is pricked into all the pages, and throughout runs a large-brained apprehension of mortal affairs.

On page 363 of 'Dolly Dillenbeck' stands the remark that the French salon is an institution which would thrive in our artistic climate about as well as a pineapple would in Tompkins Square. In this observation is reached the high-water mark of the wit and wisdom of the book. It is a history of the rise and downfall of a very rich young man who squandered his money in cafés and gambling-parlors, furnished limitless champagne to unlimited numbers of loafers and sponges, backed theatrical managers, brought out and subsequently married a successful actress, and came at last to pecuniary and cerebral grief, the former because he had not read his mother's will; the latter because he drank too much. The progress of the actress from country girlhood to metropolitan fame is the subject of the pendant portrait; another, almost as conspicuous, being that of the all shrewd manager. The box-office side of the drama and the interior view of the café are violently insisted upon; the landscape is that blooming on Broadway between Twenty-third and Forty-second Streets. The accessory figures are the loafers and sponges. "A portrayal of certain phases of metropolitan life and character," Mr. Ford calls it, and quite possibly it is; but its relation to literature is that of a cake-walk to the Shaksperian drama.

Miss Tyler's book also belongs to the crude period of fiction as to style. "The Boss stared dully at him, her bizarre mind growing luminous with admiration," is a specimen from its rich flora. The subject, however, is a good one, with a strongly dramatic trend, and, under all the absurdities, falsities, and ignorances, runs a vein of genuineness in the portrayal of the Virginia-plantation idea in both white and black aspect. If two recording angels sit over the shoulder, to note, the one, if the task be well done, the other, if it be worth doing, we can imagine the former dropping a salt tear over Miss Tyler's book; the latter, over Mr. Ford's, a tear both salt and bitter.

No greater artistic contrast with their work could be found than that in the story entitled 'The One Who Looked On,' where the thing told, though slight, is worth while, and where the telling is trained, yet simple and sincere. There is a glimpse of an Irish home that is excellently done, and a delightfully warm Irish heart beats in the heroine's breast. It is a plaintive little tale, sad but sane reading, with the same insight into the human machine that was shown in a former work of this writer, 'Into the Highways and Hedges,' but under conditions less tragic and formidable.

The little Danish idyl which Mr. Francis Browne introduces to the English-reading public would have smelled as sweet by some other than its present clumsy name. It is a pretty story of the Danish shore, of sand-dunes, coast-forests, sea-faring folk, and a boy-and-girl pair of lovers. To read it is to feel salt spray in the face and to breathe the fragrance of birch trees; to follow the sea in bitter earnest and to play with beetles in the woods; to make friends with rough, moody, kindly villagers, human and canine, and to watch the love of the blacksmith's bashful son and the Captain's teasing daughter through lyric childhood to dramatic culmination.

The pinks and cherries of Rome in June set a certain Norwegian Fred to thinking of his old home, and a very charming little book of reminiscence he makes. No idyl this, but a boy's recollections of his childhood in a little gossiping Norwegian town: his mother's housekeeping, his brother's kindly tyranny, his own schoolboy games and fights, and the child's remembrance of the grown-up games of life that went on around him. The local color of the town is admirably used; humor is refreshingly present; and that we may not forget it is Norway, a note of the sea sounds through the boy's memories. From cover to cover this is a particularly taking little volume.

Miss Channing's stories are for the most part of Italy, and show a nice appreciation of both the pathetic and the happy-go-lucky phases of life among the Italian peasantry. There are a tear and a smile in each story, and the execution is delicate and thoughtful. The same may be said of the Californian sketch, while that belonging to the colonial period in Massachusetts is something less spontaneous than the rest, perhaps because it touches on neither pathos nor fun.

With a deal of German clumsiness which the translator has not transformed, Kompert's Ghetto stories have a merit and interest quite unusual. They are not only of the Ghetto, but from within—a point of view not often taken in current fiction. They direct attention, at once sympathetically and candidly, to everyday life in the Jewish quarter of an old Bohemian town. As must happen when so treated,

the subject yields a return of profound significance. Although the stories are lightly constructed, they are filled with Hebrew poetry and Hebrew piety which an honest portrayal of Hebrew foibles avails not to eclipse.

A capital little story of Australian love and adventure is 'Irralie's Bushranger.' The incidents, just improbable enough to be real, are original and cleverly combined, and there is no flagging in the press and stir of the story. There is enough and not too much Australian landscape, and some extremely able personal sketches. It must be set down as one of the best small books of adventure of the year.

'Dr. Warrick's Daughters' is good reading, for its excellent workmanship were there no other reason. It is a pleasure to miss the crudities of the average novel, with its labored efforts to startle and its heedlessness of form. The author says of her heroine, "If she had lived now, she would probably have had the prevalent desire for notoriety, and mistaken it for an inspiration, and have written an indecent novel to set forth a great truth, or rushed before the public to show how feebly she could kick against Christianity, or marriage, or the Tyrant Man." This is preëminently what Mrs. Davis has not done; nor is there anything she could have taken from us that we would have parted more gladly withal. Her story besides, on the positive side, is full of interest, depicting with practised touch life in an old Pennsylvania town, and showing, as foil, the sleepy enchantment of a Louisiana plantation. The Gray and the Blue, differentiated with the skill of a minute observer, shimmer through the fabric of her story, and even so blend, light and dark, the weaknesses and virtues of her many characters. The sermon of the book, breathed not preached, is against the great god Mammon, who is made very repulsive, while yet his worshippers are seen to be sometimes men of like passions with ourselves.

Mr. Anthony Hope's novels may be roughly classified as of the Zenda and the non-Zenda. We have either romance, *quasi*-history, or drawing-room problems worked out by sparkling talk. 'Comedies of Courtship' naturally belongs to the latter category, and abounds in the comicalities of errant affections. A few of the stories, indeed, strike a fuller note than that of comedy, and one or two stage themselves into farce so readily as to be, like all unstaged farce, rather solemn reading.

'The Chronicles of Count Antonio,' by its very name, steps into the class Zenda. It is the history of the adventures of a noble outlaw and his band, related by Ambrose the Franciscan as he learned them from other monks and from tradition. Chivalry, love, and gore are the chief of our diet, and are made to sound doubly chivalrous, loving, and gory by the employment of a semi-Scriptural manner of speech. There may be those who will find this archaic rampagiousness a trifle fatiguing; there are undoubtedly others who will delight in the wars, stratagems, spoils, and final triumph of the constant Antonio. Your Zenda knight is strictly monogamous; your un-Zenda knight never experiences a "tinge of that silent pain" which the poet says belong to those "who have longed deeply once." The one fights and woos, the other flirts and runs away; the one wins by strategy or dies a bachelor; the other makes epigrams, and she would be distinguished whom he had never loved. Over realm of poesy or carpet they ride, their mounts the differing quills of Mr. Hope's fancy, and both at their best are rare good fellows.

A PHILOSOPHIC "MR. HYDE."

The Case of Wagner: The Twilight of the Idols; Nietzsche contra Wagner. Edited by Alexander Tille. Translated by Thomas Common. [The Works of Friedrich Nietzsche. Vol. XI.] Macmillan. 1896.

Amid the motley throng of false prophets who are clamoring for the ear of the cultivated public of the day, it would hardly be possible to find a more picturesquely eccentric figure than that of Friedrich Nietzsche, whose works the enterprise of Messrs. Macmillan is for the first time rendering accessible to English readers. That a German professor should aspire to a place in international literature is sufficiently surprising; that he should do so on the strength of productions like Nietzsche's is more paradoxical than anything Nietzsche ever wrote. In fact, a Jekyll and Hyde theory alone seems to give a clue to the phenomenon. In this case Dr. Jekyll, *i. e.*, Nietzsche the professor, was a gentle and gentlemanly *savant* whose precocious acquirements procured him a full professorship of Greek in the University of Bâle before he had taken his degree at Leipzig, in whom overwork, and, possibly, the reaction of a sensitive temperament against the pedantry and Philistinism of his life, had produced a nervous breakdown which compelled him to resign his chair after a dozen years of successful teaching, and who had since led the usual life of an invalid in all the health resorts of Europe. Very different is the figure of Nietzsche the writer, running amuck among the ideals of civilization, a veritable Mr. Hyde, ruthlessly trampling under foot the received standards of morality and religion, an iconoclast who shatters the established structures of science and learning, and poses as the prophet of the Aryan race, as the new "Zarathustra," who boasts that he has given mankind the deepest book which it possesses, and whose excesses of revolutionary thought grow more and more frantic until the poor Dr. Jekyll finally disappears into the "hopeless" ward of a lunatic asylum. Of course all this havoc of Mr. Hyde's was wrought on paper; he never attempted to carry out his ideas in practice, and so he escaped the judicial restraint which an ungrateful society has so often put on other "immoralists" with similar views; and hence, possibly, morality and religion do not feel a penny the worse, and survive in blissful ignorance of their virtual annihilation by Nietzsche-Hyde. But there are nowadays so many "suggestible" persons who can be hypnotized into accepting as true whatever creed is presented to them with sufficient insistence and reiteration of asseveration, that it is perhaps prudent to scrutinize the credentials of this new "Dionysiac" (and paranoiac) wisdom.

The proper preparation for the reader of Nietzsche is Nordau. It is not merely that the latter has recognized Nietzsche as a modern tendency and devoted a long and abusive chapter to him in his book on "Degeneration," but that those who have acquired the taste for Nordau will find the same qualities in Nietzsche in an exaggerated and even more piquant form. If they can imagine Nordau suddenly gifted with an accession of literary power and invective, acquiring real and wide culture, scholarship, and taste (even though of a perverse kind); if they can imagine him scintillating with epigrams and aphorisms, and refraining from quoting Lombroso and Krafft-Ebing, they may accept Nietzsche's books as the logical continuation of Nordau, and Nietzsche's fate as the appropriate and inevitable end of such insane preachers of sanity. If they cannot do this, they will at least be forced to recognize that in Nietzsche there has come a greater, though wilder, prophet, for whom Nordau has prepared the way.

Certainly the resemblance between them is deep and far-reaching. Both are possessed by the idea of degeneration and decadence, and declaim unceasingly about the necessity of health; both, moreover, are equally vague about the diagnosis of the disease from which they see everybody suffering, and equally reluctant to fix more precisely the *date* when the process of degeneration may be supposed to have set in. On this point, indeed, Nietzsche supplies a valuable commentary and *reductio ad absurdum* of Nordau; for whereas the latter speaks only of the present, the former's remarks embrace the whole of history, and discover almost universal degeneracy from the very first. Hence the inference obviously is that the type from which we have "degenerated" was that of the savage or of the ape. Again, both Nietzsche and Nordau pride themselves on being physiological and psychological, although their "science" is clearly only second-hand, not to say pseudo-scientific. Both excel in vituperation and constantly substitute abuse for argument; in this respect, however, Nietzsche is *facile princeps*—chiefly on account of his greater range. Both are anti-religious, because they have no appreciation of the spiritual side of man, and so cannot understand that in the descendants of brutes a certain repression of animality is essential for full sanity of soul. Both are deficient in humor and grotesquely ignorant of the real condition of the English-speaking world, although their criticisms of Germany seem often to strike home. Lastly, to mention a point suggested by the title of the present volume, both have won notoriety by attacks upon the music of Wagner, which they unite in regarding as the incarnation of the morbid tendencies of the age. In fact, Nordau's quarrel with Nietzsche is essentially based on the fact that two of a trade do not agree, and that the latter is the better craftsman of the two. And the great difference between them is that whereas Nordau is only a journalist in pursuit of a sensation, Nietzsche was sincere, if not sane, in the advocacy of his views.

Of these views the present volume gives a fair selection. For even though it does not contain his most characteristic and suggestive works, it manages to give the reader a taste of most of the quaint fancies that pass for the "philosophy" of Friedrich Nietzsche. In addition to the amusing and frequently acute onslaught on Wagner already alluded to, we get his quasi-metaphysical "Will to Power," the queer cross between a misunderstood Darwinism and an inverted Schopenhauerism which is supposed to be the basis of Nietzsche's thought. We get further, in the "Antichrist," his theory of the conflict between the ethics of the strong and noble few and of the weak and base many, of the deplorable triumph of the latter in Judaism, Christianity, and Buddhism, and of the necessity of reversing this crime against life by a thoroughgoing "revaluing" of all values. We are tickled by his admiration for the healthy, strong, and masterful, which, after writing down Plato, Socrates, and Christ as "degenerates," is ready to accept as historical realizations of his ideal the characters of Cæsar Borgia and Napoleon, although perhaps nothing short of Bluebeard could fully satisfy it. On the other hand, we are hardly introduced as yet to the "blonde

roving beast of prey" to whose conquest and ruthless oppression of subject-races Nietzsche (with a characteristic disregard of the obvious fact that no conquests are possible without discipline and self-subordination) refers the origin of civilization, nor to the still more mysterious conception of the "overman" whom he proposes to breed from the elect of the human race—apparently by the highly scientific method of encouraging unlimited self-indulgence.

The "Twilight of the Idols" will be found full of brilliant epigrams and literary criticisms (*e. g.*, the delicious allusion to Seneca's Spanish descent in calling him the "toreador of Virtue," and the description of Rousseau as the "return to Nature *in impuris naturalibus*"), and also of such philosophy as may be compressed into aphorisms. These aphorisms have been received with immense applause in Germany. Nietzsche never wearies his readers by following the same train of thought for more than a page at a time, though it must be admitted that the same idea crops up in a fragmentary form over and over again. But even so it may be doubted whether the aphorism is not still too lengthy and coherent a vehicle for the taste of a newspaper-reading public, and the next original German "philosopher" will doubtless outbid Nietzsche by expressing himself in headlines.

Altogether it would be surprising if Nietzschian doctrines flourished in American soil: they point to the East rather than to the West. They are Slav rather than German, and redolent of the *Liberum Veto* of the Polish nobles, from whom Nietzsche claimed descent. It is significant that he regards Russia as the state of the future (p. 201), the very state which crushed out the aristocratic anarchy of Poland. But the Anglo-Saxon peoples have long learnt to reconcile liberty with order, and though Nietzsche may strike a responsive chord in the hearts of a certain type of Prussian officers, when they dream of shaking off the restraints of an iron discipline and of looting the industrial classes they despise so heartily, we cannot believe that Nietzsche will prove to be more than a passing craze even of the Teutonic mind.

It remains to speak of the contributions of others than Nietzsche to the present volume. Mr. Tille's preface labors to graft Nietzsche's views on the Darwinian conception of the survival of the fit (as if Darwin would have ignored *à la* Nietzsche the moral, intellectual, and social qualities in the make-up of fitness!), and indulges in some absurdly pretentious criticisms of thinkers like Spencer, Huxley, and Arthur Balfour. There is no index, and for the translation not much can be said; it generally fails to reach a fluent and idiomatic English rendering, it not infrequently becomes unintelligible, and sometimes blunders. Still, it is not so bad as to destroy the enjoyment of those who know how to relish Nietzsche the writer without admitting the plenary inspiration of Nietzsche the prophet.

With the Fathers: Studies in the History of the United States. By John Bach McMaster. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THE essays collected in this volume have all appeared in various periodicals, and may be presumed, for the most part, to have thus received such attention from the public as they have deserved. Two of them, however, as they relate to matters of present interest, may not improperly be made the subject of criticism—one, entitled "A Century's Struggle for Silver"; the other, "The Monroe Doctrine." As to the former, the title is altogether misleading. Professor McMaster himself declares that it was not until 1878 that our "silver era" began and that the first serious struggle for bimetallism took place. Evidently, therefore, we had been engaged in some other struggle for silver during the earlier three-quarters of the century. What was the nature of this struggle? We read that a hundred years ago the currency of the country was quite heterogeneous; that a mint was established for the coinage of the precious metals into money of the United States for the purpose of displacing foreign coins; that a United States Bank and many State institutions were chartered, and furnished notes that were very generally dishonored, but that expelled specie from circulation; that silver was overrated as compared with gold and was exported; that in order to maintain a supply of small change the weight of fractional coins was decreased; and that the coinage was regulated in 1873, 1878, and 1890. It looks very much as if Prof. McMaster had been unable to resist the temptation of making use of a taking title without regard to its propriety, and we are reminded of a story of Lord Castlereagh, who, after speaking for half an hour without any of his hearers having any idea of his subject, suddenly stopped and exclaimed: "So much, then, for the Law of Nations."

This story might perhaps be thought applicable to the other essay which we selected for comment, "The Monroe Doctrine." After narrating the history of the Holy Alliance, the revolutions in Spain and Naples, the policy of Great Britain under Canning, etc., Prof. McMaster admits that the Doctrine has no place in the law of nations. "It does not need to be there. It belongs to a class of facts whose existence does not and must not depend on the consent of nations." It is not a doctrine that a weak power can proclaim. It would have been foolish for the South American governments to have announced it when threatened by the Holy Alliance, "because they could not have made it good. We alone could declare it because we alone were strong enough to support it." "Either we determine the status of Republican government and Republican institutions in the two Americas, or the nations of the Old World will do it for us." The nations of the Old World, by Jingo, shall not do it for us; and this, according to Prof. McMaster, is the Monroe Doctrine.

As he expounds it, it might as well be called the "Dog-in-the-Manger Doctrine." It makes no difference whether what is called a republic in South America is a republic or a tyranny; whether the government of England is really republican rather than monarchical; whether or no civilization would be advanced and human welfare increased by the extension of English influence; whether the peace and safety of the people of the United States would or would not be affected by such extension in South America. Such considerations are immaterial and irrelevant. No European power, according to Prof. McMaster, shall increase its power or influence on this continent, or overthrow any existing government, or establish any direct control over its policy. *Sic volo, sic jubeo.* If reasons are asked for, it is enough to say that might makes right. The American people does not choose to permit any European power to extend its influence on the American continent, and the American people is strong enough to have its own way.

Under these circumstances it would be a waste of time to inquire whether the condition of affairs when the absolute governments of Europe were reëstablishing overthrown despotisms in the early part of this century bears any analogy to the controversy between Great Britain and Venezuela. It is idle to investigate the merits of this controversy. If Great Britain should make a clear title to the lands claimed by Venezuela, it would beyond question increase her influence in those regions and tend to "control the destiny" of the Venezuelans. It is ridiculous to talk about arbitration, because justice and expediency and right and law and prescription have to be considered by arbitrators, and the Monroe Doctrine has nothing to do with these conceptions. Supposing the arbitrators found against Venezuela, and Venezuela refused to submit to the award. The Doctrine would forbid Great Britain to execute the judgment, for she could not do so without increasing her influence and power at the expense of Venezuela. It is vain to ask if such a doctrine as this is not immoral, for it is not so much a doctrine as a dogma, a settled principle which admits of no question.

Doubtless Prof. McMaster would admit that if some South American state grew more powerful than we are, it might interfere in our foreign relations as we interfere with its affairs now. And he would have to admit that the policy of Russia in subjugating Poland and in expelling the Jews from her limits is exactly as defensible as the Monroe Doctrine as he expounds it. Russia is powerful enough to do these things, she does them in the name of her own peace and safety, and that is the end of it. Such a doctrine, Prof. McMaster well says, has nothing to do with international law; and he might have added, it has no more to do with international morality.

Excursions in Libraria: Being Retrospective Reviews and Biographical Notes. By G. H. Powell. Scribners. 1896.

MR. POWELL'S excursions rather impress the reader as the work of a reformed bibliomaniac; a person who, having for years gratified the lust of the eyes after editions *assez rares*, rouses himself to read his treasures and extract their human interest. That his own collection furnishes the material for the volume constitutes a tremendous glorification of Mr. Powell's library. Crammed with curious facts as the book is, we are happy to take the author at his foreword, and read him for more liberal purposes than that of verifying references to vellum opuscula.

In an opening chapter on the philosophy of rarity, Mr. Powell reveals a few of the snares that beset the raw buyer, and then dwells on the value, "to a chastened intellectual sense," of editions, especially *principes*. A book may be rare for other reasons than difficulty of acquisition. First editions are often precious as indicating the accession of new ideas to the world. Every advance or change in human history leaves its mark in the records of bibliography. A second chapter and a third are mediæval studies. The second, rehearsing from Froissart the Gascon tragedy of young Gaston de Foix and his devilish parent, exhibits mediævalism in "the fierce chiaroscuro of blood-stained splendor" which lingered into the fourteenth century and later. The third chapter ransacks a shelf of old story-books. Here a vagrant essay on "The Hunting of the Myth," being responsible to no scientific spirit of myth-resolution, wanders from Apollodorus of Athens, with his great second-century *Biblioteca* of wonders, to the lollipops of Uncle Remus. Better fun, even, than this is the

exposition of the famous unread 'Disciplina Clericalis' of Petrus Alfonsus. "An Improving Work," the showman calls it; but it is seasoned with a perfect salt-mine of anecdotes far from clerkly in doctrine. Just here we are moved to the impious suggestion that all the world, except Mr. Powell and a few other children of the light, needs a new edition of Alfonsus, that long promised by Nyrop of Copenhagen not being forthcoming.

"The Pirate's Paradise," which is chronicled in the fourth chapter from the point of view of 1740 A.D., when Charles Leslie's 'New and Exact Account of Jamaica' had reached a third edition in Edinburgh, means the island of Jamaica. With harassing detail we learn how that spot, peopled so strangely with persons of desperate character, came to be the stronghold of a Morgan and a Teach. The three remaining chapters deal with various matters of historical gossip. "A Medley of Memoirs" suggests the extraordinary variety in autobiographical records, which are alike only in being actuated by the passionate desire of not being forgotten; a desire equally intense in the strong Cæsar and the weak Cicero, in the mysterious Sully and the frank Agrippa d'Aubigné. Collected, the host of memoir-writers furnish a back-view of history both curious and important. The chapter on "Rabelais at Home" reviews the 1710 edition of 'Lettres de François Rabelais écrites pendant son voyage en Italie'—another back view of history; the wrong side of the dark tapestry that was being woven in 1536, and thereabouts, in Rome. In his concluding chapter, on the "Wit of History," Mr. Powell writes racily of the countless dramatic utterances that have come off in the crises of history, or, more exactly, have usually failed to come off. He knows the whole list of "Up-Guards-and-at-them!" apothegms that turn out to have been merely, "Now, gentlemen, if you please." Apropos of one of Mr. Weyman's pretty titles, he adds another to the familiar things that Richelieu on critical occasions abstained from saying: "It would be a pedantic reflection on the title of a popular novel of the day to repeat that there is no authority for '*Je couvre tout de ma robe rouge.*' Yet the original remark appears to have been, '*Je renverse* tout avec ma soutane rouge'—a different idea" (p. 245).

Mr. Powell is distinctly well-informed, and leaves one the pleasant impression that he knows even more than he tells. That he neglects to mention many modern works which discuss scientifically the matters treated by his old books, is a fault inevitable to his plan. Now and then, however, he essays to give modern references, and here he leaves much to be desired. For instance, when Dunlop's 'History of Fiction' is singled out (p. 90) as a standard reference work for the study of mediæval stories, it is strange that there should be no mention of really recent and authoritative studies like those of Reinhold Köhler. A foot-note (p. 86) refers to two modern writers on the legend of the Seven Wise Men, but there is no mention of such investigators as Comparetti and D'Ancona. It is a little strange that in a list of old Italian mythologians (p. 82) neither Giraldi nor Masuccio appears. In a moment of relapse to his bibliomania Mr. Powell thinks it sacrilegious to hunt the myth in modern editions of old authors. Accordingly, he says that such study must begin with the 'Golden Legend,' whereas, to be serious, it must begin with the much earlier works of Jacques de Vitry, edited only yesterday by Prof. Crane of Cornell. In this connection, too, we miss the names of the 'Vitæ Patrum' and of Étienne de Bourbon.

As for style, Mr. Powell's pages so coruscate with sparks of digression that his natural fluency and good wit enjoy less than their fair chance of exhibition. To enliven a treatment unavoidably dull at places, he appeals to contemporary interests. As a translation of the *quod lupus audiens acquievit* of Petrus Alfonsus we have "Brer Wolf lay low"; and Lewis Carroll, Ibsen, Matthew Arnold, Stevenson, Shelley, George Borrow, Kipling, and Bret Harte drop in at points where one could hardly expect a modern to be squeezed in edgewise. It is all very good, however, and sometimes to the point. In closing, we note that the author thinks "Ex Librist" a term too bad to apply "even to a political opponent"; also, that books "should always have their top edges cut and gilt and their sides shaved smooth"—a dictum which must have passed securely over the heads of Mr. Powell's publishers.

Canyons of the Colorado. By J. W. Powell, Ph.D., LL.D., formerly Director of the United States Geological Survey. With many illustrations. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. 1895.

To do full justice to this volume it should be considered from different points of view, for such is the character of its contents that they may, without injury, be divided into three parts, each of which appeals to a particular set of readers. In one, for example (and to this the lovers of adventure will naturally turn), we have an account of the descent of the river and a description of the accidents by flood and field that befell Major Powell and his companions in the course of their hazardous undertaking. In another, the geology of the vast extent of country drained by the Colorado, with its marvellous formations and gorgeous coloring, is painted in graphic language; while the third is made up of short sketches of the arts, industries, manners and customs of the different tribes of Indians that were encountered during successive expeditions to this region. With much of what is here brought together we are already familiar, though nowhere has it been given in the compact, readable shape in which it now appears.

Beginning with the geology of this district we are told that from the level of the sandy plain through which, after passing through the cañons, the river flows, the country rises by a series of gigantic steps or plateaus—hundreds and even thousands of feet in height—until the summit is reached amid the snow and ice of the Rocky Mountains. Through these plateaus the river has cut its way; and some idea of the amount of erosion that has taken place may be gathered from the fact that the Grand Cañon is only one of the numerous gorges by which this region is dissected; that it is 217 miles long, and that for much of this distance there is a vertical wall of rock, 5,000 feet high, between the bed of the stream and the level of the plateau above. In other words, the Colorado, in this part of its course, has excavated a gorge which the Blue Ridge (p. 390), if plucked up and thrown in, would not fill, and into which Mt. Washington might be toppled head first, and the dam would not force the water over its walls. Vast as is the work of erosion represented in this and other cañons, it is but a small part of that which has taken place over the entire district. To appreciate this it is necessary to bear in mind that over the whole of the 200,000 square miles of territory drained by this stream and its tributaries, an average of 6,000 feet of rock has been washed away. Or, better still, imagine (p. 393) "a rock of this size and a mile in thickness against which the clouds have hurled their storms and beat it into sands, and the rills have carried the sands into the creeks, and the creeks have carried them into the rivers, and the Colorado has carried them into the sea," and you will have an idea of the forces that have been at work over this whole area and of the immense results they have accomplished.

As a good part of this region is an arid waste, but little better than a desert, the population was necessarily small and was confined to the narrow river valleys and to the neighborhood of an occasional spring. Such as it was, however, it is of interest to the ethnologist for the reason that it was made up of tribes that belonged to different linguistic families, and because among these tribes were to be found representatives of the two extremes of Indian civilization. Thus, for example, north of the river, scattered about here and there in small bands, were the Utes—a Shoshonee tribe—who were among the lowest in point of progress of any of our American Indians; while south of the stream dwelt other Shoshonee tribes (as, *e. g.*, the Moqui and the Navajo), whose position in the scale of development was higher, though they, perhaps, fell short in some particulars of their Pueblo neighbors. To note the characteristics of these several phases of civilization would carry us further than we care to go, and we content ourselves with saying that the differences between them may be gauged by the fact that while the Pueblos (pp. 24, 111, etc.) as early as the time of Coronado, in A. D. 1540, raised corn, beans, and squashes, and "had almost accomplished the ascent from savagery to barbarism," the Utes (pp. 62, 106, 318, etc., etc.), some three centuries later, still used stone arrowheads, knives, and hammers, and were so far from cultivating the soil that they may, in a general way, be said to have depended for a good part of their food upon the seeds, roots, and fruits that were natural to the region.

In view of such differences, any attempt at generalization, except upon the broadest possible lines, must result in failure, and it was probably for this reason that our author, instead of vainly trying to formulate modes of expression broad enough to include arts and methods that are intrinsically different, wisely confined himself to short and distinctive sketches of the condition of the tribes with which he came in contact. Of course, this plan necessitated a certain amount of repetition; but, on the other hand, it fixed the limits within which the several descriptions held good, and to this extent it eliminates a source of error and furnishes us with a model for future work in this direction. Of these sketches those of the Moqui (p. 325) and of the Zuni (p. 358) are perhaps the most satisfactory as they are certainly the most elaborate; and our object in singling them out is not so much to emphasize this fact as it is to call attention to the prominent part which the camera and the pencil can be made to play in depicting the usages of a savage people. For reasons that will readily suggest themselves, it is often difficult to convey, in words alone, an adequate idea of the customs and industries incident to a low civilization or to one with which we have but little in common. This fact Major Powell clearly apprehended, and accordingly, by way of safeguard, he has enriched his pages with a quantity of illustration that leaves little to be desired. Not only are

the finished products of the Indian's arts and industries duly represented, but we are permitted to see him at some of his daily avocations, and when engaged in the rites and ceremonies by which he hoped to bring good or avert evil. Useful as this means of communication has been found to be when applied to human agencies, it is equally serviceable when used to depict natural scenery. Indeed, but for the liberal use which our author makes of the engraver's art, we should find it difficult to enter into the feelings of enthusiasm with which he gazes upon scenes some of which (p. 331) are "too vast, too complex, too grand for verbal description."

Lucius Q. C. Lamar: His Life, Times, and Speeches. 1825–1893. By Edward Mayes. Nashville, Tenn.: Methodist Episcopal Church South. 1896.

IN this enormous volume of over eight hundred pages of unusual dimensions there are materials for a good life; they are, however, swallowed up in a mass of speeches, letters, and reports, all of which are printed in full; the result is that the book cannot be read except as a labor of love. This is a pity, for Lamar's career brought him into a good many different high positions in public life. He knew and was thrown into contact with all the chief politicians of his time. He began life as an ardent Southerner, while at his death his name was a sort of symbol of reunion; his independence of character was so marked that he did what hardly a public man of his day ever dared to do—refused to obey explicit instructions from his State directing him how to vote; and he was not wanting in humor, humanity, sympathy—all the qualities which lend a charm to character.

His oratory, which was the key to success, seems to have been a genuine gift, though it hardly reached a level likely to render it permanently impressive; but it was the naïf sincerity of his character which endeared him to all his contemporaries. He did not belong to the modern world of cities, but to the rural community which he so long represented. His poetical temperament enabled him to see in Mississippi and the South everything that was noble and elevating, to imagine Washington as it existed before the war a "most beautiful place" (p. 76), and to believe, long after the war had destroyed the old South, that it had been the care, patience, providence, industry, forbearance, and firmness of the Southern planter in his treatment of his slaves that had made the negroes "the finest body of agricultural and domestic laborers that the world has ever seen," and had enabled him to elevate them to such a height as to cause them to be deemed fit for admission "into the charmed circle of American freedom" (p. 60). Such a feat would certainly have made the Southern planter famous throughout the world; most remarkable of all, Lamar really believed in this wonderful reminiscence. Mississippi ought to be grateful to him. It will be a long time before the New South will produce any one capable of seeing in it what he found there.

Porphyry the Philosopher to his Wife Marcella. Translated, with introduction, by Alice Zimmern, Girton College, Cambridge. Preface by Richard Garnett, C.B., LL.D. London: George Redway. 1896.

A FRESH example of the late Greek attitude towards spiritual things is given to English readers in Miss Zimmern's pretty little book, and the translator's name guarantees the excellence of the version. Dr. Garnett's preface is vivacious, Miss Zimmern's introduction is comprehensive and painstaking; between them they contrive to put the reader in a frame of mind for inevitable disappointment, for, of the three authors represented in the book, Porphyry is easily the least interesting. The public which has formed its idea of Greek books of devotion on those of Epictetus and Marcus Aurelius, will find here a heavier touch, a greater proportion of commonplace, a more sentimental tone. These are all marks of literary degeneration, and it would have been instructive to English readers if the translator had included in her introduction a study of Porphyry's style, with an account of the fate that had befallen Greek prose in the third century. But the beauty of the Platonic ethics cannot be hid, and the sweet austerity of neo-Platonism is full of attractiveness. The quaint *motif* of Porphyry's letter to his wife is an attempt, in the spirit of Protesilaus, to induce her to substitute a philosophical for a passionate love, and

"Learn, by mortal yearning, to ascend."

A good deal of sociological interest attaches to the letter from the fact that it was written to a woman, and the following sentiment should win much applause from a *fin-de-siècle* audience: "Neither trouble thyself much whether thou be male or female in body, nor look on thyself as a woman, for I did not approach thee as such. Flee all that is womanish in the soul, as though thou hadst a man's body about thee."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, Col. Edward. Camp-Fire Stories. Chicago: Star Publishing Co. 25c.
Balzac H. de. A Bachelor's Establishment. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Cooper, J. F. The Last of the Mohicans. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 60c.
Daudet, Alphonse. Kings in Exile. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Egbert, Prof. J. C. Introduction to the Study of Latin Inscriptions. American Book Co.
Filian, Rev. G. H. Armenia and her People. Hartford: American Publishing Co.
Gosse, Edmund. Critical Kit-Kats. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Halstead, Murat. The Story of Cuba. Chicago: Werner Co.
Hill, Georgiana. Women in English Life. 2 vols. London: Bentley; New York: Macmillan.
Kennard, H. M. The Veil Lifted: A New Light on the World's History. London: Chapman & Hall; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Langlois, Ch. V. Manuel de Bibliographie Historique. I. Instruments Bibliographiques. Paris: Hachette.
Lillard, J. F. B. Poker Stories. F. P. Harper. $1.
Mac Culloch, Hunter. Robert Burns: A Centenary Ode. Brooklyn: Rose and Thistle Publishing Co.
Pigeon, Amédée. Un Ami du Peuple. (La Bretagne en 1848). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Pool, Miss Maria L. In a Dike Shanty. Chicago: Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Rothschild, Baron Ferdinand. Personal Characteristics from French History. Macmillan. $3.25.
Rouvre, Ch. de. À Deux. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Sanborn, Kate. My Literary Zoo. Appletons. 75c.
Saunders, Marshall. Beautiful Joe. Philadelphia: Charles H. Banes. 25c
Schäfer, Prof. E. A., and Thane, Prof. G. D. Quain's Elements of Anatomy. 10th ed. Appendix. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Schopenhauer, Arthur. The Art of Controversy, and Other Posthumous Papers. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90c.
Southworth, Mrs. Victor's Triumph. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Tompkins, Elizabeth K. The Broken Ring. Putnams. $1.
Vachell, H. A. The Quicksands of Pactolus. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Ward, Maria E. Bicycling for Ladies. Brentanos. $1.50.
Waterloo, Stanley. An Odd Situation. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Watson, William. The Purple East. London: John Lane; Chicago: Stone & Kimball. 75c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 18, 1896.

The Week.

SINCE the Federal Government was rescued from the shameful subserviency to slavery which characterized it before the civil war, there has been no session of Congress so disheartening to a patriot as that which ended on Thursday. At no date within the lifetime of the present generation has the public opinion of the national Legislature been so contemptuous, and so deservedly contemptuous. Never since 1860 have the tendencies in Congress been so unhealthy and even alarming. The Senate has reached its lowest ebb. The House, if not so bad as the Senate, emulated that body's folly in Jingoism and in recklessness of appropriation. It shelved free coinage, indeed, and it refused to endorse repudiation, although the leaders of the Republican majority lacked the courage to stamp it out by a direct vote. Complaining that Democratic legislation had caused a deficit, the same managers refused to adopt the simple and practicable method of raising the $25,000,000 or $30,000,000 a year needed by doubling the tax on beer, but, instead, pushed through a buncombe tariff bill, which they knew could never pass the Senate or secure the President's signature. After this assurance that the deficit must continue, they proceeded to increase it by passing, under a suspension of the rules and without a chance for debate, the largest river-and-harbor bill ever framed, and repassing it over the deserved veto of the President. Republicans, Democrats, and Populists have all had a share in this most discreditable performance.

Our happy-go-lucky system of national finance is usually put on exhibition at the close of a session of Congress. The chairman of the committee on appropriations makes a speech congratulating the House on its frugality and careful use of the people's money, while, of course, not refusing any appropriation manifestly for the public good, and then prints a table showing how, if you leave out this, that, and the other bill, the total is much less than the extravagant Congress controlled by the other party had voted. Then the representative of the minority on the same committee follows, proving by *his* table that there never had been such a reckless and spendthrift Congress, and announcing, without a flicker of the eyelid, that an outraged people will hold the majority to a strict account. This year the show was more than usually diverting because our finances are more than usually chaotic. Deficit heaped on deficit, the majority of the House strenuously insisting that the Government has not revenue enough, the Speaker opening the session with the cry of economy, and the chairman of the committee on appropriations echoing it, one must confess to some surprise at finding the appropriations larger than in any one fiscal year since the last years of the civil war. The total for the session is $515,759,820—an increase of $18,751,000 over the appropriations of the last preceding session. In addition should fairly be reckoned in contracts authorized for $78,241,000 more, for which coming Congresses will have to find the money.

The way Chairman Cannon meets this situation is by calling the appropriations "wise and economical, not scant and insufficient," and by saying that if you leave out the river-and-harbor bill and the permanent annual appropriations, the record is not so black as it might appear. Messrs. Sayers and Dockery, for the minority, affirm that "this Congress is the most recklessly improvident and riotously extravagant Congress since the establishment of the government." If these assertions and denials had not been made so regularly, the country would pay more attention to them. What really gives them special point this year is the critical situation of the Treasury, and the fact that this was laid clearly before Congress by Secretary Carlisle. For the fiscal year just ended he estimated a deficit of $17,000,000, which, in effect, turned out to be $27,000,000. For 1896-97 he figured a surplus of $6,900,000, but on what basis? On the basis of total appropriations of $457,000,000. In the face of this, Congress has voted $515,000,000—or, in other words, has deliberately voted a deficit of $52,000,000. A Congress that does this writes itself imbecile in finance.

President Cleveland's apparent loss of influence with his party is the theme of many philosophic comments by Republicans. Never was the fall of a party idol and dictator so complete. Yes, but poor Mr. Cleveland may comfort himself by reflecting that if he has not got on very well with Democrats, he has converted Republicans with astonishing rapidity and success. The latter are now following his lead with beautiful docility. Eight years ago they denounced him for having "dishonored" silver; three years ago they allowed themselves to be dragged by him by the scruff of the neck into completing the dishonor of silver through the repeal of the silver-purchase law; two years ago he began boldly to advocate the gold standard, *eo nomine*, amid vast Republican carping, and now the party at St. Louis is enthusiastically getting on his platform. Such success of an apostle turning to the Gentiles is truly unprecedented in the annals of political evangelization. And the conversion is likely to extend also to the issuing of bonds for gold. If Republican Congresses go on voting appropriations $50,000,000 a year more than the revenue, more bonds will have to come. One of the first acts of the supernatural McKinley may have to be a call for bids on Government bonds. It certainly will be if Mr. Cleveland follows the after-us-the-deluge methods of President Harrison.

One of the striking utterances coming from the Babel of tongues at St. Louis is the following from Congressman Grosvenor, McKinley's second in command, to the editor of the New York *Herald:*

> "Just as soon as this insanity blows over, the tariff will become the leading issue. When this convention and the Democratic convention have adjourned, the tariff will come to the front."

The "insanity" here referred to is the demand that the words "gold standard" shall be inserted in the Republican platform. This is so far the leading issue at present that nothing else is talked of or thought of; but, when it "blows over," the tariff will take its natural place at the front, says Grosvenor. That depends, for as it takes at least two persons to make a bargain, it takes at least two parties to make a political issue. If the Democrats put the free coinage of silver in their platform, the tariff will not come to the front this year, and probably not next year nor the year after. The fight that the McKinley men are making at St. Louis is not so much against the gold standard as it is against giving precedence to the gold standard as an issue. It is precisely because they know that the money question is the dominant one, and that McKinley on a gold platform is an illogical candidate, that they are so stoutly resisting the use of the word gold.

With McKinley's nomination for the Presidency assured, and his election probable, the thing for sound-money men, without distinction of party, to do at once is to organize a campaign for the election of a House of Representatives which will be sound on the financial issue. McKinley's election would give the country, for the first time since the soft-money agitation began after the war, an executive who could not be expected to veto any act which Congress might send him. A Republican Congress might pass an inflation bill under Grant, and the nation could hope to escape through his refusal to approve it. A Democratic Congress might pass a bill to coin the seigniorage under Cleveland, and the country knew that it could never become a law. But whatever the representatives of the people in the Senate and House may agree to in the

way of financial legislation from 1897 to 1901 will be sure to pass the White House with McKinley as its occupant. As for the executive's exercising any restraint upon Congress, as Hayes did when he thwarted the movement for the repeal of the resumption act, or Cleveland when he kept a Congress that wanted to pass a free-coinage bill from really doing it, McKinley would never think of attempting such a thing.

Still another vote of McKinley's needs to be cited to complete his record in Congress on the currency question. On the 29th of April, 1878, the House of Representatives was called upon to decide whether it would pass a bill making it unlawful for the Treasury thereafter to cancel or retire any more legal-tender notes, and providing that when any such notes should be redeemed or received into the Treasury under any law from any source, they should not be retired, cancelled, or destroyed, but should be reissued and paid out again and kept in circulation. The proposition was opposed by the sound-money men on both sides of the chamber, including Garfield of Ohio, Hewitt, Hiscock, and Potter of New York, Claflin, Crapo, and Robinson of Massachusetts, Frye of Maine, and Gibson of Louisiana. But the same crowd which a few months before had voted for free coinage supported this measure also, and McKinley was again found among them. The man who expects to be the next President is thus among those who are responsible for the continuance of the policy by which the Government must keep on indefinitely paying out the same greenback and redeeming it in gold, instead of getting rid of the promise to pay once for all.

Gov. Morton is entitled to much credit for the straightforward manner in which he has held himself as a candidate before the St. Louis convention. He is the one candidate who has had the courage to define his views on the A. P. A. question, saying quite simply that if he were charged with the duty of administering the office of President, he should "endeavor to treat all classes without discrimination as to their religious belief." That is not a very difficult thing to say, and when it is said there is really nothing to add to it, and no rational mind can see any criticism to pass upon it; yet what a curious light it throws upon the McKinleyized political situation that no other candidate finds himself able to say it, lest by doing so he might lose a few votes. The Governor's course in regard to a vice-presidential nomination was equally dignified and discreet. He was placed in a position of being "played" by Platt for first place if he could get it, and, failing that, as a willing candidate for second place. He upset that scheme by sending a telegram to Mr. Depew refusing to have his name used for second place.

The forthcoming number of the *Forum* magazine will contain an article by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the distinguished French publicist, on McKinleyism as it looks to an intelligent foreigner who has no personal interest in our politics. In the first place, he tells us that the name of McKinley stands in Europe for something more than a protective tariff—an exaggerated form of protection intended seriously to restrict trade. The election of such a man, he says, would give a new and powerful impetus to protectionism in Europe. European protectionists, who are mainly landowners, want higher duties on agricultural products. In France they are now clamoring for an increase of 30 or 40 per cent. on wheat. In Germany they are equally fierce, and in England they are beginning to make some headway, putting forward the idea of a great British Zollverein, which is protection under the guise of a closer political union with the colonies. Any new outburst of protectionism in Europe would be a backward step in civilization, and would be especially injurious to the United States as an exporter of agricultural products. One thought might be added to Leroy-Beaulieu's lucid reasoning. If the new outburst of protectionism in Europe really takes place and throws back our fifty-cent wheat on the hands of American farmers, they may get their eyes open a little sooner to the fact that protection is a downright swindle to them. *Rusticus expectat*, said the Latin poet. The farmer has been waiting in this country more than a hundred years for the tariff to begin to benefit him, and he is still waiting. Perhaps if he finds that other nations can play tariff also, he may change his notions.

The chief part of Leroy-Beaulieu's article, however, relates to McKinleyism and the silver question. McKinley is understood in Europe to be a silver man or a silverish man. There is a difference between the two. A silver man is one who is in favor of free coinage at some ratio, preferably the ratio of 16 to 1. A silverish man is one who has no particular views, but who wishes to be considered "friendly to silver"—just friendly enough to get the votes of the silver men, but not friendly enough to lose those of the gold men. Leroy-Beaulieu takes this occasion to tell us what is the status of international bimetallism at the present time. Although a small clique of agitators continue to make themselves heard (they had a small private conference at Brussels the other day), the movement is as dead as possible. As to free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1, that is simply inconceivable. So far are the nations of Europe from moving in the direction of bimetallism, the only one that has not the single gold standard now is striving eagerly to reach it, and will soon accomplish that end. Russia has been accumulating gold for this purpose steadily for a series of years, and drawing her supplies chiefly from the United States. She now has the largest quantity on hand that can be found in any one place, viz., $420,000,000. This is considerably larger than the gold reserve of the Bank of France. Does anybody suppose that Russia, at the end of her long, persistent effort to resume specie payments on the gold basis, is going to give any countenance to bimetallism, national or international? No more is Austria-Hungary likely to do so. As for France, with which Leroy-Beaulieu is more intimately concerned, he tells us that the French bimetallists themselves say that they can do nothing without the coöperation of England, and that nobody expects England to change her standard. In short, while the United States might give a new life and impetus to protectionism in Europe, it cannot galvanize the corpse of bimetallism.

The Democratic convention in Minnesota last week, with its unqualified declaration for the maintenance of the present gold standard, is a fresh illustration of the fact, to which we have repeatedly called attention, that the States with the largest proportion of foreigners are doing much more to sustain the financial stability of the nation than those which are peopled almost entirely by the native-born. In Virginia less than 3 per cent. of the population are of foreign parentage; in Minnesota the proportion exceeds 75 per cent. Yet the Democrats of Virginia went for free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1 by a vote of four to one, while those of Minnesota sustained the most uncompromising sort of gold platform by a large majority. The leading Democratic journal of the Northwestern State, the St. Paul *Globe*, is entitled to honorable mention for its persistent and effective work on the right side in that party; as is the *Pioneer Press* of the same city for the same sort of instruction to Republicans during the long agitation for soft money in one shape or another.

The Senate took a turn at art last week, and left the experts looking as silly as so many defeated gold-bugs. The idea of a committee of sculptors undertaking to teach battle-scarred generals anything about artistic merit! As Senator Mills said, a body of men who "arrogate to themselves an exclusive knowledge of art" were the last persons on earth to whom an untamed Texan would refer a question about the Sherman monument. The Connecticut idea of art was luminously set forth by Senator Hawley, who asserted that what was wanted was not "a mere work of art," but something that the old soldiers would recognize "a mile off" as the real Old Tecumseh. It only remained to add, as Senator Allison did, that the whole thing grew out of per-

sonal enmity against the successful artist, and that the decision and protest of the committee were based on spite and envy, not on æsthetic principles. On the whole, it was a bad day for presumptuous experts, who were taught the needed lesson that Art may err, but Nature (in the shape of a Senate giving its mind to monuments) cannot miss.

It is to be said of the Greater New York Commission that it is probably the best which the Governor was able to form, and that it will accomplish as much as any Commission could under the conditions in which it will have to do its work. Several members of it are admirably well qualified for the task before them, and, if the prospects for performing useful and lasting public service had been better, we have no doubt that others equally well qualified could have been induced to accept positions with them. As it stands, it is much more of a Brooklyn than a New York Commission, and, however great the abilities of some of its individual members may be, as a whole it is not a body which gives promise of performing successfully the practically impossible task set for it, which is the evolving of a charter for one of the greatest cities in the world within about eight months. Even if it were to prove equal to this tremendous task, it must proceed about it with the possibility, in the end, of having its work rejected by the next Legislature. The Commission must, in fact, carry forward its task under conditions prepared by Platt and Lexow, who in arranging them had no interest whatever in the formulating of a scheme of municipal government, but were looking only for the creation of such a situation as would enable them to capture, in the interest of spoils politics, the governments of the two great cities affected.

The English education bill is exciting fierce opposition from the Liberal party, especially from the Dissenters. The Liberal party is opposed to it because it breaks up the arrangement made by them twenty-six years ago through the late Mr. Forster, which was the first serious attempt not only to establish popular education in England, but to make popular education undenominational. As a general rule, such popular schools as had existed in England before that time were adjuncts of the parish church, and were completely controlled by the Anglican minister, to the great disadvantage or at least discontent of the Dissenters. Mr. Forster's bill established popular schools ruled by elected school boards, but it compromised by giving Government assistance, at a stated proportion to voluntary subscriptions, to denominational schools. As the years have rolled by, the school boards have gained on the clergy; the voluntary subscriptions to denominational schools, and consequently the Government aid, have fallen off, until, to use their own language, "the strain [on them] has become intolerable." It is now proposed to abolish the school boards, to remit the management of the schools to the county councils, to increase the assistance to the denominational schools, and to hand religious instruction in the schools over to the clergy of different denominations. In order to secure some such legislation, the Anglican clergy are accused of working with great vigor at the last election to get Tory majorities. Worse than all, since the election, Lord Salisbury has openly made common cause with them by treating the church as "we" and the Dissenters as "you," in conversations with the Dissenting delegations who came to remonstrate with him about the bill. Principal Fairbairn, the most scholarly Nonconformist, the head of the Dissenting college at Oxford, has just contributed a bitter article on the subject to the *Contemporary Review*, in which, passing over machinery and details, he denounces the policy of the bill as a distinct return to mediæval clerical methods in popular education, and as due in the main to the efforts of the Anglican clergy, who are not, he says, what they used to be. They used to be part and parcel of the gentry, younger sons or brothers, men of family. They are now, he alleges, more sacerdotal, more purely professional, more separated from the community at large, and more imbued with a sense of "apostolic succession." To this change in the character of the body he ascribes the new attempt to regain control of the schools and root out purely secular education among the people.

The full text of Mr. Gladstone's letter to Cardinal Rampolla on Anglican orders does not make it clear why the Nonconformists should have been so cut to the heart by it as the cable reported that they were. It contains no view which Mr. Gladstone has not been long known to entertain. He is a high-churchman, and as such is bound to welcome the inquiry which the Pope has set on foot in Rome respecting the validity of Anglican orders. That "any immediate, practical, and external consequences" would follow a favorable decision, he does not imagine, but simply hails the proposed investigation as an act of wisdom and charity on the part of the Pope, in whom it argues great courage and "an elevation above all the levels of stormy partisanship," and as a step towards the only form of church unity now possible—a united and tolerant bearing of witness to the essentials of the Christian faith. Why the expression of such opinions should be fiercely denounced by Nonconformist ministers as "a betrayal of the liberty of the country" and "a miserable trifling with Rome," does not appear to a mind untrained in the niceties of theological logic. In the course of this very letter Mr. Gladstone paid a handsome tribute to "those independent religious communities" with which his political life had brought him much in contact; but this contact has taught him little if it has not made him aware of their extreme sensitiveness and hysterical fervor on all subjects relating to the Scarlet Woman. What Walter Bagehot wrote of the English feeling about Rome is still very much in point. Referring to the Oxford movement, he said that it had vexed the English people by crossing "their one speculative Affection, by encountering their one speculative Hatred." Of a Tractarian clergyman the instinctive English judgment was, "the system which trained *him* must be bad."

> "Such is our axiom. Tell an Englishman that a building [at Oxford] is without use, and he will stare; that it is illiberal, and he will survey it; that it teaches Aristotle, and he will seem perplexed; that it don't teach science, and he won't mind; but only hint that it is the Pope, and he will arise and burn it to the ground."

Mr. G. S. Fort, who writes in the last *Nineteenth Century* on "The True Motive and Reason of Dr. Jameson's Raid," was private secretary to Sir Henry Loch while the latter was Governor at the Cape, and is on the most intimate terms with both Rhodes and Jameson. He states "positively" that the chief object of Jameson's rush was, not to overthrow the Dutch Government, not to redress the grievances of the Outlanders, but to "secure documentary evidence" of the secret alliance between the Transvaal and Germany, which evidence "was believed, on reliable authority, to be in possession of President Krüger in Pretoria." According to Mr. Fort, the intrigues of the Germans in the Transvaal had been divined by Cecil Rhodes, who saw in their success the "death-blow to his lifelong work," and determined to thwart them by getting hold of the secret treaties and holding them up to the scorn of the world. If Mr. Chamberlain had allowed him, he would have, when in England, "gone down to Trafalgar Square" and proclaimed this as the true motive of the raid. This is more curious than convincing, and even the solemn Mr. Fort has to admit that this theory "is necessarily to a certain extent hypothetical." One thing not hypothetical is that Rhodes said that which was not when he avowed to Chamberlain that he was entirely ignorant of the raid. And the idea of sending 800 troopers to steal some documents! One skilled burglar would have been much better. It would have been just like the wicked Krüger to burn every last secret treaty the moment he heard the English raiders were coming. The guilty old man would know what they were after. There is also a certain humor, of which Mr. Fort seems wholly unaware, in sending a man after incriminating documents who himself was loaded down with incriminating documents. Dr. Jameson ought at least to have swallowed the key to the cipher telegrams captured with him.

PROSPERITY'S ADVANCE ORATOR.

In a little volume of 'McKinley's Masterpieces,' lately published, the good news is revealed that "William McKinley stands high among America's greatest orators." Everybody would have believed this if McKinley had never delivered or printed any orations. As it is, the assertion may be tested by the fact. The small book of condensed McKinley oratory is put forth to "meet the needs of the busy man." But we prefer the large and complete edition of McKinley's speeches, on the ground that a little dulness is a dangerous thing, and that one should drink deep of the Major's oratorical flow before reporting on its quality. Even so, there are perils in writing of an orator who belongs to Dr. Johnson's category of men who not only are dull, but provoke dulness in others. However, in the cause of discovering one of America's greatest orators, we are ready to run all risks.

Lord Rosebery's oratory has been defined as English in substance, but with a surface addition of French polish. No such discrimination can be made in McKinley's case. Substance and surface are all of a piece in his oratory; and whether you plunge into it, or skim over it, the sense of touching something wooden is unmistakable. There is scarcely a gleam in the whole 654 deadly pages—not a phrase or thought to serve as a watchword of party or epigram of debate; not one flash of happy characterization; not one generous burst of unpremeditated enthusiasm; hardly an apt passage cited from poet, orator, or statesman. Nothing can reconcile one to this dead level of monotony except McKinley's occasional efforts to rise above it. The luckless reader of his address to the Mahoning Valley Pioneers, with its beautiful quotation from "a gifted songstress of this valley," or of his discourse to the Ohio State Grange, with his easy flinging about of all that "Cato, the eloquent orator and great general," "old Virgil," "the historians of China," and a long line of ex-Presidents had said about farming (all obviously drawn fresh from some book of elegant extracts)—one condemned to witness the dray horse thus frisking about will cry out, we say, for a return to the old shambling trot. The appetite developed by a slight experience of McKinley flowers of fancy for a column of McKinley figures and extracts from the *Iron Age* is simply amazing to one who has not tried it.

These may seem slight tests of oratory, but they are really among the most searching. The oratorical temperament is in nothing more truly revealed than in its incidental, its extemporized graces and felicities. Their absence, or miserable failure in laboriously attempting them, is a surface indication, to be sure, but an indication just as fatal as bad spelling or bad grammar would be in one setting up for an educated man. (There is, by the way, a deal of bad grammar in this McKinley tome, despite its revision by Mr. McKinley himself, assisted by the Ohio State Librarian.) Consider, too, the matter of insight into character, judgment of a man, a movement, or an institution. The really great orators throw these things off in a fine glow—as Burke threw off his tribute to Charles Townshend—and in nothing is the exaltation of the oratorical nature, with its swift intuition and vitally metaphorical language, more clearly displayed. Remember this, and then listen to McKinley declaring (to take only a few examples) Oberlin "unrivalled in university annals," and "scarcely second to the best institutions of the world" (p. 571); affirming that Logan ("Black Jack") had achieved "a success in both careers [military and civil] almost unrivalled in the history of men" (p. 275-6); asserting that William D. Kelley ("Pig-Iron Kelley"), as "a student and master of political economy, was probably without a superior in the present generation" (p. 448). Of a man capable of such things we can only say, as Disraeli once said cynically of himself, "Circumstances have forced me to do a good deal of talking, but nature meant me to be a silent man."

But logic, force, impact of relentless argument are, after all, the weightier matters of political oratory, and it may be said that herein lies McKinley's title to rank with Webster. As to logic, he is evidently of De Quincey's opinion, that any fool can reason correctly from given premises, but that the true logician is known by the choice of the premises from which to reason. Hence comes his peculiar greatness in varying his premises to suit the conclusion he wishes to draw. Take his one fundamental doctrine, of which he is a master if he is of anything—the doctrine that the foreigner pays the tax. This is an absolute and unqualified truth in Virginia (p. 185) and Ohio (p. 372); but in Georgia (p. 342) it becomes the assertion that "the duty is rarely paid by the consumer," and in Washington (p. 411) the admission that "it [the tariff tax] may add a little temporarily to the cost to the consumer." On the main question we say nothing, and refrain from pitting Hamilton against McKinley; but as a specimen of deft changing hands and ability to dispute on either side, we submit that it shows McKinley to have a logical faculty beyond anything that Webster ever dreamed of.

In one respect, we admit, McKinley's oratory is overwhelming and irresistible. No man ever lived who was his equal in demonstrating what nobody questions, or in cramming down the throats of his adversaries the propositions with which they themselves start. His unique impressiveness is best seen when he is arguing some such thesis as that a government must have a revenue. The Union League Committee on Political Reform have come dangerously near him on this subject; but, on the whole, not even those fierce slayers of the slain can rival McKinley in this chosen field. He rides down all opponents like a whirlwind. Ill betide the man who should dare to maintain, in the face of his noble wrath, that a government can pay its bills without money, that revenue may rain into the Treasury from the clouds, that neither internal nor external taxes are necessary. All such suggestions McKinley dashes aside impetuously and with lofty scorn. He pursues the wretched sophists who assert that a government needs no revenue, into every hole and corner where they seek a refuge from his lightnings, and drags them out trembling and begging for mercy. America never before had an orator capable of such feats. And few can she have had able to invite comparison with McKinley on such a theme as "The American Home." His panegyric on that institution, his stern and unyielding opposition to everything that threatens it, his defiance, in his own single person, of all its enemies, his bold assertion that "the good home makes the good citizen, and the good citizen makes wholesome public sentiment"—who, we ask, can read or hear all this without paying the orator the tribute of a tear, or mayhap a groan?

We should be glad to think more highly of the intellect, as of the convictions and courage, of the man whom, as Col. John Hay informs the London *Times*, "a singularly spontaneous movement of the voters" has already chosen President of the United States. If we had that form of gratitude to McKinley which consists of a lively sense of favors to come, we might be able to see in him, as Col. Hay does, "unusual qualities, extraordinary ability and force of character." But having no other means of judging mind than by the products of mind, we see no reason for calling upon any of America's greatest orators to take a lower seat and give place to one worthier; and if any one, after surviving 654 pages of McKinley, thinks differently, we should be as anxious as Charles Lamb to be allowed to examine that man's phrenological development.

THE ALBANY POLICE JUDGMENT.

The Albany *Law Journal* justly insists on the great gravity of the doctrines laid down by Judge Herrick in delivering the opinion of the Appellate Division of the Third Department in the Albany police case. It is true that the opinion has not yet been affirmed by the Court of Appeals, but the fact that it came from a majority of four out of five members of the Appellate Division raises a probability that it will receive the sanction of the Court of Appeals also. Should it do so, its importance for all municipal reformers in this State, for all civil-service and municipal reform associations, and all persons laboring to form "a municipal party" here or elsewhere, cannot be overrated, and we call to it the earnest attention of all such persons.

Most of our readers will remember that

during all the recent agitation for the divorce of municipal administration from party politics, we were met, by both enemies and many well-intentioned friends, with the argument that this was impossible as long as the power of the Legislature over the city was exercised as at present, and that even if we were only municipal men during city elections, we should have to be party men when we came to elect members of the Senate and Assembly. It was difficult or impossible to reply to this argument. The candidates for the Legislature were sure to be either Republicans or Democrats, and the Legislature itself was sure to exercise constant control over city affairs. This control not only exists, but has been growing for thirty years. The cities of the State have each a charter or organic law, but this law is liable to, and undergoes, incessant modification at the hands of the Legislature, generally against the will of the city. During all this period, not one city of the State has enjoyed what is called local self-government or "home rule" in any sense in which the term is ordinarily used. The police, the lighting, the education, the petty justice, the street-cleaning, the taxation of every city in the State are controlled by the Legislature. That is, its local affairs are all in the hands of men who do not live in it, who have no knowledge of it, and cannot have, humanly speaking, much concern about it. We cannot in New York pave a street, open a public school, employ or promote a policeman, fix our rate of taxation, light or clean our streets, without legislative sanction and regulation. The same is true of every other city.

Originally—that is, forty or fifty years ago, when the effect of railroads on the growth of cities first began to be felt—the motives for this interference may have been good. People were called on to deal rather suddenly with a new problem, and self-government in large communities like this seemed to be breaking down, and State interference, in the first moments of surprise and alarm, seemed called for. But very early, as early as 1870, it was found that the matter had another and very serious side, that cities had grown too large to be successfully managed in this way; and, soon after the Tweed scandal, both parties began to inscribe "home rule" on their flags in obedience to a growing sentiment, but without the least intention of carrying it into practice. In the meantime 60 per cent. of the population of the State has come to live in the cities, and their united annual revenues, if we may judge from New York, amount to about $75,000,000, and the practice of interference with them from the outside—that is, of regulating their government and their taxation, and of filling their offices in the interest of people who may not and generally do not live in them—has become a regular business by which a small army of men make their livelihood either as legislators, "owners" of legislators, bosses, lobbyists, or politicians.

This class is now very large and increasing, and generally makes enough in the winter by minatory or corrupt legislation directed against cities, or corporations having their seats in cities, to live with comfort during the remainder of the year. Many profess to be lawyers; others are supposed to be in "real estate," but the bulk of them do not take the trouble to assume any occupation at all. They are Toms, Dicks, Charleys, Mikes, Abes, Jakes, Barneys, often not only without any recognized calling, but with too little character to get places with any private employer. They are nominally in the service of one party or the other, but their business is to threaten, defeat, or delay legislation about cities at Albany. This, too, is done in the most arbitrary way, and without assigning any reason. City offices are often, as in the case of Buffalo, Albany, and this city, filled without notice by the boss in control of the majority, so that a class of adventurers, like the two Sheehans, has grown up, who are moved about from city to city to fill its leading places as the boss or they themselves may think best. Against such proceedings the protests of the city itself or its officials are useless. The late amendments to the Constitution gave the mayors a consultative voice in local legislation, thinking it would check these practices, but, as we see in the Greater New York case, it has not had the slightest effect. The opposition of the two mayors has had no effect, although the legislation emanated from a small village on the Hudson and from a distant county.

We might fill columns with illustrations of this system. The general result is that, as is shown in the Albany police case, local self-government, as it has always existed and been insisted on by the Anglo-Saxon race, preceding all written constitutions, has practically disappeared in this State. There is less of it than in any European country. Charters are granted here, but they are altered annually by persons not residing in the locality, and in defiance of the inhabitants, which is centralization in a form hardly seen since Louis XIV. The recent decision in the Albany case characterizes this sort of thing fitly, and absolutely denies the right of Legislatures to interfere in local concerns, as long as they are conducted constitutionally. They have no right to alter the constitution of police boards, or say how they shall be filled; to say whether a street needs paving or how it shall be paved; to say whether the city shall be united to some other city, or how its schools shall be conducted. All this is local matter for local decision.

Should the decision of the Appellate Division be sustained, it will almost work a revolution in this State. It will make the establishment of real municipal government easy all over the State. It will kill all the organizations, from Tammany down, which live by controlling and affecting legislation. It will deliver corporations from the blackmail of the bosses, and it will bring the reason and good sense of the inhabitants to bear on municipal concerns. It will put a stop to those annual sorrowful expeditions of good citizens to Albany to resist rascality, by arguments addressed to a lot of venal Boys, whose only answer is that "it is sure to pass." Should the Court of Appeals confirm the judgment, all reform organizations will have a new weapon to work with, before which everything must go down. The Boys are already sorrowful over the competitive examinations. Take away from them the legislative business, and want, crime, or honest industry would stare them in the face.

FREE TRADE IN ENGLAND.

THE rubbish which some of our papers allow their London correspondents to prepare for the American market is receiving another striking exemplification in the pretence that free trade in England is in some danger. We are fresh from something of the same kind in the case of bimetallism. For years it was impossible to persuade American bimetallists that their cause was not making rapid progress in England; and when Mr. Balfour came out strongly on their side, we were told that his advent to power would be the signal for the pound sterling to share its honors with silver at some ratio or other. Well, he has got into power, and the new ministry has no more thought of meddling with the currency than the old one. The present Chancellor of the Exchequer makes nearly as merry over the bimetallists as Sir William Harcourt did. In other words, the nation pays even less attention to Mr. Balfour's views on the currency than it pays to his views on the Unknowable.

We are just witnessing a similar phenomenon in the case of Mr. Chamberlain. This gentleman has got into a Conservative Ministry without having a single rag left of the causes and beliefs to which he devoted his earlier life. The Tory Ministry is using its enormous majority to attack or damage the causes for which he once stood, and is taking no notice of the beautiful promises he has recently made to the poor and the aged and forlorn. Consequently, it has considerately given him a place in which his former record cannot well be used for his detriment. Hitherto he has had nothing to do with the colonies, good, bad, or indifferent. For him they are virgin soil. Accordingly he is Colonial Secretary, and his first act was to promise that something should be done for the colonies, and that this would probably take the form of a sort of imperial federation, based on a customs union. The colonies nearly all, if not all, raise their revenues, as they now have a right to do, by customs duties. These duties are mainly levied on English goods. Their own products are admitted duty free into Eng-

land. It was proposed, therefore, that they should remit or greatly reduce these duties in consideration of being members of an imperial confederation, being protected in time of war, etc. The colonies promptly refused. They needed the money badly, and were ready to take the risks of war. This, combined with distance, diversity of interests, difference in form of government, etc., seemed to dispose of the imperial-federation idea. A federation one leading member of which was in America, one in the South Pacific, and one in England, seemed little more than a beautiful dream.

This was bad for Mr. Chamberlain. How was his something for the colonies to be done? He had, when the chambers of commerce came together, after his unsuccessful attempt on old Krüger, to say something. So he intimated gently, tentatively, that if the colonies would propose that Great Britain should put a tax on everything she receives from other parts of the world, except the colonies, they would not meet with an immediate refusal. This is probably true, but the reason why they would not meet with an immediate refusal is that probably no notice, beyond a mention in Parliament, would be taken of the proposal. It would be received, like the bimetallic idea, as an absurdity. No ministry would venture to show it any favor. It would be far more than a reduction of duties on colonial products, for colonial products come in duty free. It would be a proposition to clap a duty on French, German, Russian, Italian products, on nearly every article of comfo and necessity from all parts of the wor'd which an Englishman now uses, and which he now receives duty free. He would be asked to do this, too, not because the English people are dissatisfied with free trade, for the country, as the late statement of the Chancellor of the Exchequer shows, was never so prosperous as under free trade, but to oblige Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Salisbury, and the colonists.

Here again there is a striking resemblance to bimetallism. During the whole bimetallic agitation there was not a pretence that the English people, or its great merchants or traders or exchange dealers, were dissatisfied with the gold standard. What was said was that Senator Morgan, and Senator Lodge, and President Andrews, and Mr. Bland were dissatisfied, and that if England did not abandon the gold standard, there would be trouble. Senator Lodge proposed to discriminate against her goods on account of it, and ascribed American hatred of England to that cause, solely or mainly. But the English people paid no attention to these objectors. It was ready to confer with them as much as they pleased, but it had no more idea of touching the pound sterling than of dethroning the Queen. This simple, plain, conspicuous truth has needed twenty years in order to dawn on our silver and bimetallic fanatics. It would have taken longer, but for the advent of the Salisbury Ministry, which, curiously enough, was a striking product of English conservatism, and yet was expected to begin its reign by a tremendous change in the mechanism of English business.

A recent striking article in the London *Economist* on this subject treats the protectionist apostles with the contempt they deserve. But, in commenting on the failure of Cobden's prophecies about the adoption of free trade elsewhere, it fails to notice the fact that, since Cobden's day, the government of all the leading countries in Europe has passed into the hands of a different class. That is, they have all become democratic. He could not now make his French treaty with France or any other of them. Nor, probably, could Sir Robert Peel adopt free trade. Trade and currency have been taken hold of by the masses, and they are learning their lessons about them. Protection is the natural resort of the ignorant or inexperienced man. To keep the market to himself is the one expedient of the thoughtless or uninstructed. The great conditions of commerce and exchange are hard to understand. "Protection and cheap money" will therefore be the cry of the uninstructed whenever they have possession of a government until they learn better. The failure of "Cobdenism" to spread is really not nearly so wonderful or so unexpected as the control, thirty years after his death, of the currency of a commercial nation of 70,000,000 by a popular assembly partly composed of ignorant and venal negroes, whom the two adverse interests accuse each other of purchasing for cash. Cobden did not foresee this, and would not have believed it; why should he?

THE AMHERST ECLIPSE EXPEDITION TO JAPAN.

HONOLULU, May 24, 1896.

AFTER fifteen days of voyaging over the lonely Pacific Ocean, the rugged cliffs and peaks of the Hawaiian Islands broke the ocean horizon with a serrated welcome. The *Coronet* came to her anchorage in lovely Honolulu harbor late in the evening of May 10, and the next morning showed calm water all about, many vessels at anchor (our nearest neighbor being the United States steamship *Adams*), ranges of precipitous mountains, and the city lying at their feet, while sunshine almost tropical in its warmth reminded us of our latitude, as the Southern Cross had done the night before. While the scientific gentlemen became immediately absorbed in details of work, others of the company were more interested in the immense eruption of Mauna Loa, which had been in progress for more than two weeks on the island of Hawaii; and during the *Coronet's* stay at Honolulu, a secondary trip was planned to the volcano. The weekly steamer sailed the next day for the voyage of 270 miles, and, quite as if they had not just come from more than 2,000 miles of ocean travelling, the *Coronet's* party gayly embarked on the steamer *Hall* for Hawaii. The forward deck of the *Hall* contained a motley but most interesting crowd of passengers. Chinese, Japanese, native islanders, Portuguese, and every conceivable half-breed combination were lying about in picturesque confusion. Small Japanese babies with their shaved heads and hair fringes, Chinese infants with their queues, diversified the scene where the deck was so thickly covered with the various reposing nationalities, all in their native attitudes, that stepping-room was out of the question.

No one who has not visited the islands can properly appreciate their remoteness from one another. The map appears to indicate the little group as lying close together, perhaps an hour or two's sail apart. But the steamer takes two days and a night to go from Oahu, on which Honolulu is situated, to Hawaii, where are Mauna Loa and Mauna Kea and Kilauea. The scenery of the different islands passed was unusual and impressive—Molokai and Lanai, with their cliffs and ravines, and Maui, with a wonderful sunset light on its red-lava mountain slopes and bright green sugar-cane fields. By the courtesy of the purser we landed on Maui at the little town of Lahaina, for an hour or two—a purely native town, full of cocoanut palms and strange vegetation, a fine beach, and curious houses. But the first interesting stop on Hawaii itself was the next day, at Kealakeakua Bay, where Captain Cook is buried and a monument stands on guard in his honor, shadowed by an enormous cliff over 400 feet high, and fronting a bay where the water is as clear and green as an emerald. It seemed odd to be able to telephone from any of these little native towns to all other places on the island, but a perfect telephone system is one of the blessings of this fair republic. The news about Mauna Loa was, however, discouraging. Every fresh reply over the wires was to the effect that its eruption was unmistakably over—no fire could be seen. But hope still lived that something might yet remain when we reached our port, at the foot of that great mountain, 13,700 feet high, whose base is so enormous and the slope so gradual that its true proportions are quite disguised. All day the rugged shores of Hawaii were skirted, the top of the superb mountain lightly veiled in mist, the coast a series of lava cliffs in which are caves where often native dead are buried, and where the surf breaks in tremendous walls of white, with spray flying high, and all the air filled with its resounding boom.

The landing was made at Punaluu in small boats through the surf—a very exciting trip, as the great breakers chased us from behind, raised us in a wild rush forward for a moment, broke themselves on the lava reefs on both sides, and still the natives kept calmly on, guiding the boat through the dangerous passages, taking each wave just right until we were safely brought up beside the little wharf, filled with a crowd of natives and Chinese, and one more jump brought us among them. It was here that the famous mud flood of 1868 swept down so rapidly that many inhabitants were killed, and miles of valuable land made useless. Farther up the coast we had passed the great lava flow of that year, when convulsions of all sorts stirred the island to its foundations. A tidal wave buried the Punaluu road deep in permanent breakers, and earthquakes moved houses quite off their foundations, and broke vases and china indiscriminately, so that now dining-room closets are fitted up like a ship's galley, with guards in front of every shelf. Fortunately, the lava flows very slowly—but a few inches a day—and there is plenty of time to remove goods and prevent any fatalities. The flow of 1881 went toward the town of Hilo, and, keeping steadily on its way, caused great depression in the minds of the inhabitants and the price of

real estate. Lands of ancestral memory were sold for a song. But when within three-quarters of a mile of the town, the Princess Ruth, a member of the old royal Kamehameha family, went out with a company of friends to appease if possible the wrath of Pele, goddess of fire. Bottles of brandy and gin, pigs, chickens, silk handkerchiefs and locks of hair were thrown into the sluggish stream with appropriate ceremonies, and the flow stopped the next day, dividing itself and dying out harmlessly. But the real estate could not be bought back by its former owners. Neither terror of Pele nor gratitude was sufficient for that.

At Punaluu, society seems to be in a state of primitive simplicity. After walking up to the little hotel through a path between lily-ponds bordered by rushes, no proprietor was apparent. Everything was open, all on one floor, doors and windows hospitably wide, beds carefully made, and not a soul in sight. So we took possession and slept calmly, a Chinaman preparing a delicious breakfast next morning. A short ride on the funniest little rusty toy railway imaginable, through a desolate lava country where white poppies bloomed lavishly, took us to Pahala plantation, where tons of fine sugar are made annually. The methods and machinery were of great interest, but horses were waiting, and an ancient stage took its burden, while the others rode the rough but capable horses of the region—the ladies riding manfashion, in the style of which Kate Field approved when not carried to excess, and which is universal here. After the charmingly hospitable manner of the islanders, we were entertained at luncheon at the Kapapala Ranch, a garden of beauty in the midst of great barrenness; and here a vivid account of the great eruption was given—the summit crater (Mokuaweowео), a lake of liquid fire, while two great fiery fountains played upwards from its midst more than 300 feet. From the depths of a heavy snow-storm the benumbed and half-fainting company watched through the night this gigantic spectacle and listened to the never-ceasing soar of the flames and the internal seething of this indescribable cauldron. And that was but a few days before, when ships at sea could view the pillar of fire on Mauna Loa's crest for 150 miles, and now it was all out and gone; not a breath more of this terrific energy, and only a calm summit reposing peacefully above, innocently laying its huge crest against the sky like any New England hill. But Kilauea remained, only about one-third the height of Mauna Loa, to be sure, yet always interesting and evidently preparing for an eruption of its own.

With much reluctance the plan of climbing nearly 14,000 feet into the air was abandoned, since the great sight had seethed itself into rest, and the Volcano House at Kilauea was made the objective point. The ride over lava, stiffened as it flowed into weird shapes and crawling circles, occasionally heaped into wild masses, but always smooth and rounded—the *pahoehoe* of the islander—was one to be long remembered. Brilliant yellow and scarlet milkweed blossomed lavishly all along the way, standing decoratively against black lava backgrounds, while armies of brown butterflies looked as if they had escaped from some New England meadow to this strange and foreign scene on the uplands of Hawaii. The goddess Pele seems very fond of red, as naturally she might, since red flowers, red leaves, red berries, and red birds abound on the slopes towards her citadel. But she is a very jealous lady, and no flower or berry must be picked on the way up to Kilauea, for that would imply that one admired them—and homage must be paid her first; otherwise she will send rain or other damper to the satisfaction of the traveller. No native would think of plucking anything on the way to the crater. Pele's particular flower, the *ohia*, grows on large trees, a magnificent fringe of scarlet, very tempting to the visitor. Towards evening a cloud of white steam indicated the nearness of Kilauea, and steam bursting out of holes and cracks in the ground all about, very hot and fringed with exquisite sulphur crystals, formed the suggestive approach to the Volcano House. Perched high on one wall of the enormous crater, the hotel commands the entire scene of desolate grandeur. A lake of black lava, 3½ miles in one direction by 1½ in the other, is surrounded by nearly perpendicular walls varying from 750 to 300 feet high, at one end of which a secondary crater sends out volumes of sulphur steam. Mauna Loa rises grandly towards the west, and, in the north, Mauna Kea raises its more rugged peak yet higher.

The descent into the crater, on the sure-footed horses, is a memorable experience. Back and forth the narrow path winds, down the wall, through masses of ferns and foliage, until the great cliff behind shuts out half the sky, and high up from its thick verdure a single bird-song came out airily into the dewy morning. But the lake was unspeakable desolation, with its black lava in writhing, curling, creeping masses as far as the eye could reach, growing hotter to the feet as the steaming crater was approached, until a stick thrust slightly into a crack came out in flames. Strange contradiction of this fast-dying nineteenth century, a telephone wire crosses this Hades of desolation, and, though useless now, once served to connect the Volcano House with a little house close to the active crater. But, in the picturesque language of the natives, "it was eaten up by the fire"; that is, the hot lava walls caved and the little house fell in one day. The lake is full of "blow-holes" in this region, too frightfully hot to stand near, and every tiniest crack sends out heat like a register in winter when the furnace below is red hot—only in Kilauea one may not send down impatiently to know why the furnace drafts have been forgotten. The crater is a bewildering mass of tumbled lava, hissing sulphur steam and unbearable heat. Another great eruption like that of last January is daily expected, but did not break out before we left. The dreary grimness of a slumbering but restless volcano is beyond any words to express. One morning the whole crater, lake and all, was filled with mist and showers, while the early sun shone brilliantly elsewhere, and a superb rainbow arched the great black pit with heavenly radiance.

Kilaueaiki, near by, is well worth the walk through ferny uplands. Another lake of dead lava sunk more than seven hundred feet into the woods, and about a mile across, the great bowl has nearly perpendicular sides, heavily wooded, at the bottom of which wild goats browse. This crater has never been active in historic times. If space permitted, much might be said of the beautiful and tropical road to Hilo, on the other side of the island from Pahala, where rains are almost constant, where coffee is being extensively raised as a probably very successful experiment, and where many curious sights and people may be seen, and of the royal native luncheon made for us on our return by the hospitable friends at Kapapala Ranch, where young pig and chicken wrapped in leaves and roasted under ground, with *poi* in various forms, were the chief articles on the table. Out again from the jet-black lava sand beach, where pure white surf breaks through the tumbling waves to the steamer anchored beyond, and the return journey was begun. At Kealakeakua Bay, Miss Kate Field came on the steamer, looking very ill, and, as she said, quite worn out with interminable riding over lava-beds, and visits at native houses, searching for material in her exhaustive study into the condition of the islands. She wanted me to sit by her for awhile in her state-room, which I did, and had a very lively conversation with the brilliant but evidently very ill writer. A friend accompanied her as far as the next stopping-place, but otherwise she was quite alone, and the physician of our expedition found her well along in an attack of pneumonia, which must have begun several days before. He worked over her for some time, and was with her all night, but told us in the morning that she would probably not live twenty-four hours. She herself had no idea of her condition, and it devolved upon me to tell her, and to take her last messages and the addresses of friends. By constant stimulants she was kept alive through the day and until we reached Honolulu, but she died within an hour after landing. She had made many friends in Honolulu, who filled the church for her funeral and heaped the luxuriant island flowers about her as she slept. Much of her latest material was left in such form that it cannot be used. She tried to dictate somewhat to me at the last, but her mind continually wandered, and "it will need a lot of editing" seemed to be the burden of her thought.

Honolulu has been more than hospitable to the Expedition, and it is with general regret that the *Coronet* sails off to-morrow toward Japan, even though it is another sunny land, full of friendliness and flowers.

MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

THE PARIS SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1896.

AT this season I am ready to agree with Chassagnol, in the Goncourts' 'Manette Salomon,' that it would be well to discourage some few thousand painters a year. The impression made by the galleries in London is only confirmed by the salons in Paris. Far too many men nowadays play at being artists, or, what is worse, try to wrest an income from art. The exhibition is at the root of the evil; and the evil has grown to such proportions that it threatens to kill the exhibition. Already the French critic is asking, Will there be any more big picture shows in the twentieth century? The need to produce a novelty, startling if possible, as regularly as the horse-chestnuts blossom in the Champs-Élysées and along the Boulevards, has all but exhausted the resources of talent. Genius, fortunately, has seldom stooped to the annual struggle for the *réclame* of a day.

In the old Salon the "interval of fatigue," as I have heard it called, has led to so inevitable a monotony—each new show being but a repetition of the last—that I think I could have described this year's pictures before ever I had looked at them. I could have answered for the supremacy of M. Rochegrosse among the manufacturers of the huge *machine*, even without seeing his 'Angoisse Humaine,' with its fatuous, if well drawn, pyramid of men and women in modern dress, striving, their arms uplifted, to reach an iridescent figure floating in the sky above, and symbolizing—who cares what? I could have known that M.

Gervais's subject would be an excuse for a study of the nude in brilliant light, though I doubt if I should have foreseen that the painter of the "Three Maries" of a few years since would condescend to anything so vulgar as the ceiling whose ultimate destination the Catalogue does not disclose. I could have called attention to the expected horrors and bloodshed. I could have pointed out the correct commonplace in the portraits of M. Bonnat and M. Benjamin Constant, the vapid classicism of M Bouguereau, the wasted seriousness of M. J. P. Laurens and M. Gérôme, the ivory flesh and vague shadows of M. Henner. For are not these things as inevitable in the Champs-Élysées as splendor and color in the Louvre? Indeed, I could have declared with certainty that the exceptions in the vast array of misdirected industry were M. Poitelin's poetic sketches of barren heath and moorland; the romantic landscapes of M. Français and M. Harpignies, still true to the traditions of 1830; the woodland idyls of M. Fantin-Latour; the paintings of foreigners, more especially of Americans and Englishmen. It is not surprising that, in Paris, voices are heard lamenting the disappearance of French art in the cosmopolitan invasion! The pictures to catch my eye were Mr. Bisbing's landscape with cattle, Mr. Loeb's portraits, Mr. Pierce's shepherdess, Mr. Picknell's long straight road through open country, Mr. Inness's old garden, Mr. Dodge's ceiling for the Washington library, which, if not very original, is at least a model of restraint compared to M. Gervais's light and nakedness run mad; while I regretted not finding Mr. MacEwen in his accustomed place. Or else it was Mr. Orchardson's "Young Duke" that arrested me, or Mr. Lorimer's "Mariage de Convenance," a work I have already described when it was shown in London.

So, also, with the sculpture. M. Frémiet's "St. Michel" has something of the elegance, something of the dainty swagger, of his Joan of Arc in the Place des Pyramides. M. Falguière has set all Paris to talking by his "Danseuse" (an entirely nude and very modern figure), not because of its merit, but because, as a portrait of a popular ballet-dancer, it has given every one, from the wit of the *Journal* to the poet of the *Courrier Français*, a chance to exercise his ingenuity in gossip or in verse. But there is nothing that comes more legitimately by success than Mr. MacMonnies's two contributions: the fine, dignified Shakspere after the Droeshout portrait already seen in the statuette of last year, and the "Venus and Adonis," which I wish he had called by another name. For, if it is very charming as a group, very refined and masterly in the modelling, the woman who stands with so much coquetry, so much jauntiness, by the side of the beautiful youth is not Venus, but a *cocotte*, a model of the *quartier*. However, a name that offends merely one's associations matters less when the work has unquestioned charm and distinction.

At the Champ-de-Mars I find the general fatigue, the general exhaustion, still more marked, for the simple reason that it is but a very few years since the new Salons made so promising and brilliant a beginning. But the artist is not an automaton warranted to grind out a masterpiece with unfailing punctuality. Mr. Whistler does not exhibit, though never was his influence more strongly felt; neither does M. Alfred Stevens, nor M. Carrière, too busy probably with his own show in the Salon de l'Art Nouveau, nor M. Lhermitte. Again, a fashionable fad, dependent for success upon its freshness, cannot outlive more than a couple of seasons. There is no new sensation, and mysticism has degenerated into absolute childishness with M. Léon, into a poor copy of Botticelli with M. Point; the religious excitement is so wholly spent that M. Binet is reduced to the expedient—blasphemous surely to the devout—of representing Mary Magdalen quite naked as she weeps over the dead Christ, and M. Jean Béraud gives up the Scriptures altogether to preach, presumably, a social sermon. But though "La Poussée" draws the crowd as he meant it should, I doubt if any one, if he himself, could explain just what is intended by the sudden raid of the rabble upon an elegant dinner party painted with a tedious elaboration and a tightness enchanting to the multitude, disheartening to the artist! M. Dagnan-Bouveret, it is true, has chosen a religious subject, and with very conspicuous results, for his Last Supper is one of the largest canvases in the exhibition. But he has not relied upon eccentricity of treatment for his effect—content rather to be scrupulously conventional in arrangement and costume. The color is unpleasant, and the concentration of glaring yellow light upon the central figure theatrical; the Christ seems far too effeminate, the pose of the Apostles far too self-conscious and photographic. But, at least, it is a sober, dignified piece of work that commands respect to-day even if it be forgotten to-morrow.

Portraits, usually, are painted to fulfil a definite commission rather than to snatch a chance notoriety, and their greater excellence is therefore easily accounted for. It is among the portraits, however, that Englishmen and Americans are here preëminent. Of course, many of the French or Continental painters whose portraits one always seeks are not absent: M. Besnard, with the half-length of a lady in yellow seen in brilliant light; M. Aman-Jean, to whom once more each sitter has proved the motive for a lovely harmony of color; M. Boldini, as always undeniably clever, but yielding to his mannerisms, until now his Princesses and Countesses wear gowns slipping so swiftly from their shoulders and drawn so tightly about their legs that one can but look with apprehension; M. Blanche, with a large, vigorous presentment of M. Thaulow, the Norwegian artist, and his family; M. Zorn, so uncompromisingly realistic that he does not hesitate to show himself on canvas as big and burly as the typical butcher; M. Gandara, who, for sake of variety, has turned his tremendous dexterity to the painting of a pink satin gown instead of the long familiar white. And there is one lesser known man, M. Simon, who, of a portrait group, has made a decorative panel (his name for it) which, could he have lent it the charm of color, would be one of the most distinguished pictures in the show. But quite as striking as these canvases, perhaps more so, is the work that comes from Glasgow: portraits by Mr. Guthrie, Mr. Lavery, Mr. Walton, Mr. Cameron, of which I need say no more, since I did them full justice when they were exhibited in one or another of the London galleries. Miss Cecilia Beaux's delightful arrangements in white are counted among the year's triumphs, even by the French critic who resents the foreign encroachment. No one has made a more distinct advance than Mr. Humphreys-Johnston with his portrait of his mother. It may be that the stately white-haired lady in black, seated gracefully on a green couch, might never have been painted just as she is had there been no Whistler. But Mr. Johnston has had, first of all, the intelligence to accept a good master, and next the artistic sense to adapt and not copy too slavishly that master's methods. The picture has a dignity and repose conspicuous where restlessness and eccentricity are prevailing features. Again, you recognize the Whistlerian influence in Mr. Alexander's lady in rose and black, his one contribution this year, in Mr. Herter's Japanese fantasies, even in Mr. Sargent's "Graham Robertson, Esq.," from last spring's Academy. But Mr. Sargent, in his turn, has been the inspiration of Mr. Dannat's "Otero," the Spanish dancer, who, though arrayed in vivid green, is reminiscent, to her own loss, of the golden "Carmencita" of the Luxembourg. Were there space I should speak also of Mr. Melchers and of two younger men, Mr. Cushing and Mr. Hopkinson, whose portraits are still immature, but give hope for the future.

The landscapes are not wonderful. M. Cazin, M. Billotte, M. Griveau are interesting, but—I say it with hesitation—monotonous. M. Besnard, M. Sisley, M. Eliot are brilliant, but with a brilliancy that has grown too familiar for further criticism. There are amusing impressions of Paris streets, rendered as none but M. Raffaëlli can render them; marines by Mr. Harrison, skilful, but their variety in danger of being staled by custom; and the Norwegian streams and snows that Mr. Thaulow paints with more truth than poetry. The fact is that, in outdoor work, there is nothing very remarkable unless M. Puvis de Chavannes's ideal and decorative landscapes can be so classified. These are the five large panels for the Boston Library—Virgil, Homer, Æschylus, History, and Astronomy. It cannot be repeated too often that one never knows what is in M. de Chavannes's work until it is seen in the place for which it is designed. I shall restrict myself, then, to the statement that the decorations, where they now hang, strike me as more rhythmical in line, more tender and yet splendid in color, than last year's panel. I seem to recognize many of the figures, much as one recognizes again and again the angels of Perugino or Botticelli's maidens, who, no doubt, were too lovely to be confined to a single wall or decoration. But I can remember nothing else by the same artist as rich and glowing as the Æschylus, with its deep blue sea that surrounds the lonely rock where Prometheus hangs; the tragedy not grim but made beautiful by the classic serenity of the scene.

Besides showing these designs, M. Puvis de Chavannes has filled a large room with his sketches and drawings—an important collection, explaining, as it does, the painter's methods of study and work. But it deserves not merely a gallery, but an article to itself. And this brings one face to face with what is at once the great attraction and the great drawback to the Champ-de-Mars Salon. Year by year it is becoming less an exhibition than a collection of exhibitions. M. de Chavannes is not alone in holding a special show of his own. Another room is reserved for Mr. Abbey's Shakspere drawings. Those who have seen only the illustrations as they appeared in *Harper's* can have no idea of the delicacy and strength of the originals. The knowledge they reveal is amazing; architecture and landscape are as carefully studied as figures and costume, while the composition is far more decorative than the stilted primitiveness so assiduously cultivated under that name in Birmingham. Mr. Abbey, in Paris as in London, has scored an enormous success. M. Paul Renouard, an illustrator as clever in his particular field, has a third room; M. Desbois, the sculptor, a fourth; M. Dubufe a fifth. It is simply im-

possible to devote to each the notice he deserves.

Were it not for M. Desbois and for M. Rodin, who sends several marvellous impressions in marble, the sculpture would be sadly insignificant. Black-and-white has lost not a little of the vitality which for the last few years has made it so important a section of this Salon. M. Lepère, however, convinces one of the scope of his powers by showing his wood engravings and woodcuts side by side. There are dry-points by M. Helleu, etchings by M. Blanche, lithographs by M. Lunois, lithographs printed in color by M. Rivière, M. Charpentier, and M. Roche; these last two using a new process of stamping for which they have found the name *Lithographie gaufrée*. Mr. McCarter's drawings for the Green Tree Library edition of Verlaine are here, and also his Easter designs published in *Scribner's*. And of the master whom he has studied with so much sympathy, M. Carlos Schwabe, there are two examples, less satisfactory in some ways than others exhibited in the past. M. Valloton, quite unaccountably, is among the rejected. Pastels and water-colors are not very notable, though in the one medium "Gyp" has an amusing portrait, as full of character as it is indifferently drawn and modelled; and in the other Mr. Albert E. Sterner has some good sketches. Two other American painters who give promise are Mr. Kendall, with a large study of the nude, and Mr. Lambert with several landscapes. N. N.

UNPUBLISHED LETTERS OF THOMAS PAINE.

LONDON, May 13, 1896.

THE following letter (the original of which has just come into my possession) is of both personal and historical interest. It was addressed to "Thomas Walker, Esq'r, Rotherham, Yorkshire." In the corner, beneath the address, he wrote, "Single Sheet" (it is on large foolscap), and on the reverse is the endorsement, "T. Paine, Esq'r, Mch. 12, 1789," this being probably by Walker, and showing the date of his reply. Half of a large seal remains which leaves (apparently) part of a P, and there is a post-office mark. Mr. Foljambe, whose letter is quoted, was a nephew of Sir George Saville, and lived three miles from Messrs. Walker's iron works, where the large arch of Paine's iron bridge (110 feet) was constructed for exhibition at Paddington Green, London.

The political part of the letter relates, as will be seen, to the exciting constitutional question which arose in the autumn of 1788, as to the condition of the three estates of the realm under the incompetency of George III., who had become insane. Pitt maintained that the King's authority had not lapsed, but that the two Houses had a right to devise means for the representation of that power by a Commissioner. The Whigs maintained that the royal authority passed to the Prince of Wales by hereditary right, and that the two Houses had no right to legislate at all without the King, whose seal would be "forged" if attached to any act by any non-royal hand. Pitt carried his point, but it was a *reductio ad absurdum* to select the Prince (the man most odious to the people) to be the "Commissioner," with restricted powers, if, as the Tories contended, he had no more claim to be Regent than any private individual. It is sufficiently curious to find Paine arguing the superior right of the Prince, but it will be seen that his constitutional position was consistent: the two Houses, unable to act without the throne, could deal with the matter (as in 1688) only as the nation itself in action. But the nation had not elected either House, and they were, Paine thought, usurping an authority belonging only to a national convention.

LONDON, February 26, 1789.

DEAR SIR,

Your favour of the 23d is just come to hand, for which I thank you. I wrote to the President of the Board of Works last Monday, wishing him to begin making preparations for erecting the arch. I am so confident of his judgment that I can safely rely on his going on as far as [he] pleases without me, and at any rate I shall not be long before I revisit Rotherham.

I had a letter yesterday from Mr. Foljambe, apologizing for his being obliged unexpectedly to leave town without calling on me, but that he should be in London again in a few days. He concludes his letter by saying—"I saw the Rib of your Bridge. In point of elegance and beauty it far exceeds my expectations, and is certainly beyond anything I ever saw." You will please to inform the President what Mr. Foljambe says, as I think him entitled to participate in the applause. Mr. Fox of Derby called again on me last evening respecting the Bridge, but I was not at home. There is a project of erecting a Bridge at Dublin, which will be a large undertaking, and as the Duke of Leinster and the other Deputies from Ireland are arrived, I intend making an opportunity of speaking to them on that business.

With respect to News and Politics, the King is certainly greatly amended, but what is to follow from it is a matter of much uncertainty. How far the nation may be safe with a man of a deranged mind at the head of it, and who, ever since he took up the notion of quitting England and going to live in Hanover, has been continually planning to entangle England with German connections, which, if followed, must end in war, is a matter that will occasion various opinions. However unfortunate it may have been for the sufferer, the King's malady has been no disservice to the nation: he was burning his fingers very fast in the German war, and whether he is enough in his senses to keep out of the fire is a matter of doubt.

You mention the Rotherham Address as complimenting Mr. Pitt on the success of his administration, *and for asserting and supporting the Rights of the People*.

I differ exceedingly from you in this opinion, and I think the conduct of the Opposition much nearer the principles of the constitution than what the conduct of the Ministry was. So far from Mr. Pitt asserting and supporting the Rights of the people, it appears to me taking them away. But as a man ought not to make an assertion without giving his reasons, I will give you mine.

The English nation is composed of two orders of men, Peers and Commoners—by Commoners is properly meant every man in the nation not having the title of Peer—and it is the existence of those two orders, setting up distinct and opposite Claims, the one hereditary and the other elective, that makes it necessary to establish a third order, or that known by the name of the Regal Power, or the Power of the Crown.

The Regal Power is the Majesty of the Nation collected to a center, and residing in the Person exercising the Regal Power. The Right, therefore, of the Prince is a Right standing on the Right of the whole Nation. But Mr. Pitt says it stands on the Right of Parliament. Is not Parliament composed of two houses, one of which is itself hereditary, and over which the people have no controul, and in the establishment of which they have no election, and the other house, the representatives of only a small part of the Nation? How then can the Rights of the People be asserted and supported by absorbing them into an hereditary house of Peers? Is not one hereditary power or Right as dangerous as the other? And yet the Addressers have all gone on the Error of establishing Power in the house of Peers,—over whom, as I have already said, they have no controul,—for the inconsistent purpose of opposing it in the prince, over whom they have some controul.

It was one of those cases in which there ought to have been a National Convention elected for the express purpose; for if government be permitted to alter itself, or any of its parts be permitted to alter the other, there is no fixed constitution in the country. And if the Regal Power, or the person exercising the Regal Power, either as King or regent, instead of standing on the universal ground of the Nation, be made the meer [*sic*] creature of Parliament, it is, in my humble opinion, equally as inconsistent and unconstitutional as if Parliament was the meer creature of the Crown.

It is a common Idea in all countries that to take power from the Prince is to give liberty to the people, but Mr. Pitt's conduct is almost the reverse of this—his is to take power from one part of the government to add it to another, for he has encreased the power of the Peers, not the Rights of the People.—I must give him credit for his ingenuity, if I do not for his principles; and the less so because the object of his conduct is now visible, which was to [keep] themselves in pay after they should be out of [favor] by retaining, thro' an Act of Parliament of their own making, between four and five hundred thousand pounds of the Civil List in their own hands. This is the key of the whole business, and it was for this, and not for the Rights of the People, that he set up the Right of Parliament; because it was only by that means that the spoil could be divided. If the restriction [on the Prince Regent] had been that he should not declare war, or enter into foreign alliances without the consent of Parliament, the objects would have been National, and have had some sense in them, but it is that he should not have *all the money*.—If Swift was alive he would say, "S—— on such Patriotism."

How they will manage with Ireland I have had no opportunity of learning, as I have not been at the other end of town since the Commissioners arrived. Ireland will certainly judge for itself, and not permit the English Parliament or Doctors to judge for her.—Thus much for Politics.

I very sincerely congratulate you and the families on the probable recovery of Mrs. Jon^{a}. Walker, and hope soon to have the pleasure of seeing you all hearty, happy, and well. I write by the return of the Post that it may come to hand before you receive the final orders of your Commanding Officer; and as I have written it all off at a dash, and have to go out to dinner at the other end of the town, I do not hold myself responsible for Errors.

With sincere respect to all the families, and in hopes of seeing you in London before I set off for Rotherham, I am, D^{r} Sir, your sincere friend and humble servant, THOMAS PAINE.

Mr. Whiteside's Compt^{a}.

Paine's office in London was in No. 13 Broad Street Buildings (City), the establishment of Peter Whiteside (of Philadelphia), merchant, whose failure fell so heavily upon the author and his bridge enterprise.

Paine's reference to Ireland will be remarked. He afterwards visited that island, and I have a draft, in his writing, of the beginning of a note (1752) as follows: "I have the honour of presenting to the gentlemen present a letter I have received from the United Irishmen of Dublin informing me of my having been elected an honorary member of their Society. By this adoption of me as one of their body I have the pleasure of considering myself on their" (the rest is wanting).

One more letter I will add, as it has never appeared except in Lanthenas's translation of Paine's 'Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance.' I recently found in the National Archives at Paris a copy of it in French printed by order of the Council of Ancients, April 27, 1796:

CITIZENS: I present you with a small work entitled *The Decline and Fall of the English System of Finance*, in which I have explained and exposed the finances of your principal enemy, the government of England. If I have any capacity in judging of circumstances, and from thence of probable events, the fall of that government is very nearly at hand.

The condition in which that government finds it-

self at this moment is curious and critical, and different to anything it ever experienced before. It is now pressed by two internal and formidable opponents that never appeared during any former war. The one is, the great and progressive change of opinion that is spreading itself throughout England with respect to the hereditary system of government. That system has fallen more in the opinion of the people of that country within the last four years than it fell in France during the last four years preceding the French revolution. The other is, that the funding system of finance, on which the government of England depends for pecuniary aid, is now explaining itself to be no other than a governmental fraud.

In former wars the government of England were supported by the superstition of the country with respect to a nominal non-existing thing which is called a *constitution*; and by the credulity of the country as to the funding system of finance. It was from these two popular delusions that the government of England derived all its strength, and they are now deserting her standard. When this monster of national fraud and maritime oppression, the government of England, shall be overthrown, the world will be freed from a common enemy, and the two nations may count upon fraternity and a lasting peace. THOMAS PAINE.

It was the opinion of William Cobbett that official maltreatment of an humble exciseman, Thomas Paine, cost England her American colonies. However extravagant that may seem, there is little doubt that the outlawry of the author of the 'Rights of Man,' in 1792, not only broke the Bank of England in 1797, but founded that traditional hatred of French progressives for England which, as radicalism acquires power in France, amounts almost to a one-sided *vendetta*. Yet were Paine alive today, the general constitution of his native country would probably come nearest his ideas of republican government.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following words appear in the *Nation* of March 26, reviewing the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan: "But his [Clay MacCauley's] discourse on 'Silver in Japan' is not considered orthodox enough to go in as a body article, and hence is printed in small type in the appendix."

The reviewer must have been more than usually careless in glancing through the "Transactions" even for the purpose of review. The author of the discourse on "Silver in Japan" is not Clay MacCauley, and it was not printed in the appendix because it lacked orthodoxy, but because it was only an address or lecture, and not a regularly prepared paper submitted before reading to the council. A lecture or address is always supposed to be printed in the appendix. The same number of the "Transactions" contains a lecture (also in small type) in the appendix by Prof. Chamberlain, whose orthodoxy on the subject of the Japanese language has not, I believe, been questioned.

GARRETT DROPPERS,
Corr. Sec'y of Asiatic Soc. of Japan.

TOKYO, May 11, 1896.

[We cannot explain away our inadvertence.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

T. FISHER UNWIN, London, announces a work on 'The London Burial-Grounds,' by Mrs. Basil Holmes, "written in a chatty style."

Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., are about to bring out a new edition of Mr. W. C. Brownell's 'French Traits'; 'The Growth of the French Nation,' by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale; 'A Survey of Greek Civilization,' by Prof. Mahaffy; 'A History of Greek Art,' by Prof. Frank B. Tarbell of the University of Chicago, and 'A Study of the Sky,' by H. A. Howe of the University of Denver.

The Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo, will soon publish 'The Diary of a Peculiar Girl,' by George Austin Woodward.

From the Bollettino (May 15) of the National Central Library in Florence, it appears that the Du Rieu-Sijthoff project of reproducing MSS. cannot be carried out as respects the Æschylus, Virgil, and two Tacitus MSS. in the Laurentian Library at Florence. The Æschylus, indeed, has already been published by this library, and the rest it will now take in hand, preferring not to concede the privilege to others. The same number of the Bollettino registers the gift to the National Central Library of a great collection of more than 20,000 engraved portraits gathered by Prof. Antonio Buonamici of Pistoia. They are arranged partly by nationalities, partly by categories.

In the revival of present-century classics, a reprint of Carleton's 'Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry' was deservedly undertaken and has been carried out with the taste and simple elegance common to the publications of J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan). The fourth volume, just issued, crowns the series, and one may now enjoy at his leisure "Phelim O'Toole's Courtship," "Shane Fadh's Wedding," "Larry McFarland's Wake," "The Party Fight and Funeral," and all the other inimitably humorous and historically truthful pictures of Irish peasant life and character. From the same source we have two more volumes of the Balzac translations, 'The Unknown Masterpiece, and Other Stories,' and 'A Bachelor's Establishment,' each with an introduction by Prof. Saintsbury; and three volumes of a translation of Daudet's works, his 'Kings in Exile,' 'Tartarin of Tarascon,' and 'Tartarin on the Alps'—charming volumes in gray linen with a pale-blue flowered stamp, the illustrations not quite up to the rendering of the originals, the versions by different hands, and none masterly.

Macmillan Co. publish for the American Economic Association a valuable reprint of the letters of Ricardo to J. R. McCulloch from 1816 to 1823, edited with excellent notes by Dr. J. H. Hollander of Johns Hopkins University. It is interesting to remark that McCulloch was affected by the idea, now prevalent in some parts of our country, that national debts ought to be scaled down when the price of grain falls. The discussions are abstruse, but by no means without present application.

A valuable contribution to the history of taxation is made by Mr. Edwin Cannan in his 'History of Local Rates in England' (Longmans). The matter is, of course, excessively technical, and possesses principally antiquarian interest, but Mr. Cannan endeavors to connect it with modern conditions by confining his exposition to such facts as throw light upon the two great characteristics of the English rating system which give rise to most complaint. These are the facts that rates are paid only in respect of certain kinds of property, and are levied from the occupiers and not the owners of that property. The explanation is to be found in the circumstance that the levying of rates was not originated by any central authority, but was the outgrowth of innumerable local customs, which were based on no uniform theory—hardly on any theory. Statutory enactments have, of course, much complicated the matter, which is in so chaotic a state as greatly to tempt the zeal of reformers.

In the same direction is Mr. Frederic C. Howe's 'Taxation and Taxes in the United States under the Internal Revenue System, 1791–1895' (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.). Mr. Howe very properly acknowledges his own debt, and that of every laborer in this field, to Mr. David A. Wells, "whose careful and scholarly investigations of almost every phase of the revenue experiences of the time, as well as the industrial aspects and influences of the same, are an inexhaustible fund from which to draw, and greatly alleviate the labors of those who may follow after him in a field which he has made completely his own." It is convenient to have the history of our internal-revenue system summarized, and Mr. Howe has done the work with evident care; but many of his inferences are of doubtful validity, and some of his theories are more than doubtful. His lamentations over the decision of the Supreme Court against the income-tax do not excite our sympathy. The idea that we may be hampered in some future emergency because we cannot tax incomes is preposterous. Provided the country has the necessary wealth, the Government will secure the necessary revenue if the people support it, without recourse to a tax on incomes.

The literature, if such it may be called, of the "Labor Problem" in Great Britain is assuming vast proportions. The recent report of the Royal Commission was as long as the moral law, and might well have sufficed for a generation. M. Paul de Rousiers, however, has thought it worth while to furnish his impressions on the subject to his countrymen, and Mrs. F. L. D. Herbertson has thought it worth while to translate them for the benefit of Englishmen, under the title 'The Labor Question in Britain' (Macmillan). It must be admitted that M. de Rousiers has produced a very readable volume, filled with entertaining incidents, and giving a comprehensive view of English industry. We may safely follow him in the conclusions that English workmen are better off than French, and that the general elevation of laborers constitutes the only true solution of the labor question. Socialistic measures, in the author's opinion, are not adapted to bring about this elevation, which has been proceeding rapidly in England under the influences of freedom.

A remarkable consolidation of our knowledge of magnetism has taken place during the past ten years. This has been due to a realizing sense of the value of Faraday's conception of lines of magnetic force, and to the application of quantitative measurements to them. When the trolley car was first used, it was feared that the watches of the passengers would be magnetized by the motors of the car. If this had happened, the electric railroads would speedily have become bankrupt, for the stray lines of magnetic force which could magnetize the passengers' watches would indicate a very uneconomical design of electric motor. Their magnetic circuits would have had a great air resistance, and the magnetic field which must be generated in order to propel the car would have been proportionately weak. We have come to speak of the magnetic circuit just as we had hitherto spoken of the electric circuit. The resistance of iron in a

magnetic circuit is very small because a large number of lines of force can be urged through it. The resistance of air, however, is large. In designing dynamos and electric motors, care is taken to have a magnetic circuit of small resistance, in order to avoid the straying of lines of magnetic force out of the field where they are needed to effect the proper transformation of energy. Dr. H. Du Bois's treatise, 'The Magnetic Circuit in Theory and in Practice,' translated by Dr. Atchison (Longmans), is a lucid account of the growth of our systematic knowledge of the magnetic field; and it may be called at present the classic on this important subject.

Prof. Francis B. Crocker, author of 'Electric Lighting' (D. Van Nostrand Co.), believes that this mode of lighting has now reached a sufficient degree of perfection to warrant the preparation of a treatise which will not be out of date even before it is published. The dynamo admits of very little further improvement, and is now one of the most efficient of modern machines. Then, too, the present systems of distribution of lights, the methods of wiring, and the safeguards will probably remain unchanged in their main characteristics. Prof. Crocker, indeed, calls attention to the striking fact that, among all the important features of an electric-lighting system, the steam engine is the one which is being modified the most. He discusses the various sources of electricity, and shows that steam is still the chief. He has little faith in recent endeavors to obtain electricity directly from coal, and in this connection he touches upon the use of carbon in a fused alkali—a process which is now attracting attention in certain quarters. He describes only those machines which experience has proved to be useful, and his suggestions and criticisms possess a peculiar value, for he not only has taught the theory of the dynamo, but has also, in collaboration with Mr. Wheeler, produced one of the most efficient dynamos now used in the arts. The present volume is principally devoted to the generating plant, and will probably be followed by another on the various systems of electric lighting.

Why was Paderewski able to earn $247,000 in five months while most other pianists barely make enough to pay expenses? His technique is no better than that of several other pianists now in the field; his superiority lies entirely in the fact that he plays with expression, and therefore touches hearts which others leave cold. The same lesson was taught by Liszt and Rubinstein; yet music-teachers continue to devote 99 per cent. of their pupils' time to mere technical exercises which are as insufficient to make a real pianist as mere erudition is to make an author. Whoever shall write a perfect treatise on the art of musical expression will erect for himself a lasting monument. Pending the appearance of such a book, students may derive considerable advantage from C. A. Ehrenfecter's 'Delivery in the Art of Pianoforte Playing' (Scribners). It treats lucidly, in sixty pages, of the questions of accentuation, phrasing, and tempo. While fault may be found with the fact that all the examples are taken from Beethoven's sonatas (in which there is less opportunity for expression than in the works of Chopin and Schumann), the writer's remarks are usually sound, and will be useful to all who are not born musicians. The following will serve as an example: "The most common fault with regard to tempo is to play slow movements not slow enough and quick movements not quick enough. The first is mostly due to a want of power of correct perception and true musical feeling. The second most generally is due to insufficient technical qualification." The author's substitution of "non-legato" for "semi-staccato" (p. 44) is a palpable absurdity.

Prof. Albert Barrère's 'Dictionary of French and English Military Terms,' Part ii., French-English (London: Hachette; Boston: T. H. Castor & Co.) is a thin little volume of which the execution merits much praise. It is, over and above the definitions, a mine of practical information respecting the French military service. Under *école* we meet with an enumeration of the several institutions scattered over France, with their special training; under *maréchal* is given the legal limit on the number of marshals; under *mariage* (of officers) the consent of the secretary of war and a marriage portion are reported necessary, etc. The appendix supplies much statistical matter respecting the headquarters of army corps, ordnance, small arms, pay, pensions, court-martials, etc.

Those who wish to comprehend the political situation in France will derive assistance from a little book by M. Léon de Seilhac entitled 'Le Monde Socialiste; Groupes et Programmes' (Paris: Armand Colin et Cie.). Besides some minor factions the Revolutionary Socialists are divided into three sections—the Allemanists, the Broussists, and the Guesdists. There are other Socialistic parties or groups, concerning all which and their plans M. de Seilhac gives a discriminating account.

A monthly journal, *What to Eat*, will be started in July by Pierce & Pierce at Minneapolis (New York: *Tribune* Building). A novelty will be the restriction of advertising to what pertains to "food, drink, table furnishings, or table decorations."

The fore-matter of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June possesses an unusual degree as well as evenness of interest. Mr. Robert S. Peabody discusses the university grounds and buildings with reference to their haphazard disposition, in the absence of any controlling scheme of landscape gardening and architecture. He lays a proper stress on the one great opportunity yet left in this direction by connecting the college territory immediately with the Charles River, towards which the gift of Soldiers' Field is more and more forcing the pent-up athletes. Historically he might have added that this proposition is nearly ten years old, but still awaits the "some benefactor" invoked by Mr. Peabody. Mr. Edwin H. Abbot's sketch of the late Gen. Francis C. Barlow, reinforced by Gen. Miles's competent testimony, will do much to prolong the memory of that remarkable soldier, whose incredibly boyish face is pictured with the article. A fine portrait of the late Dr. Furness, by Gutekunst, accompanies a brief notice by the Rev. Charles G. Ames. Mr. Arthur Gilman shows what a wealth of historic association clusters about Fay House, the seat of Radcliffe College; and the Rev. E. E. Hale discourses pleasantly on the well-known portrait group of five living presidents and ex-presidents of Harvard, from Josiah Quincy to Dr. Felton. The anonymous writer of the observations "From a Graduate's Window" makes a proper criticism of the sad festival known as the Commencement Dinner; but it would be a pity to change the scene of it from Memorial Hall. The remedy is to reduce the attendance.

Prof. Skeat, in the *Academy* for May 30, attacks the current etymologies of the word *loop*, and leans to a Norse origin. He thinks "loop-hole" may be found to refer "to the course of light, as being a place where the light may leap in." "The sense of noose in a string is later; it easily follows from that of a bore or hole in a wall. But there is a possibility that it meant 'running-knot.'" He might well have been reminded of a combination of these significations in Fitz Gerald's version of Omar:

> "And Lo! the Hunter of the East has caught
> The Sultan's Turret in a Noose of Light."

While the perennial interest in the history of the ill-fated daughter of Maria Theresa centres naturally in her tragic end, every new detail of her earlier life at the French court that comes to light reveals more fully the pathos of that period as well. M. Pierre de Nolhac's account of it, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May 15, is in part derived from unpublished sources, and shows the fifteen-year-old Dauphine in a charming light. The idea that there should be any relation between the conduct of this child toward Mme. du Barry and Louis XV.'s attitude on the Polish question might have been a fruitful one for Scribe. Mme. de Campan, in her Memoirs (vol. i., chap. iii.), mentions among the ladies who met Marie Antoinette at Kehl, on the frontier, the Duchess de Cossé, "sa dame d'atours." This is evidently an error, since M. de Nolhac relates the circumstances under which Mme. de Cossé's appointment took place nearly a year after the arrival of the young Archduchess in France. "Papa," she said to the King, "j'espère que vous me donnerez une de mes dames." "Non, sûrement," replied Louis, "et je compte que vous recevrez mon choix avec respect." It was after this conversation that Mme. de Cossé was appointed.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for April contains the conclusion of Baron von Oppenheim's account of his journey from Damascus to Bagdad. A description of the political divisions of South Africa is accompanied by a large map, in which we notice with some surprise the omission of Beira, the terminus of the Mashonaland Railway. Five years ago an unknown sand-pit, it is now a thriving port with large business houses and a weekly European mail, and is a place of call for half-a-dozen steamship lines. There is also a curious map so ruled as to show the time of the latest rising and earliest setting of the winter sun in nearly every part of Germany.

From an address recently delivered at Havre by M. Jules Gautier, representing the Minister of Public Instruction, it appears that a genuine revival has of late been witnessed all over France in the establishment and support of courses of instruction for adults and children above school age. Thousands of these courses are conducted in city and country districts, mainly by private initiative, encouraged and aided by the Government. More than this, the circumstances attending the movement in its present form (its beginnings date back more than thirty years, to the Ministry of Victor Duruy) seem to warrant the belief in its permanence and further growth. The speaker referred to the earlier history of similar enterprises in order to point out the injurious influence of Governmental interference with affairs in which liberty of action and unhindered adaptation to local wants are essential.

The Amherst Eclipse Expedition to Japan, under the direction of Prof. Todd, which left New York April 6, arrived at San Francisco ten days later, and sailed for Honolulu on April 25, in Mr. Arthur Curtiss James's yacht *Coronet*, reaching that port on May 10. The time at sea was utilized by different members of the expedition in adjusting and testing the operation of many of the newer instruments devised especially for the coming eclipse, which this expedition will observe on August

9 in the Hokkaido, or northern Japan. The Expedition sailed on May 25 for Yokohama, expecting to reach that port about June 20. Eight years ago the *Coronet* made the same trip in twenty-two days.

The excavations at Corinth of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens have been attended with as marked success as could be expected for the first year's campaign. The theatre has been discovered, lying ten or fifteen feet beneath the surface of the ground. Near the upper part of the *cavea* many archaic terracotta figurines have been found, indicating the neighborhood of a temple, probably of Aphrodite. A magnificent Greek stoa or passageway, east of the temple, is important in itself, and is another indication of the nearness of the agora. Since the discoveries afford the first fixed point for the study of Corinthian topography, they are manifestly of the greatest importance.

—The Century Co. have put forth a new edition of their *magnum opus* under the title of 'The Century Dictionary and Cyclopædia.' It is in ten consecutively numbered volumes, of which the last two comprise the former single-volume 'Cyclopædia of Names,' and are distinguished by the sub-title "Names" stamped on the back. Heeding a suggestion made by others, perhaps, as well as by ourselves, the publishers have filled out the half of vol. x. with a full array of maps, but have not, in these, sought after novelty or high excellence of execution. The several States of the Union are shown in detail, and will serve ordinary purposes of consultation while there is as yet a great deficiency in our atlases of the United States. But the maps have no index of names, and are themselves not numbered, dependence being placed on their alphabetical arrangement. The new volumes stand about one inch lower than the sumptuous original issue, and are as much less wide. They have, consequently, parted with some of their generous margins, and in quality of paper as in binding (which is very tasteful and serviceable) correspond to the endeavor to reduce the price of the work while sacrificing none of the essentials. Intrinsically, the Dictionary is more accurate, and hence more valuable, than when first published. The corrections are too numerous and minute to trace without enormous labor. They and a few insertions in the vocabulary have obviously been made without renewing the plates. The Names section in particular has been very extensively overhauled on the same condition. To sum up, for less money the public can now procure the Dictionary at its best, and that best is, among all completed dictionaries of the language, easily at the front. It does not supplant all the rest, but in daily practice we turn to it first and seldom without satisfaction. Until the completion of the Oxford and the Dialect Dictionaries, it is little likely that any rival will appear. For that reason, we hope that revision will still be the order of the day, and that another five years may witness a fresh edition, perhaps even cheaper than the present.

—In 'Money and its Relations to Prices,' (Scribners), Mr. L. L. Price undertakes an inquiry, by scientific methods, which the American people are obliged to answer by the method of universal suffrage. The book consists of lectures delivered by the author at University College, London, and bears the mark of careful preparation. After a review of the various "index numbers," and methods observed in preparing them, Mr. Price concludes that, "within its limits, the index number, as generally constructed, is a useful, if not indispensable, instrument of economic and statistical inquiry, and that, within its limits also, it is an instrument sufficient for its purpose." He appears to favor the idea that rising prices "kindle the imagination and encourage enterprise," and that this tendency is greatly increased and intensified where the credit system prevails. From this he reasons that as employers are of the "debtor class," which represents the active, enterprising people "engaged in the production of fresh wealth," while the creditor class consists of the inactive and unindustrious who live on the wealth created in the past, it is beneficial to the community to have a rise of prices. The reasoning, of course, proves that prices must always be kept moving upward in order to maintain the benefit. So convinced is Mr. Price of the advantages of inflation that he maintains that it is on the whole for the interest of laborers that prices should rise. He is quite ready to adopt the view of Jevons—by whom he has been greatly influenced—that rising prices have the effect of "a discharge from his debts to the bankrupt long struggling against his burdens." This sentiment will be loudly applauded by many people in some parts of our country, and by some people in every part; but thoughtful people will insist on a satisfactory explanation of the method by which prices are to be kept always rising. They think not only of the prosperity, or fancied prosperity, accompanying a rise in prices, but also of the disaster and ruin, not fancied but real, that must inevitably succeed. Mr. Price's essay is very ingenious, but he does not consider this difficulty; and, so far as we have observed, he ignores the fall in the rate of interest—a fact of which the creditor class is painfully aware. It will be easy to controvert many of his statements; but his book is, with all its fallacies, worthy of examination.

—Mr. F. W. Bussell's 'The School of Plato' (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan) is an extremely abstract survey of the course of Greek speculation from Thales to Plotinus, accompanied by copious reflections on the necessity that an acceptable philosophy should meet the yearnings of the individual soul for happiness or peace, and on the failure of many ambitious modern systems in this regard. The writer has evidently studied his Pater, his Burnet, and his Zeller, and is not unacquainted with the sources. His reflections on the systems that glimmer by us in ghostly outlines on his pages are frequently just and occasionally acute. But he has reserved all footnotes, exact references and illustrations for a later volume, and the consequent vagueness and apparently capricious unevenness of his treatment throw an air of unreality over the entire work and make it very hard reading. His main theses seem to be (1) that philosophy is, in its inception, the revolt of the individual against the shackles imposed and the sacrifices demanded by absorption in the communal life of the primitive city state, and is pursued as a selfish quest for some principle of reconciliation between the finite soul and the infinite power or powers that hem her in; (2) that the spiritual life of the Roman empire is of special significance for us, because, owing to the assumption of all civic responsibilities by the state, the spirit of individualism, by which, after the dissipation of illusions, our own religious and philosophical systems must in the end be tested, had free scope to develop itself; (3) the dominating influence throughout this development was Platonism on its mystic or religious side. Platonism first transformed and then broke up the chief philosophic religion of the Empire, Stoicism, and then endeavored vainly in the neo-Platonic doctrines of emanation and negative theology to meet those needs of the individual soul which only the Christian religion could satisfy.

—M. Aulard, whose knowledge of the history of the French Revolution may be called exhaustive, and who has already destroyed more than one legend of that epoch, has, in a recent number of the *Revue de Paris*, run his pen through another popular belief dear to the makers of historical hand-books. "It has been generally believed," he says, "that the *coup d'état* of the eighteenth and nineteenth Brumaire in the year VIII. brought brusquely to an end all free manifestation of public opinion in our country, and that on the twentieth Brumaire France awoke to find itself enslaved and gagged." But that was not the real course of events. Things never happen in any such symmetrical and rounded fashion. In reality, on the morrow of the eighteenth Brumaire, Bonaparte was very far from being willing that the consequences of the *coup d'état* should be seen. Everything was made to run as smoothly as possible. The plot itself was *bien machiné;* there was a minimum of violence. The stroke of genius in the thing was the spreading of the report of a pretended conspiracy of the Jacobins against the two consuls. To this was added the clever fable of the daggers, with which it was said that the Five Hundred had attempted to strike at Bonaparte on the nineteenth Brumaire. This assured the intervention of the troops. Thenceforward all went smoothly. A part of the Ancients and of the Five Hundred came together again to name the three consuls. A list of proscribed persons was also drawn up by them, but this was merely a matter of form, not meant to be serious, and was revoked a fortnight later. The language of the new saviours of society was most modest, especially if it be compared with the language of the conquerors of the 31st of May, of the ninth Thermidor and of the eighteenth Fructidor. "No one spoke of military dictatorship; Bonaparte exchanged his general's uniform for civil dress (the newspapers announced it), and it was a civil government which was to be established. There were no boasts of doing anything great or anything new, but only professions of a desire to do what was best without disturbing people more than was necessary." Paris remained perfectly quiet, although the nineteenth and twentieth Brumaire were days propitious for a "descent into the street." The nineteenth was a Sunday, and the twentieth a *décadi*, and the weather was fine; but no one budged. Fouché spread his falsehoods abroad through the cafés and theatres, and stirred up a good deal of indignation at the attempt to poniard the hero of Egypt. Business men looked with favor upon the new government. The Bourse rose, Government stocks almost doubling their value within a week; which gave Talleyrand, at a later period, ground for his well-known answer as to the sources of his fortune.

—At Paris, after Brumaire, the Royalists were in exultation. They jumped at once to the conclusion that Bonaparte would act as a second Monk, and restore the monarchy, and propositions to this end were made to him; Republicans, and especially the Five Hundred,

were turned into ridicule on the stage. But the propositions were declined and the theatre warned, and Bonaparte set himself to reassure the Republicans. Then the clergy spread a report that the Republican calendar was about to be suppressed and the Catholic religion restored. A bishop, Royer, preached a sermon at Notre Dame in honor of the *coup d'état*. He was promptly silenced. Bonaparte himself wrote with his own hand answers to the few protests which he received from former associates and others. He made to all the same protestations, that he had entered upon "the way which leads to organization, to true liberty, and to happiness." One by one his opponents came in, Barère naturally among the first. In brief, the government of Bonaparte, during the provisory consulate, was as far as possible removed from despotism. According to M. Aulard, the policy of that time was "presque aussi *temporisatrice* que celle de Barras, mais plus douce, plus cordiale et plus française."

EGYPTIAN ARABIC.

An Arabic-English Vocabulary of the Colloquial Arabic of Egypt. Compiled by S. Spiro of the Ministry of Finance. Pp. xii, 661. Cairo: Al-Mokattam Printing Office; London: Bernard Quaritch. 1895.

Our Arabic lexicons are remarkable for being voluminous and incomplete; indeed, it would almost seem as though their incompleteness were in direct ratio to the size and number of the volumes. Witness the cyclopean labors of E. W. Lane, whose death prevented the finishing of his great lexicon (whereby the latter part has had to be published almost in skeleton)—the work, however, still covering over three thousand triple-columned quarto pages. Yet Lane limited himself to purely classical Arabic, and the significations to be found in his work are such as were in use only during the first two centuries after the Prophet's death. In other words, mediæval Arabic—all the great historical, geographical, philosophical, and other literature subsequent to the eighth century A. D.—is left entirely unnoticed. Now it will easily be understood that the original language of the Desert, however rich, had to be considerably modified and extended to suit the use of those who governed the various lands stretching from Spain to the Wall of China, who had evolved a theology more intricate than that of the Schoolmen, and whose philosophers were credited with a thorough knowledge of Aristotle. Hence it follows that though Lane is indispensable to the scholar, his great quartos will not suffice the learner who wishes to understand, say, the Chronicle of Tabari, or even to read ten successive pages of the 'Arabian Nights.' Furthermore, Lane, like all previous lexicographers, has for the most part merely translated into his work the information supplied by the native Arabic dictionaries. These latter, of course, are little more than lists of synonyms; for an Arabic dictionary, in Arabic, must, in the nature of the case, explain what a thing is by saying that it is something else.

The Dutch scholar Dozy sought to supply the lack in Lane and others by his two great quarto volumes of 'Supplément aux Dictionnaires Arabes.' This was a stride in the right direction; all the meanings there registered were from cited passages, and the work was the fruit of extensive reading, not merely the result of compilation made from the explanations given by the native authorities. But even with all that has been accomplished (and, needless to say, others have followed in the lines traced out by Lane and Dozy), how incomplete our Arabic lexicons still are is proved by the fact that never does a properly edited text appear—even of the simplest—without a shorter or a longer glossary of words with meanings not to be found in either the 3,000 quarto pages of Lane or the 1,700 of Dozy. The fact of the matter is that this rich literature, covering in unbroken line more than a thousand years, and produced in countries situated as far apart as Morocco and Mesopotamia, can with difficulty be squeezed between the covers of a single set of volumes. It is as though one should try to gather into one list all the words used in classical and mediæval Latin, together with those common to all the modern Romance languages.

At the present day the focus of any literary activity that yet remains to the Arabic-speaking people is undoubtedly in Egypt. The dialect there may not be classical, but it is copious. Furthermore, it shows an adaptability to modern ideas and usage which stamps it as one of the conquering languages of the world—at any rate for Africa. Mr. Spiro is happily endowed for the work that he has undertaken; Arabic is his native language, but his education has been English. He has produced in a convenient form a vocabulary which may justly claim to "represent almost all that a foreigner would meet with in conversation with the natives of Egypt." The immense value of the present compilation lies in the fact that it registers the colloquial words, now adopted into official and administrative use, which, though not to be found in Arabic dictionaries, have yet become part of the written language of modern Egypt. Mr. Spiro is well aware that "no single compiler can hope to make an exhaustive collection," but we trust that his deserved success in this instance will induce him to extend his labors, and in due time bring out a second and improved edition of his book; in view of which eventuality we shall make some few criticisms on points worthy of his attention, and indicate what might possibly be changed to advantage in a future issue.

To transliterate Arabic perfectly into Latin characters is an almost insoluble problem, and, as Mr. Spiro remarks, "the adoption of a system is a matter of taste." The system here adopted is that of the late Spitta Bey, which, from a philological point of view, has many advantages. It must, however, be carefully studied, and Mr. Spiro would have done well to print an explanatory note indicating especially that in his transliteration the English *sh* sound is represented by the *s* dotted above, and that his *j* is to be pronounced, as with the Italians and Germans, like the English *y* (this last letter is used to represent the long *î* or *ee* sound). Mr. Spiro prefaces his work with some useful lists of common words, the Numbers, the Names of the Months, Weights and Measures, the Administrative Divisions of Egypt, and other like matters. The list of numerals prompts the remark that the due use of the hyphen in transliteration would vastly aid the learner in keeping the syllables properly distinguished. It is curious, in passing, to notice how the classical case-ending of the noun is still at times preserved in the modern dialect; thus, the Arabic for "three hundred" is pronounced *tultumyja* (for the classic *thalathu myja*), but Mr. Spiro transliterates this (likewise the succeeding hundreds) in one word *tultumyja*, which is, we hold, a mistake, for the foreigner will infallibly take the first two syllables to be *tultum*, and then, adding *yja* (or *eeya*), will be perfectly uncomprehended of the people. All these and like words should be carefully separated by the hyphen, *e. g.*, *tultu-myja*, *urbu'-myja*, etc.; for in Arabic especially the difference is to be strongly marked between (we may give an example in English) *an ice house* and *a nice house*, and running words together nullifies this distinction.

Coming to the vocabulary, it will be noticed that derived words are given partly under the root-form (as is the rule in dictionaries of the classical language), partly in alphabetical order. Mr. Spiro on this subject aptly remarks: "Those experienced in teaching Arabic to foreigners in Egypt know that only a small percentage of these study the syntax and the grammar, and that the Egyptians themselves are often at a loss to find a word in a purely Arabic lexicon where the derivatives are given only under the root-verb." So far so good, but what is astonishing to any one who has made the classical Arabic his study is to find that Mr. Spiro, abandoning orthography, spells many of his words phonetically—and says nothing about it. The following examples will show how far the modern Egyptians have progressed on this convenient but downward path. Certain people, as all know, having a constitutional inability to pronounce the sound of *th* and the kindred *dh* (which in English is likewise written *th*), put an *s* for the former and a *z* for the latter. Most Frenchmen, for instance, pronounce "this thing" as "*zis sing*," and in like manner both Persians and Turks, after borrowing half their dictionary from the Arabic, consistently confound the Arabic *s* and *th*, pronouncing both as *s*, while the four Arabic letters *z*, *dh*, *d*, and *th* are indifferently uttered as *z*. For it should be remarked that the dialect of the Desert is very rich in these dental and palatal sounds. We have both *t* and *th*, *d* and *dh*, then (dotted or palatal) *ṭ* and its corresponding *th*, also a dotted sibilant *ṣ* and its corresponding aspirated *d*. The Persians and Turks, however, stick to orthography, and pronounce consistently *s* and *z* according as the unpronounceable letter has the *th* sound or the *dh*. The modern Egyptian, on the other hand, is remarkable for being inconsistent in pronunciation, and, if Mr. Spiro is to be taken as our guide, often, as already noticed, throws orthography to the dogs. For sometimes *th* is pronounced as *t*, sometimes as *s*. Thus the classical *thalâtha*, 'three,' becomes plain *talâta*, but under the initial *th* in the vocabulary Mr. Spiro writes "see *S*," and *thâbit*, 'firm,' is given as *sâbit*, while *mathal*, 'a proverb,' becomes *masal*; and many other examples follow.

It is, however, among the letters *d* and *z* that the most remarkable confusion occurs. In classical Arabic, *dira'* means 'a cuirass,' while *dhirâ'* (which a Persian or Turk pronounces *zirâ'*), is 'the ell or cubit'; now both these words Mr. Spiro writes indifferently with the plain initial *d*, thus confusing two different roots and significations. Again, under the letter *z* of this vocabulary there are some wonderful words. It will be sufficient to point to the common and very classical root *darata*, which is used in the vulgar dialect in such an expression as *Darta fîk*, explained by Mr. Spiro to signify, "I laugh at you. You are beneath my notice." But this is here given under the letter *z* (and spelt with the Arabic *zâ*), thus confounding it with the root *zarata*, "to swallow a mouthful," and entirely upsetting just notions of propriety.

It is for the astonishing number of new words and secondary meanings that the present Vo-

cabulary is remarkable. The compiler has supplied many useful examples of idiomatic usage, as in the column of racy vernacular given under the heading *rigl*, 'foot.' Foreign words have rightly been marked with an asterisk, but it is none the less a shock to find such a classical and orthodox word as *salāma*, 'safety,' registered with the signification of 'sausage' (to wit, the Italian *salame*, now doubtless imported into Egypt). Common words have also a surprising way of lengthening their vowels in the modern dialect; for instance, the classical *ragul*, 'a man,' becomes *râgil*, with a long *alif* that would entirely alter the meaning of the word in the classical speech. On the other hand, a good old loan-word like *dûlâb* (which the Arabs borrowed from Persia when the first Moslems conquered the Sassanian Empire) still keeps its original meaning of 'water-wheel,' but adds thereto the secondary signification of a 'cupboard,' or 'wardrobe.' Further, and doubtless because from the signification of 'water-wheel' *dûlâb* came to signify 'wheel' in general, and then any clever 'wheeled-machine,' an additional meaning has grown up in its now common use to denote 'a ruse or trick'; and a 'business man' in modern Cairo is now understood under the phrase *râgil dûlâb*, literally, 'a man of ruse,' for which terms the classical dictionary offers no interpretation. In many instances Mr. Spiro would certainly confer a benefit were he to add further explanation of the strange meanings which have come to be attached to words.

Mr. Spiro has done very much to facilitate the labors of such as desire to get a practical knowledge of Arabic. To readers of the 'Thousand and One Nights' this vocabulary will be an indispensable adjunct, while the English official in Egypt, who has to wade through the pages of dispatches and administrative reports, will find here "financial, engineering, mechanical, and military words" explained which he will seek for in vain in the pages of either Lane or Dozy.

JAPAN AND CHINA AT WAR.

The China-Japan War. By Vladimir. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

The Japan-China War. By Jukichi Inouye. With photo-engraved plates by Ogawa. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

BOTH of these works are largely compilations, and both are drawn mainly from Japanese sources. The first, whose author adopts the pseudonym of Vladimir, is of the greater permanent value, giving a clear and consecutive narrative of the war, as well as of the circumstances leading up to it and of the various negotiations that led to its close and the establishment of peace. The illustrations are very poor, and in this respect the second work is much the superior—its illustrations, by Ogawa, being mainly from photographs, well defined and of considerable size. To some extent, and in this respect, one work supplements the other. Inouye's work, however, confines itself to the three principal events of the war—the battle of the Yalu, or Haiyang Island, the campaign on the Regent's Sword, resulting in the fall of Port Arthur, and the military and naval operations in and about Wei-hai-wei Bay.

It is difficult not to agree with Vladimir in his introductory pages as to the characteristics of the three peoples concerned in the China-Japan war. Much as they have in common of religion and learning, and alike as they are in origin and mode of thought, they nevertheless differ radically in most physical and intellectual traits. The Japanese, to begin with, form a curious compound. Warlike by nature and tradition, they are at the same time amiable and artistic; quick and vivacious, they possess insatiable curiosity, and a desire to learn not always accompanied by thoroughness of digestion and assimilation. The Chinese, on the other hand, though quiet, laborious, and conservative, and naturally pacific, can with proper treatment and training make excellent seamen and soldiers. They are, we believe, naturally better seamen than the Japanese, and, under the American flag and in arctic expeditions, have shown as much courage and endurance as their neighbors the Japanese, or their shipmates and companions of European and American origin. Certainly, as seamen on mercantile vessels they are preferred by European commanders to Japanese, in Eastern waters. With China's lack of internal communication and want of homogeneity of dialect, is to be considered the prevalent general indifference, if not hostility, to the ruling classes. As a result, it is not a matter of wonder that the Chinese are so wanting in that patriotism which the Japanese possess almost to fanaticism. As to the Koreans, they differ from both the Japanese and the Chinese. They seem to lack the virtues of both. For centuries subjects of a tributary kingdom, and victims of constant maladministration, they have, as Vladimir truly states, become slothful and indifferent to a degree which would be beyond belief to those who do not know them. In physical appearance they are perhaps the finest of the three nationalities, but they lack sadly the industry and stability of the Chinese, as well as the courage, enterprise, and patriotism of their insular neighbors of Japan.

The relative value of the war forces of China and Japan seems to have been singularly misunderstood, not only by the civilized world at large, but more particularly by most Europeans and Americans residing in the extreme Orient. The general tendency was to compare populations and geographical extent rather than war-like spirit and military and naval efficiency—a mistake not uncommon with our own legislators when comparing the standing of the United States with that of other naval and military Powers. Although the numerical force of the Chinese army in its four classes was nominally much superior to that of the Japanese, it was not really so, and it was badly officered and disciplined, and inefficient, as a rule, in its organization and armament. The fourth class of the Chinese troops, known as the drilled or trained army, was alone worthy of the name. It was composed of men who had been drilled in the European manner, and in numbers was estimated by different authorities to consist of from 50,000 to 100,000 men. The numbers of the other classes were even more uncertain; their training was neglected, and they were armed with weapons of all sorts, including spears as well as bows and arrows. The Japanese army, on the contrary, was a model of its kind. It has been deservedly praised for the perfection of its organization, the celerity of its mobilization, and the precision of its movements. Formed upon the best European model, the standing army at the outbreak of the war was but little short of 70,000 men, capable of expansion by the addition of the reserve and territorial army to at least twice this size. The infantry and cavalry were armed with the Murata rifle, a breach-loader invented by a Japanese officer of that name, while the light artillery consisted of pieces of compressed bronze made upon the system of an Austrian at Osaka. The power of rapidly concentrating and transporting troops was possible to China only by means of the sea and by chartered transports; this means cut off, there remained but the badly kept canals and worse roads. The Japanese in their own country had the advantage of the railway system, and for transports they drew largely upon the many steamers of their own great company—the Nippon Yusen Kaisha. The insular conditions of Japan are such that transports can effectually aid and supplement the concentration of troops by rail. The transportation of material was effectively done by the Japanese, the organization being very thorough; coolies took the place of the wagons and beasts of burden of western countries.

As to the Chinese naval force engaged during the war, it may be said to have consisted almost entirely of the Pei-Yang or northern squadron; the vessels of the southern squadron and flotillas remaining in their respective localities. The Chinese navy was superior in personnel in every respect to that of the army, and, furthermore, in its equipment, was superior to the navy of Japan, but in its ships alone; for, notwithstanding the bitter criticism and neglect of their navy by the Japanese, its personnel was excellent in morale and discipline, and never lacking in dash and bravery. Inouye, in his preface, tells under what disadvantages the navy had been placed of late years. He adds that "the Japanese have never been great sailors, the laws of the Tokugawa Government having prohibited the construction of large ships. It was possible, then, that the Japanese officers might, by their defective navigation and unskilful manœuvres, run their war-ships into danger." These fears were soon dispelled by the battle of the Yalu; and the Japanese, with inferior ships, accomplished what the Chinese, with upon the whole a superior naval force, failed to do. Had the vessels asked for by Vice-Admiral Kabayama in 1890 been given by the Japanese Parliament, and the battle-ships now building been at the command of Admiral Ito, the command of the sea would have been secured at the beginning of the war, and the beginning of the winter would have found the Japanese army before or in Peking instead of in Mantchuria. Japan possessed during the war no battle ships and no armored vessels fit to cope with the *Ting Yuen*, or its sister ship, the *Chen Yuen*.

By the middle of July, 1894, the Korean question had become so involved that war with China and Korea seemed to present the only solution to the Japanese. Popular feeling ran high, and the whole nation was resolved not to suffer more humiliation in Korea. China was considered the instigator of all that had happened in the peninsula, both as to insults offered and lives lost, and the hand of the Government would have been forced even if it had been unwilling. But it was not unwilling. The march of events was rapid. On the 18th of July the Korean Government requested the withdrawal of the Japanese troops; on the 19th the Chinese Minister left Korea and returned to China; on the 20th the Japanese Minister in Korea sent an ultimatum to the Korean Government, to which, on the 22d, the Korean Government responded unsatisfactorily, and as a result, on the 23d, the Japanese troops attacked the King's palace and became masters of that labyrinth and consequently of the Government. Since that time, until the late flight of the King to the Russian legation, Korea has been practically under Japanese control. With the capture of the King's pa-

lace at Seoul on the 23d of July, the regular hostilities between Japan and Korea began and ended.

The war between Japan and China also began, as most wars of modern times begin, with the actual hostilities preceding the formal declaration. History has established this as the rule, the reverse as the exception. The hurrying of the forces from China and Japan to Korea made the collision inevitable, and its approach known to all well-informed persons in China and Japan. On the 21st of July and upon the days immediately succeeding, eleven steamers, carrying more than 8,000 men, were sent from Tientsin, the port of Peking, to Korea. Some were sent to the Yalu River, and others direct to Asan, near Chemulpo, the port of the capital of Korea. The former were assembled to bar the approach to China from Korea, the latter to reinforce the Chinese troops already in Korea and near the capital. To secure and preserve the advantages of the position in Korea held by the Japanese, quick action was necessary; and as soon as it became known that the transports had left Tientsin, three of the fastest cruisers of the Japanese navy left Sasebo, the naval station in southern Japan, on the 23d of July, reaching the vicinity of Asan on the morning of the 25th, falling in at the same time with two small Chinese men-of-war coming from Asan, at which place the attack upon the palace of the 23d inst. was known. Which side opened fire is in dispute, but it mattered not: the train had been laid, and the application of the torch was inevitable. Japan by this time meant war. The engagement resulted in the defeat of the Chinese vessels—the loss of one and the flight of the other. Before the pursuit of the Chinese vessels was over, the British steamer *Kow-shing*, chartered and acting as a Chinese transport, was sighted in company with a small Chinese dispatch vessel, which was at once captured. The *Kow-shing* was found to have 1,200 Chinese troops on board, fully armed, besides twelve field guns, ammunition, etc. The Japanese cruiser *Naniwa* boarded the *Kow-shing*, and her captain, an Englishman, was directed to bring her to anchor, which he did under protest; but the Chinese troops with their leaders refused to surrender to the Japanese or allow the Europeans in the ship (among whom was Von Hanneken) to do so.

The destruction of the ship followed, and was justified by international law, but the loss of the 1,000 persons on the *Kow-shing* does not seem to have been necessary or unavoidable. Engaged as she was upon unneutral service, her position was not unlike a foreigner enlisted in an army which becomes by the outbreak of hostilities belligerent. His engagement in a military service without regard to war involves the possibility of taking part in war and warlike operations, with all its risks and penalties. But the *Kow-shing* matter was badly managed. Granting that the ship itself could not be taken possession of from the numerical force of the Chinese on board, it could nevertheless have been disabled, and its immediate destruction was not necessary, as the ship was at anchor and under the guns of the *Naniwa*. It does not seem to have been established that the Japanese fired upon the Chinese in the water, but there seems to be also no evidence or claim that they made any attempt to save those who were in the water with their boats. It is stated that the agents of the *Kow-shing* had inserted a proviso securing indemnification in case the vessel suffered any casualty from the incidents of war, which showed an expectancy and assumption of risk that weakens the claim of innocence in transporting troops to what was generally known as a most probable theatre of war. So far as can be ascertained, the British Government has not taken advantage of the offer of reparation made by the Japanese Government if the act should be proved to be a breach of international law.

No more troops were attempted to be landed in the vicinity of Chemulpo, and the campaign of the Japanese against the Chinese in Korea was soon under way, the Japanese forces being rapidly and largely reinforced without any interference with their disembarkation on the part of the Pei-Yang squadron. A fine opportunity for an active and aggressive enemy was here lost. The feebly opposed operations of the Japanese through Korea caused great loss of prestige to the Chinese, besides rendering complete the subjugation of Korea and the Koreans; but this campaign, with the operations that followed in Mantchuria, had no decisive effect upon the war. Even if the war had been prolonged, the positions held at the last in Mantchuria would have been easily obtained from the Kinchow peninsula after the fight of the Yalu and the consequent command of the sea there obtained.

The three great events of the war are rightly given by Inouye—the battle of the Yalu (or, more correctly, of Haiyang Island), the capture of Port Arthur, and the naval and military operations at Wei-hai-wei, resulting in its capture and that of the Pei-Yang squadron. First in importance and in time came the great naval battle off the Yalu. The meeting of the two fleets is now known to have been a matter of accident; neither was in full force when the smoke from each fleet revealed its presence to its antagonist. Little time was given for the formation of tactical plans, but some general plan of operations had been formulated on both sides in case of meeting with the enemy. The approach was not rapid for modern fleets; the main body of the Chinese had but a speed of six knots, while the principal squadron of the Japanese moved at the rate of ten knots. The Chinese line of battle was intended to be that of the indented line, but it became, by force of circumstances, an obtuse double echelon; both of these formations are not favored by the best tacticians of the day, and certainly they received no additional prestige from the results off Haiyang Island. The Japanese fleet had not been without preparation in fleet tactics, for Admiral Ito, months before, had drilled his commanders in tactical movements by means of steam launches. He made his approach with system and coherence, and although signals were misunderstood and movements miscarried at times, and at others were hampered by weak and slow vessels, his plans were in the main carried out and in the main were successful. At no time did the two squadrons of the Japanese lose their organization or unity, or resign themselves to the individual duel and mêlée. By a concentration of attack upon the flanks of the Chinese fleet, and by the movements to protect the weaker and slower vessels, the Japanese commander-in-chief destroyed the flanking vessels of the enemy without losing a single one of his own, notwithstanding his own inferiority of force and the superiority of the two Chinese battleships. These vessels, however, saved the rest of the Chinese fleet.

Fortunately for the Japanese, it was not necessary to come to close range to secure effectiveness of fire on their part; the Chinese vessels destroyed were at a range of 3,000 metres, and the superiority of speed gave the Japanese a choice of positions for concentration of fire, which the lack of initiative on the part of the enemy further resigned to them. The Chinese, thus encircled and hemmed in, not only received the full effect of this concentration of fire, but were at the further disadvantage of being compelled to repair damages and put out the accidental fires constantly occurring on their vessels under this severe and continuous hammering. The Japanese, on the contrary, could haul out of action, repair damages, and resume fighting, or seek safety with impunity. The advice and instructions of Von Hanneken, formerly of the German Army, encouraged the lack of initiative already existing on the part of the Chinese and their leader, Admiral Ting. While the subordinate officers and men of the Chinese fleet doubtless still felt the effects of the discipline and administration of Lang, it is doubtful whether the superior officers ever mastered the manœuvres and evolutions practised under him. Admiral Ting, distinctively a military officer, a Chinese military officer at that, knew nothing of ships until he was about forty years of age, and, though intelligent and of undoubted bravery, he was in no sense a naval leader or tactician. Personally honest, he stands out in unselfish devotion to his cause as the best character we know on the Chinese side during the war, and the tribute to him by the Japanese after his death was no less creditable to them than to him. But, when all is said, he still remained as inferior to Admiral Ito as Ito was inferior to a Farragut or Nelson.

The victory of the Yalu not only disabled for the time and partially destroyed the Pei-Yang squadron—the only active naval force of the Chinese—but so disheartened and demoralized its personnel that it never again took the open sea except to escape from Port Arthur to Wei-hai-wei, and the command of the sea, with all that this implied, came entirely into the hands of the Japanese. There were two acts left to be played in the drama of the war, both following and possible through this command of the sea. The operations against Port Arthur, and the campaign preceding it on the peninsula of the Regent's Sword, came first. In this short campaign the work was done almost exclusively by the army, and it was well done, and, where necessary, bravely done. The landing was unopposed, and the forts as a rule unworthily defended. The Chinese naval force at anchor at Wei-hai-wei did not leave their port of refuge, and neither disturbed the landing of the Japanese, nor fired a shot in defence of the port and fortress created for their safety and welfare!

Winter soon came on, and it is both severe and stormy in the Yellow Sea and Gulf of Pechili. The courage of the Japanese fully equalled their powers of endurance, and a winter campaign against Wei-hai-wei was determined upon. On the 10th of January, 1895, over fifty transports left Ujina, in the inland sea of Japan, for Talienwan Bay near Port Arthur, under command of Marshal Count Oyama, who had organized the attack upon Port Arthur. Arriving at Talienwan on the 14th of January, the final preparations were made, and on the 19th and succeeding days of the same month the expedition left in three divisions for Yungching Bay on the Shantung Peninsula, thirty-seven miles distant by land from Wei-hai-wei. The disembarkation commenced on the 20th of January upon the arrival of the first division in the midst of a snow-storm. The landing, discovered by the Chinese, was

but slightly opposed, the disembarkation being so rapidly effected that on the 26th of the same month the forward movement began, and was so far advanced that the attack upon the forts of Pohchihyaisu, on the south shore of the bay, was successfully made on the 30th of January, and the Chinese fleet was compelled to take up a position on the opposite side of the bay, which runs in a northeasterly and southwesterly direction. A heavy gale coming up caused a delay in the naval and military operations, and gave Admiral Ting an opportunity to destroy the guns in the ports commanding the anchorage of the Chinese fleet, and thus render his position under Liukung Island tenable so long as the island itself was in the possession of the Chinese. This prolonged the resistance after the capture of the town of Wei-hai-wei and the other ports on the mainland, which was effected by the afternoon of the 2d of February. In addition to the protection of the ports on the two islands in the harbor, that of Lih Island being still intact, the entrances to the bay were protected by formidable booms. In the defence made by the Pei-Yang squadron, which consisted of twenty-five vessels of all kinds and sizes, from torpedo boats up to battle-ships, Admiral Ting and his command did their best work, while the Japanese proved themselves on their side to be especially well fitted by national characteristics for daring torpedo-boat work. On the 13th of February, 1895, Admiral Ting sent his letter of surrender to the Japanese commander-in-chief, and the drama of the war came to a close with the tragic death of the unfortunate admiral by his own act.

Alpine Notes and the Climbing Foot. By George Wherry. Cambridge, Eng.: Macmillan & Bowes; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

THE Alpine literature of 1896 opens up with a review of mountaineering in the years 1891–95. Mr. Wherry, when returning from Switzerland, jots down in the train a record of the season's adventures, and publishes it in the Cambridge *Chronicle*. Five annual letters have thus appeared, and he reprints them with the addition of two new papers, "On the Climbing Foot" and "On Accidents." Together, they make a very neat and a very readable little book.

The increasing audacity of Alpine climbers is brought home to one with every fresh heralding of their deeds. Mr. Wherry's exploits furnish a new illustration of this threadbare theme. The Meije is still a dangerous mountain, a mountain to be respected even under the most favorable conditions. To climb it with a broken rib is a feat of personal pluck worth mentioning, however pernicious the example. "I gained the summit at nine o'clock, but, just at the final struggle, where it is necessary to straddle on a sharp, red-rock ridge, called the *cheval rouge*, with fine precipices below, my rib gave way, and went completely broken through. . . . I could feel and even hear the ends of the broken rib grating together; but I kept at it, going down steadily and slowly with groans and grunts." Mr. Wherry's climbing has really been of the first order, and the complete absence of vainglory in his narrative adds much to its value with those who know how easy it is to make a desperate adventure —on paper—out of a small peak.

Mr. Wherry is university lecturer in surgery at Cambridge, and men of his profession are always observant. Mr. Dent is another example. A cardinal merit of his classic, 'Mountaineering,' in the Badminton Library, is disquisition on the work of the body in active exercise. Mr. Wherry is much less comprehensive than Mr. Dent, dealing with one anatomical feature of climbing, and not with its broad physiological aspects. His essay on the climbing foot is the true *raison d'être* of the present book and an interesting study in adaptation. Leslie Stephen once observed that the best amateur should feel modest when he reflects on his inferiority to a second-class guide. Of course an extra-good man, such as Stephen himself in his climbing days, or the Rev. Charles Hudson, who was killed in the first ascent of the Matterhorn, is far better than the average Chamonix hireling. Yet no amateur ever equalled Melchior Anderegg or Christian Almer. Practice tells. The climbing foot is not the gift of God, nor does it come by nature. It is a physical adaptation due to perpetually walking up hill.

Mr. Wherry states this physical difference between guides and amateurs as follows: "It has often been noticed in mountaineering that a guide can go face forward and whole-footed up a slope, while the amateur following, and coming to a steep part, cannot plant his whole foot upon the slope, but has to go on his toes or else turn sideways." To explain the cause of the difference, Mr. Wherry begins with photographs of an infant five weeks old. At this tender age the instep can be made to touch the shin by slight pressure of the finger. Gradually freedom of movement is lost in gaining strength. With the guides the instep becomes modified so that, without pressure, the foot is bent upward beyond the limit which can be reached by an amateur with pressure. Captain Abney has taken careful photographs of the feet of Alois Kalbermatten and Peter Perren for contrast with the feet of good amateurs. The most casual glance at them shows why it is that amateurs go on their toes while the guides walk flat-footed. There is a climbing foot as distinctly as there is a baseball hand.

Mr. Wherry's interest in the guides is not confined to their feet. Unlike a good many recent Alpine writers, he has warm, even enthusiastic, words for their moral qualities. One laments to hear of any decadence when he remembers the traditions of the early school, and of late it has been the habit to notice the activity of the mountaineers in the race for money. Two passages in different parts of this book may be placed side by side to show that, after all, the feeling of old and new-school climbers for their guides is the same when the guides are themselves worthy. "Wandering into Couttet's Hotel at Chamounix quite without intention, I witnessed a touching farewell betwen Mr. M—— [presumably Mr. C. E. Mathews] and Melchior [Anderegg]. To see an undemonstrative Englishman kiss his gray-bearded old guide on both cheeks, when these two have climbed together for forty years, gives one suddenly a glimpse of the pathos of life impossible to recall without emotion." And then, concerning his own guides: "How do these men, Xaver Imseng and Alois Kalbermatten, win my regard? Xaver has an angel face and Alois a form like Hercules. It is not only their courage, skill, and devotion to duty, but their sympathy with my delights or difficulties—this is the great charm."

Mr. Wherry says of his own "poor tracts" in the preface: "Only of this I feel assured, that similar notes, put into my hands when I began climbing, would have been read by me with avidity." We can say for our own part that we have read his 'Alpine Notes' if not with avidity, at least with very considerable pleasure.

Current Superstitions: Collected from the Oral Tradition of English Speaking Folk. Edited by Fanny D. Bergen. With Notes and an Introduction by William Wells Newell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

What They Say in New England: A Book of Signs, Sayings, and Superstitions. Collected by Clifton Johnson. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1896.

MRS. BERGEN'S work is published as the fourth volume of the Memoirs of the American Folk-Lore Society, and is limited to 450 copies. As stated in Mr. Newell's introduction, it is the first considerable printed collection made in America of superstitions belonging to English-speaking folk. Mrs. Bergen has also collected the superstitions connected with animal and plant lore, which will make a volume of equal size with the present one. There is no pretence that completeness has been attained; but of course the number of variants of the same belief is infinite, and the main requirement is a judicious classification. Mrs. Bergen's principal rubrics are Babyhood, Childhood, Love and Marriage, Death Omens, Mortuary Customs, Dreams, Luck, Projects, Physical Characteristics, Wishes, Festivals, Weather, etc. She has found the possession of a pet superstition or two an open sesame to many beliefs of this sort held by servants and other plain people; but much information has been derived from cultivated persons who have been observant in this direction.

It is hardly necessary to say that most beliefs of this character have their roots in older lands than ours, and Mrs. Bergen has limited her list to items taken down from the narration of persons born in America. This limit is somewhat arbitrary, since what such persons narrate may have been of direct and even recent importation. But unless a comparative folk-lore were attempted, perhaps no better limit could have been chosen. To a certain extent the locality of superstitions is significant, and Mrs. Bergen has made it a rule to state the place where each belief prevails. But all that can be said on this subject is that in the regions of backward civilization superstition is more active and more primitive in form. A superstition, according to Mr. Newell, is properly defined as a belief respecting causal sequence, depending on reasoning proper to an outgrown culture. We should be inclined to add that the reasoning must be of a fallacious character, for sound reasoning is not a matter of epochs. Most of the reasoning of common people is invalid; but as the invalidity of an inference becomes apparent with the increase of knowledge, the inference becomes discredited and falls into the category of superstitions. However this may be, Mrs. Bergen has made a fascinating collection of obsolescent but still vigorous traditions, and her labors will undoubtedly be productive of large results. Every one will find familiar beliefs and sayings in her list; and nearly every one, probably, will be able to add to it.

Mr. Johnson's little book is very similar both in origin and in spirit to Mrs. Bergen's, but it is less systematic, and the material has been gathered from a restricted field, principally in western Massachusetts. He does not limit himself to superstitions, but includes proverbs, rhymes, tricks and catches, songs, stories, nursery tales, etc. Many of our childhood's friends will be recognized here, and some new acquaintances made. The book is attractive in appearance, and has some appropriate if not very interesting illustrations, but the matter is rather scanty, and must be taken as a con-

tribution to our entertainment rather than our knowledge.

Introduction to Political Science: Two Series of Lectures. By Sir J. R. Seeley. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

THE editor of this volume, Prof. H. Sidgwick, commends it to the public as mainly valuable, not for the purpose of imparting a complete system, but of communicating a method of study. For this purpose it is, to our mind, at once interesting and disappointing. The lecturer, late professor of modern history at Cambridge, had a mind of great acuteness and remarkable skill, both in the use of language and in the analysis of terms. This skill, indeed, seems to produce a defect: it leads him into the common pitfall of subtle thinking—reasoning founded on significations devised by the thinker himself. Misled by his facility, we often find ourselves ready to yield to some conclusion which, on reflection, does not appear to be rationally connected with the premises laid down as supporting it. When, in the end, the method has been communicated, and with the aid of it we have the scheme of the entire history of the world flashed on the lecturer's screen, we cannot help asking ourselves blankly, "Is that all? If the rationale of political science is so simple, why has the world persisted in missing it during all these centuries?"

The lecturer announces at the outset that he hopes to be able to disentangle a true science of politics from the mass of narrative which we call History, and that the science is to be inductive. What it is to teach us is the nature, aim, and purpose of the State—not what ought to be its aim and purpose. He then proceeds with an analysis of a number of the terms commonly used in political discussion, and makes in the course of this analysis many interesting and acute observations. As he unfolds his method, he applies it to history, past and contemporary; notwithstanding which the method still remains obscure, partly for the reason already suggested, that the terms in common use describing the conceptions analyzed are used by him in novel and uncommon senses. *State*, for instance, he seems to extend so as to cover *Tribe* (pp. 36, 53). Now, a State may undoubtedly be conceived without a definite territory, continuously possessed, and a Tribe may be conceived as having a settled territory; but the word State universally imports definite territory, the word Tribe an organization based on kinship. If we talk about a tribe as a sort of state, we might as well bring the primitive family under the same head, and it is not at all clear that the student would not be justified in inferring such to be the lecturer's intention. But surely for purposes of analysis and classification the differences between the State and the Family are quite as important as the fact that one has been historically developed out of the other.

Another peculiarity connected with this is what we can describe only as an attempt to dispense with all recognized legal conceptions. It is very much as if the desire of the lecturer had been to frame a theory of government without taking any notice of Law. Consequently, we have no discussion of such subjects as Sovereignty, nor of the separation of the three departments of government, which, since the time of Montesquieu, has been at least as important as the old Aristotelian classification of Aristocracy, Monarchy, and Democracy. Now undoubtedly part of the history of the world can be discussed without taking Law into account. But, in modern times and in civilized states, government and law go hand in hand, and to attempt a theory of politics without paying any attention to Law must lead to very peculiar results. Examples are not difficult to find. When it is said that the law-making body in England "*does not govern*, but makes, supports, and destroys the government," this not only lodges the government in one body and the sovereignty in another, but eliminates altogether from the problem the fact that what the author calls the government-making organ—Parliament—is itself the agent of the whole body of electors. We are not surprised after this to find Louis XIV. made to govern by consent, because France had physical resources enough to have overturned his government, and James II. demonstrated to have been a responsible King. In fact, we are not surprised at anything in the way of demonstration, for the method of the lecturer—not that which is communicated, but that which is actually employed—would enable him to maintain anything.

On the other hand, no one can possibly read the book, still less study it, without learning something. The analysis of the term Liberty, for instance, as having no esoteric value, but meaning nothing more nor less than freedom from restraint or interference, leaves nothing to be desired. It is the sphere of uncontrolled action in any state, and it has no necessary connection with parliamentary government. There was probably much more liberty in some directions among the Saxons in England than there is in Massachusetts to-day. It is just here, however, that germs of a theory of political science seem to show themselves founded on principles which we believe to be essentially wrong. Buckle thought he could deduce history from the physical circumstances of a race; Sir John Seeley seems to have suspected that history might be traced to the relation between the geographical features of a country and the objects of its government. His syllogism would be: Nations with exposed frontiers, and hence military, produce governments severely limiting liberty. A is a country with an exposed frontier; hence A will produce such a government. The major premise is obviously faulty, because a country with an exposed frontier may be overrun and subjugated. The argument correctly stated would, we believe, be as follows: A state fighting for its existence cannot be carried on without a strong government, encroaching more and more on Liberty. A is such a state. A's government will be marked more and more by encroachments on Liberty—examples: France, under Napoleon, England under Pitt, the United States during the war of the rebellion, Prussia under Frederick the Great. We are firm believers in political science, but it is not a science by which we can predict history.

Die Erlanger Burschenschaft 1816-1833. Ein Beitrag zur innern Geschichte der Restaurationszeit. Von Friedrich Reuter. Erlangen. 1896. 8vo, pp. 415.

No period of German history presents a more striking picture of the appalling obstacles against which modern constitutional life has fought its way than the period of reaction which set in after the downfall of Napoleon, and which made it possible for such narrow-minded autocrats as Nicholas I. of Russia and Prince Metternich to maintain themselves for more than thirty years as the arbiters of Europe. Public opinion, which, in the days of Stein and Fichte, had at last become a power in national life, was again reduced to naught. For although, in the constitutional monarchies of South Germany at least, there was enjoyed a certain degree of parliamentary freedom, the political strength represented by these miniature states was so small that the debates of their legislatures had seldom more than academic value and hardly ever stirred the nation as a whole. While Austria and Prussia, too, were foremost in pursuing a policy of persistent and relentless coercion, the educated public of Vienna and Berlin was engrossed in discussing the latest literary scandal or the advent of a new ballet-dancer on the operatic stage. No wonder that this should have been the time in which renegades to freedom like Friedrich von Gentz and K. L. von Haller were praised as great political philosophers; in which the "Fate Tragedy," with its pallid faces and meaningless horrors, with its hopeless gospel of submission to a blind chance, achieved its greatest theatrical triumphs; in which the hollow phantasms of a spiritualistic juggler like Amadeus Hoffmann were admired as marvels of poetic fiction. No wonder that such a hopeless pedant as Raupach should have been exalted by this age as a master of the historical drama; that the lyric dilettantism of the period should have found an organ in those numberless poetic almanacs and keepsakes embellished with inane steel engravings, the thought of which forced upon the lips of the manly Gervinus the words of *Hotspur:*

> "I had rather be a kitten and cry mew,
> Than one of these same metre ballad-mongers."

No wonder that even the best minds of the nation—a Grillparzer, a Rückert, a Lenau, a Heine, a Platen, a Schopenhauer—should have been affected by this universal repression of public activity; that they too should have been crippled in their natural development, alienated from their own day and their own country, led astray in their tastes and propensities, discouraged in their views of life, debarred from truly constructive achievements.

The author of the book before us, favorably known through his contributions to the biography of Rückert, has attempted to give us an inside view of this sad epoch by depicting its effects upon German student life in general, and upon the various "Burschenschaften" of the University of Erlangen in particular. He brings before us in characteristic types the spirit of joyous liberalism which animated the generation of students who had taken part in the wars against Napoleon. He introduces us to the Wartburg festival and other scenes of juvenile frolic, in which this spirit found a harmless, if boisterous, expression. He gives a detailed account of the epidemic of persecution which followed the assassination of Kotzebue, the deed of an irresponsible fanatic: how hundreds of students were expelled from the universities and put into prison for the heinous crime of having worn the German colors in their buttonholes; how professors were suspended and put under police surveillance for having spoken of national duties and national aims. And although the author does not bring his narrative down to the Revolution of 1848, he lets us witness, partly at least through the eyes of actual participants, those occasional sporadic risings and outbursts of popular feeling, like the Hambacher Fest and the Frankfurter Attentat, which finally culminated in the March Revolution. Throughout the book the author appears as one of those chivalrous German idealists whose type has been made familiar to Americans through men like Follen, Lieber, or Schurz. His attitude of mind could not be better expressed than by

the words in which he himself, in the preface, characterizes his intellectual affiliations :

" Die müssen Feinde sein, die die Knechtschaft wollen,
Die müssen Feinde sein, die die Wahrheit fürchten,
Die müssen Feinde sein, die das Recht verdrehen,
Die müssen Feinde sein, die von der Ehre weichen."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alice de Beaurepaire: A Romance of Napoleon. Boston: C. F. Brown & Co. $1.
Alves da Cunha, R. C. Paraenses Illustres. Pará, Brazil: The Author.
Arnold's Guide to English Literature, and Essay on Gray; Morley's Study of Literature, Macmillan. 75c.
A Week's Record at Monte Carlo. Brentanos. 50c.
Bell, Lillian. The Under Side of Things. Harpers. $1.25.
Bendall, Cecil. Catalogue of Sanskrit, Pali, and Prakrit Books in the British Museum, acquired during the years 1876-'92. London: The British Museum.
Bergstresser, Rev. P. Baptism and Feet-Washing. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.
Bernhardt, Wilhelm. Aus Herz und Welt. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Betham-Edwards, Miss M. The Dream-Charlotte: A Story of Echoes. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bibliographica. Part IX. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Birrell, Augustine. The Duties and Liabilities of Trustees. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bonney, Prof. T. G. Ice-Work, Present and Past. Appletons.
Brightman, F. E. Liturgies, Eastern and Western. Vol. I. Eastern Liturgies. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Brooks, Sarah W. My Fire Opal, and Other Tales. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $1.
Brown, A. E. Beneath Old Roof Trees. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Brownell, W. C. Newport. [American Summer Resorts.] Scribners. 75c.
Bulfinch, Ellen S. The Life and Letters of Charles Bulfinch, Architect. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $5.
Bussell, F. W. The School of Plato. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2 75.
Carleton, William. Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry. Vol. IV. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1 50.
Carus, Paul. Primer of Philosophy. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Church Unity: Five Lectures. Scribners. $1.
Dana, C. A. Lincoln and his Cabinet. Lemperly, Hilliard & Hopkins.
Doggett, L. L. History of the Young Men's Christian Association. Vol. I. New York: International Committee of Young Men's Christian Association. $1.
Field, Eugene. Works. [Sabine Edition.] Vols. VI.-X. Scribners.
Ford, P. L. The Writings of John Dickinson. Vol. I. Political Writings. 1764-1774. Philadelphia: Historical Society of Pennsylvania.
Frederic, Harold. Mrs. Albert Grundy. Merriam Co. $1 25.
Giles, F. S. The Industrial Army. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Gillies, Dr. H. C. Stewart's Elements of Gaelic Grammar. London: David Nutt.
Hunt, Prof. T. W. American Meditative Lyrics. E. B. Treat. $1.
Keatinge, M. W. The Great Didactic of John Amos Comenius. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.
King, Capt. Charles. Sunset Pass. American Publishers Corporation. 50c.
King, Pauline. Alida Craig. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Leask, W. K. Hugh Miller. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Lucas, D. B. Nicaragua: The War of the Filibusters. Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co. $1.50.
McKenzie, F. A. Sober by Act of Parliament. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Meredith, Katharine M. C. Green Gates: An Analysis of Foolishness. Appletons. $1.25.
Ottley, R. L. The Doctrine of the Incarnation. 2 vols. London: Methuen & Co ; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Payne, Will. Jerry the Dreamer. Harpers. $1.25.
Pettingill & Co 's Newspaper Directory. 1896. Boston: Pettingill & Co.
Reid, Rev. H. M. B. Lost Habits of the Religious Life. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Rivers, George R. R. The Governor's Garden. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.50.
Robinson, C. P. American Democracy. Pittsburgh: W. T. Nicholson.
Rocheblave, S. Pages Choisies des Grands Écrivains. Chateaubriand. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Sloane, Prof. W. M. The Life of James McCosh. Scribners.
Spratt, Leonidas. Nature of an Universe of Life. Jacksonville, Fla.: Vance Printing Co.
Stauffer, Albrecht. Zwölf Gestalten der Glanzzeit Athens. Leipzig: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Steele, T. S. A Voyage to Viking-Land. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. $2.
Swaen, A. E. H. Sir John Vanbrugh. [Best Plays of the Old Dramatists.] London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $1.25.
The Paris Directory and Anglo American Traveller's Guide. 1896. Paris: Donald Downie.
The Poetical Works of John Milton. Introductory Memoir, Notes, Bibliography, etc. F. Warne & Co. $1.50.
Trumbull Rev. H. C. The Threshold Covenant; or, The Beginning of Religious Rites. Scribners. $2.
Twain, Mark. A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. Harpers. $1.75.
Uniform Questions in Drawing. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Vaughn, C. E. English Literary Criticism. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Waugh, Arthur. Johnson's Lives of the Poets. Vol. II. Scribners. $2.50.
Weston, Jessie L. The Legends of the Wagner Drama. Scribners. $2.25.
Wherry, George. Alpine Notes and The Climbing Foot. Cambridge, Eng.: Macmillan & Bowes.
Withers, Hartley. The English and the Dutch in South Africa. London: Clement Wilson.
Woodward, R. P. Trains that Met in the Blizzard. New York: Salmagundi Publishing Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 25, 1896.

The Week.

It is well known, and is highly characteristic, that the choice of the Jewish Rabbi to deliver the opening prayer at the St. Louis convention, was due to a wish not to offend the A. P. A. by employing a Catholic, nor the Catholics by employing a Protestant. In fact, the prayer was to be part of the general humbug for which the convention has been held. We doubt if any similar body has met in the United States with less sincerity. McKinley is probably the first candidate for the Presidency whose friends before the convention have had to confine themselves to apologies, whom hardly any one dared to praise, and whose own language showed his unfitness for the place; who refused to speak out, lest he should anticipate the platform, yet secretly fought hard to draw the platform to suit himself; who is surrounded by a mass of gold men who were silver men a fortnight ago, and stands on resolutions which the drafter and he have been fighting for some years. Lodge and McKinley as gold men are a sight most offensive to honest men. What, then, must the whole spectacle, including the Rabbi's prayer, be to the Almighty, whom it is evidently intended to hoodwink along with everybody else? When one considers what prayer professes to be, and to whom it is addressed, the use now made of it in Congress and in these political assemblages is fully as shocking as free coinage of silver at 16 to 1. What must the "niggers" who were "stolen" from Hanna by the gold men, who "treated them well," have thought of the Rabbi's invocation that they might be filled with "a deep and abiding sense of the transcendent dignity and nobility of American citizenship and the sacred obligations which should attend it"?

Picking one's way here and there among the miscellaneous gems of the platform, things rich and rare appear on every hand. Four years ago the platform shed bitter tears over the sufferings of the Jews in Russia. This year it holds up to scorn those "alien syndicates" (meaning Jewish syndicates) which have the credit of our government in pawn. This is pretty hard on the Rabbi chaplain. It is also pretty hard on John Sherman, who pawned the credit of the Government, on still harder terms, to the same alien syndicates. And what has become of home rule in Ireland, with which, four years ago, the Republicans so deeply sympathized? It seems to need sympathy now more than ever; yet the platform has not a throb of sympathy except for "wise" temperance and the struggling Cubans. We note with pleasure the ringing demand that women be admitted "to wider spheres of usefulness," though we are pained to find no more "reaffirming" of the one-cent postage plank or the Force-bill plank. Sill, we are to build and own the Nicaraguan Canal, buy "the Danish Islands," have a big navy and unlimited coast defences, and be ready for half-a-dozen foreign wars; all which gives some idea of the kind of taxation that is going to be imposed in order to meet "the necessary expenses of the Government."

Civil-service reform cuts only a small figure in the Republican platform, and was not mentioned in the discussion of issues among the delegates. However, the resolution in which the party "renew our repeated declarations that the civil-service law shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced, and extended wherever practicable," is all that could be asked. The important thing is whether the candidate who will stand on the St. Louis platform is a man who can be trusted to live up to this plank in case of his election. We are glad to say that McKinley's record on this question in Congress is a good one. He has never had much to say on the subject, but what he did say was excellent, and his votes were on the right side. His name is recorded among the yeas on the passage of the original Civil-Service act under Arthur's Administration, and he has always favored sustaining the commission in its work. On one notable occasion he declared himself a firm believer in the reform, and earnestly opposed a proposition favored by not a few of his own party to strike it down.

On the 24th of April, 1890, the executive, legislative, and judicial appropriation bill being before the House, Mr. Houk of Tennessee, one of the few Southern Republicans in Congress, moved to strike out the entire appropriation for the Civil-Service Commission, on the familiar ground that it was "an impracticable machine," and that the system was "inconsistent with the genius and spirit of our institutions." Mr. Cheadle, an Indiana Republican, followed in a similar strain, denouncing the whole theory of the civil-service law as "un-American in all its provisions," as "class legislation," and as finding its "great motive power in the educational institutions of this country, which want to find permanent place for their graduates." McKinley, who was the chairman of the ways and means committee, and so "leader of the House," closed the debate in a brief but excellent speech, which was followed by the rejection of Mr. Houk's motion, 128 to 61. "My only regret," began Mr. McKinley, "is that the committee on appropriations did not give to the Commission all the appropriation that was asked for, for the improvement and extension of the system." He proceeded to declare that, "if the Republican party of this country is pledged to any one thing more than another, it is to the maintenance of the civil-service law and its efficient execution; not only that, but to its enlargement and its further application to the public service." He pointed out that the law was put upon the statute-book by Republican votes, and that every national platform of the party since its enactment had declared not only in favor of its continuance in full vigor, but in favor of its enlargement so as to apply more generally to the public service. He maintained that "this is not alone the declaration and purpose of the Republican party, but it is in accordance with its highest and best sentiment—aye, more, it is sustained by the best sentiment of the whole country, Republican and Democratic alike." He concluded with these remarks, which he might well repeat as part of his letter of acceptance:

> "Mr. Chairman, the Republican party must take no backward step. The merit system is here, and it is here to stay; and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service."

The most prominent feature of the nomination of Mr. Garret A. Hobart for Vice-President at St. Louis is its proof of the command which the McKinley delegates had over the convention in every respect except the precise wording of the financial plank of the platform. It was not disguised from the time the delegates began to assemble that Mr. Hobart was Mr. Hanna's choice for the place. Had he not been supported in this way, his ambition would never have been satisfied. It is not the habit of national conventions to go for Vice-Presidential timber to small States whose electoral vote has been habitually cast for the opposite party. Mr. Hobart is a man of entire respectability and a good business man, yet there were probably not a dozen men in the convention, outside of the New Jersey delegation, who knew anything about his public or business career. In his own State, the most that can be said for him is that as a lawyer he has managed skilfully the affairs of some embarrassed corporations committed to his charge, and has made a fortune for himself by his practice; that he has impressed his party associates in the State with his ability as a campaign manager, although under his direction Republican candidates for Governor have steadily been beaten until the peculiar situation of affairs last year carried Mr. Griggs into the Governor's chair. When Mr. Hobart, as a member of the national Republican committee, arrived in St.

Louis last week, he joined his fortunes at once with those of Mr. McKinley, going even so far as to vote in that committee to seat some of the anti-Platt delegates from this city. If the Platt men could have defeated him with one of their own New Yorkers, they would have done so, but they were prevented from carrying out their plan in this regard by the position taken by Gov. Morton as to the second place on the ticket, and by the general disinclination of the delegates to take any man from a State like New York, where the cliques in the party were so bitter towards one another. The New Jersey platform spoke out squarely for gold, and Mr. Hobart has not attempted to dodge that issue. In that light, therefore, he may be considered as leaven to the ticket.

Mr. Hobart's speech, at the meeting in his honor at Paterson on Monday evening, gave the country its first sample of the intellectual quality of the Republican candidate for the Vice-Presidency, and a disheartening sample it is. No candidate is compelled to be an orator, but he is or should be compelled to know when he is not. Mr. Hobart might surely have bowed his thanks to his friends and neighbors, and there made an end; but to have rambled on with such ineptness and grotesqueness as he did for ten minutes was to deprive himself at a stroke of that title to be considered a great man which has been said to consist in a strong conviction that one is not a great man. Intellectually, the candidates appear to be true yokefellows, though, mediocrity for mediocrity, one may think McKinley entitled to the first place he holds, and may hope Mr. Hobart's functions will, providentially, never go beyond presiding over the Senate, for which he is qualified by experience.

The first speeches which Major McKinley has made as a candidate all indicate a disposition on his part to make the tariff the chief if not the only issue of the campaign. He has made half-a-dozen speeches, and in but one of these has he even squinted at the currency issue, while in several of them he has laid stress upon the tariff as the remedy for all our financial ills. He assured the Milholland McKinley Leaguers of New York, when they called upon him on Friday:

"All we have to do this year is to keep close to the people, hearken to the voice of the people, have faith in the people, and, if we do that, the people will win for us a triumph for that great masterful principle which, in all the years of the past, has given us plenty and prosperity."

On Saturday he said to a delegation which called upon him with banners made of "sheets of home-made tin":

"What we want in this country is a policy that will give to every American workingman American wages; a policy that will put enough money into the Treasury of the United States to run the Government; a policy that will bring back to us that period of prosperity and of plenty that we enjoyed for more than thirty years."

Later, on Saturday, he said to a delegation of workingmen:

"I cannot misunderstand—nobody can misunderstand—the meaning of these demonstrations on the part of the workingmen. They mean just one thing, and that thing is, that in the mind of every American workingman is the thought that this great American doctrine of protection is associated with wages and work, and linked with home, with family, with country, and with general prosperity. That, fellow-citizens, is what all these demonstrations signify. They mean that the people of this country want an industrial policy that is for America and for Americans. They mean they intend to return to that policy which lies at the foundation of our national prosperity, which is the safest prop to the National Treasury, and which is the bulwark of our industrial independence and financial honor."

Nobody would infer from these utterances that the great issue which overshadowed all others in the St. Louis convention was that of the currency, or the gold standard.

Major McKinley made another speech on Monday, which is notable as containing his first allusion, since his nomination, to the currency issue of the campaign. After his usual remarks about the boundless prosperity which a high tariff always brings, he said: "And, my countrymen, there is another thing the people are determined upon, and that is that a full day's work must be paid in a full dol ar." What is a "full dollar"? The silver men say a sixteen-to-one silver dollar is "full," and that a gold dollar is more than full. The Greenbackers always claimed that a greenback was a "full dollar." Suppose the St. Louis platform, instead of mentioning the gold standard, had compromised on the declaration: "Resolved, That we are in favor of a full dollar for a full day's work," what would have been the effect upon the country? Would the business interests have accepted that as a satisfactory assurance that, with McKinley as President, there would be no danger of the country's passing to the silver standard? There are intimations that Hanna has decided to have Major McKinley make no more speeches at present, and this is a wise precaution, for if the strongest sound-money utterance that he can make after nearly a week of cogitation is that he is in favor of a "full dollar," the sooner he stops talking, the better.

President Cleveland's deliverance against the free-coinage madness on Wednesday week seems to have been what the sound-money men in the Democratic party were waiting for, though they should not have needed to be thus taken by the ear, as it were, in order to make them do their duty. The most shameful feature of the canvass for the Chicago convention has been the cowardice and inactivity of the element in the party which believes in the gold standard, and which knows how disastrous the silver policy would prove, not only to the nation if it could be enacted into law, but to the Democratic organization if it should be made the platform next month. While the free-coinage men have everywhere been earnest and zealous, the sound-money men have done practically nothing to stem the tide. It is the simple truth to say that more work has been done by Democratic public men and journals for the right side in the South, where it required great courage to oppose the overwhelming sentiment, than in the North, where the men who advocate the gold standard have the people with them. Here, for example, is the great State of New York—which should have led off in the demand for a sound-currency plank at Chicago weeks ago—waiting until a few days before the national convention to define its position, and thus throwing away all the influence that it should have exerted before the delegates meet on the 7th of July.

The favor lent the free-coinage idea by the Democrats of Maine will surprise only those who are not familiar with the political history of that State. It is the one corner of the East where, during the last twenty years, the soft-money fallacy has secured a foothold. In 1878 the Greenbackers, or Nationals, carried one of the five congressional districts outright, and another with the help of the Democratic voters, while in each of the other three the Republican candidates received fewer votes than were divided between the Democrats and Nationals. In the September election of 1880 a fusion of the Opposition defeated the Republicans on the governorship and in two congressional districts, while Reed was saved by only 117 majority and one of his colleagues by but 467. Many people jumped to the conclusion that Garfield was going to lose the country two months later, but before November the Republicans of Maine had recovered their hold of that State, while Greenbackism elsewhere in the country cut but a small figure. The poison of cheap money, however, has never been entirely eliminated from the Maine system, and such a recurrence of the attack as is now seen must be regarded as liable to happen at any time.

The Democratic State convention in Florida illustrates the possibilities which were open if the sound-money members of the party throughout the country had made the fight they ought. This commonwealth is bordered by States that have been carried by the silverites, and Senator Call has always been a blatant advocate of free coinage. But the friends of sound money, under the leadership of the Jacksonville *Citizen*, insisted upon making a fight, and in last week's convention they defeated the free-coinage men on a square test, and rejected Call as a delegate to Chicago, a majority of the delegation chosen being for the maintenance of the gold standard. This ele-

ment in the South has been greatly hampered by the inaction of those Northern Democrats who believe in the gold standard, and their apparent readiness to let the silverites have their way at Chicago without a protest. If the Democrats of New York had served notice upon the country last March that free coinage was not to be thought of, and that a silver platform would destroy all chance of party success next fall, other Southern States than Florida would have "turned down" their Calls, and sent sound-money men to Chicago. The salvation of the party is not impossible even now, but it is infinitely harder than it need have been.

The death of Gen. Bristow deprives the country of a man of great intellectual force, who was also a moral hero. Most people have forgotten that he was the candidate of the better element of the Republican party for the Presidential nomination in 1876—the year when Hayes was nominated—and that he received 113 votes in the convention, the other leading candidates being Blaine, Conkling, and O. P. Morton. Most people have forgotten the circumstances that caused him to be chosen by the better element as their candidate. Gen. Bristow was Secretary of the Treasury under President Grant. The whiskey frauds, implicating some of the President's most intimate friends, including his private secretary, Gen. Babcock, were unearthed at this time, either at the instance of the Secretary or with his active coöperation. Gen. Grant's mental constitution was such that any attack upon his immediate friends became an attack upon himself, and Gen. Bristow was somewhat later forced to resign. The fact that he would not bend a hair's breadth in the prosecution of the Whiskey Ring to accommodate the interests of the private secretary or the prejudices of his chief, gave him a powerful hold on the consciences of his countrymen. Of course it was charged that he was doing it all for political effect, whereas it was with the greatest reluctance that he allowed his name to be used at Cincinnati, and with the conviction that he could not be nominated. He simply yielded to the necessity that there should be some rallying-point for the members of the party who could not follow Blaine, Conkling, or Morton.

There was an element of humor in the situation evolved last week by the Senate bond-issue investigating committee, which partly offsets the sense of humiliation felt by all readers of the proceedings. The committee, or at all events its free-coinage majority, came to New York determined to prove that the contract of 1895 was a dishonest and infamous collusion, and they apparently had little doubt of their ability to do so. Before the examination of witnesses had lasted two days the silver committeemen were in a sort of panic, and were refusing to ask any further questions of the witnesses, simply because the answers already made had upset so completely the committee's theory. What their now adjourned investigation has disclosed is exactly what all newspaper readers were perfectly aware of a year ago, that banking experts went to Washington in January, 1895, to warn the Government that a financial crisis was impending; that the crisis was near at hand by the close of January; that the Secretary of the Treasury sounded several New York bankers on the chances of a foreign bond issue, and received unfavorable answers; that eventually, when action could no longer be deferred, the leading international houses of New York were applied to for the purchase of gold, and that terms were at last agreed upon. Most of last week's extraordinary cross-examination of the witnesses seemed to be conducted on the theory that Mr. Belmont went to Washington in January to propose the purchase, by his foreign correspondents, of a new Government bond issue. Any answer remotely suggesting such a purpose was hailed with glee by the committee, and the keenness of their disappointment when they failed to prove the fact was evident.

Strange as it may seem, the inquiries of the committee virtually stopped with this. There were other lines of inquiry not only open to the committee, but properly involved in their investigation. Any one would suppose, for instance, that the following questions would necessarily have suggested themselves: Why did the syndicate of 1895 make so wide a difference in their bid for an ordinary bond and for a gold bond? What was involved in the syndicate's contract pledge to protect the Treasury? Why were the large European bankers reluctant to buy our bonds? Not one of these questions was put by the learned Senators, and when Mr. Morgan, at the close of a purposeless cross-questioning, asked permission to go into some of these further phases of the matter, he was shut off with a promptness which left no doubt as to what part of the truth the inquisitors preferred not to have on record. Over the remarkable suggestions and queries of the committee on points of foreign exchange and banking, we are glad to draw a veil of charity. It is possible that Senator Vest, Senator Jones, and Senator Walthall have obtained, during their official visit to New York, some much-needed information on these business questions. We wish we could hope that they would use it.

Those nails which Mr. Chamberlain was driving into the coffin of Cobdenism do not seem to have met the Scriptural requirement of being fastened in a sure place by a master of assemblies. In fact, nail-driving is notoriously an extra-hazardous occupation, and bruised thumbs and bad language are a frequent product. Mr. Chamberlain is an expert at concealing his own discomfiture, but even he cannot cover up the general condemnation in England of his "happy-thought" scheme for an Imperial Customs Union. The Congress of Chambers of Commerce, before which he first broached it, gave it the go-by almost contemptuously, and responsible statesmen in various colonies at once declared it wholly chimerical. The *Economist* makes a ghastly show of the whole thing, as it has before had occasion to do with some of Mr. Chamberlain's colonial grandiloquence. It points out, in the first place, the extraordinary absurdity of supposing that the way to reconcile two opposing views is to offer a third to which each of them is equally opposed. The protectionist colonies will never give in to free-trade England, or vice versa. Very well, says Chamberlain, let each abandon its principles and practice under the name of "a third course." This, says the *Economist*, with cruel disregard of a lucid intellect, is sheer and unintelligible stupidity. It then shows that Mr. Chamberlain, as usual, had gayly made his proposals without any idea of what the actual facts were, and produces the figures of colonial trade to prove that his scheme would be entirely unworkable even if it were conceivable that it might be adopted.

The literary as well as the political duello continues to flourish in France, if we may judge by the exchange of shots now in progress between Zola and Gaston Deschamps. The latter, in a review of 'Rome' in the *Temps*, gave some examples of the way in which the novelist had "documented" himself for his work. The documenting, in fact, had in some cases gone perilously near to slavish and literal copying of authorities, of which Deschamps furnished several delicious examples. Zola made a furious return-fire in *Figaro*, disdaining to mention his adversary by name, but calling him an "assassin," a "scratcher of paper," a "library rat," and other sweetly reasonable things. It is rather amusing to find him admitting, or, rather, boasting, after all this fanfaronade, that Deschamps was quite right in accusing him of plagiarism. There was much more of it in 'Rome' than had been charged. Of course he had read books about Rome, and of course he had been at no particular pains to see that phrases, passages, or perhaps whole pages were not transferred bodily to his novel. That was "the right of a novelist." As for those vermin of critics, when they had done the work and won the fame that he had, it would be time for them to open their heads. Deschamps, in his turn, argues that there are rights of critics as well as authors, quotes from a private letter of Zola's, on another occasion, fulsomely praising the critic whom he now reviles, and serves notice that the great man will hear from him further in this matter.

THE REPUBLICAN NOMINEE.

McKINLEY'S nomination has been for some months a foregone conclusion, and he is, in our opinion, the proper nominee for a party in the condition of the Republican party—bereft of true leaders, without any cause or idea in its keeping, and without settled views on finance. He is exactly fitted for the place he has got. The party has been searching for him ever since Blaine's death. There has not been a time since 1861 when the country so much needed a man of strong character and clear views as this year. In 1860 it got a man of clear views, because its own views were clear. Lincoln led to victory a party which, as Cromwell said of his russet-coated captains, "knew what it wanted, and loved what it knew." McKinley is going to lead a party which does not know what it wants, except money, and holds no clear views on anything, human or divine. McKinley's absence of settled convictions about leading questions of the day, and his want of clear knowledge of any subject, make him emphatically the round man in the round hole. If the party had nominated anybody else, it would have made a great blunder. Even Reed would have been a mistake, for, if a trimmer, he is not muddle-headed.

The alarm of the country over the virtual nomination of McKinley in advance of the convention has forced a large number of silver men to turn gold men and put a gold plank in the platform. So far so good. It saves us, for the present at least, from the execution of McKinley's plan of turning all the silver products of the country into coin and making them legal tender. But that is about all it does. It makes it pretty certain that we shall not deliberately get down on the silver basis. If we ever reach that, it will be by accident and by some especial display of weakness on McKinley's part. But should he be elected, as he probably will be (for the Democrats are making an awful show of themselves), there are certain dangers and risks to be guarded against and looked out for, which we beg to submit in their order.

What will be done about the currency will depend on the Congress to be elected next November, about the probable composition of which no one knows anything. There will be no restraint on it except the platform adopted last week, and what this will amount to no one can tell. McKinley will be no restraint, because he is virtually pledged to sign anything that Congress sends him. Avowing, as he does, that the opinions of the party on all subjects are virtually his, there is no reason why he should not keep this pledge. Secondly, he will have been elected, among other things, or rather before all things, as the champion of the tariff, or a representative of the protected interests, and to deliver the country from the horrors of the Wilson tariff. To get a new tariff passed, therefore, either in March or in December, will be his first duty. How will he do it? The Senate is filled to a majority with enraged silver men, who feel that he and the party have cheated them, and that silver is as much entitled to protection as wool or iron. In what way can they be induced to pass a tariff? In one way only—by "doing something for silver." There are various things one can "do" for silver without openly violating the platform. One is buying it, which McKinley has steadily advocated. We do not think this way will be adopted. But in order to pass a tariff, some way will have to be found. A large body of the public want silver, and almost worship it. Mr. Teller's shedding tears over it in the convention shows what a place the metal has found in the hearts of the people. Silver is, we think, the first raw metal that has ever been wept over. Iron is twice as patriotic and has done five hundred times as much for civilization, but it has never drawn tears, in the pig state. It has to be turned into a weapon, like a sword or halbert, in order to move strong men.

McKinley's character is so vague, and so little forecast of what he is likely to do can be got either from his career or from his language, that a good deal of uncertainty must mark the first year or two of his administration, at a period when certainty is of priceless value. We must not overlook the fact—the experience of the human race forbids us—that he has a certain number of unpaid creditors—not legal creditors, it is true, but still creditors whose claims on him it is difficult for any ordinary man to resist who has many favors to bestow. Our sole guarantee that they will not be improperly rewarded lies in McKinley's private character, which is, we believe, very good; but we must remember that, in dealing with them, one virtue will have to contend with another—gratitude with the sense of public duty. The experiment of putting an insolvent man at the head of the government is one never before, we believe, tried in a constitutional state, and it will be watched with interest.

Nothing marks more clearly than McKinley's nomination the mistake of turning nominating conventions into vast excited crowds, doing their work under the eyes of a larger crowd, more excited still. There can be little doubt that the gold in the platform was forced on the convention by the business men, and that, had the convention been a deliberative body, McKinley's unfitness to stand on any such platform would have been recognized. But the pledges given by the delegates before they ever met or compared notes, made it impossible to choose any other. About the platform they were free, but about the candidate they were tied up, so that they were compelled to put him astride a body of doctrine with which he has never been in thorough sympathy. But the formal recognition of the doctrine by the party at least insures discussion, and encourages us to hope that there will be no more difficulty in killing the silver heresy through the country by free debate than there has been in getting such a collection of politicians as met at St. Louis to declare for the gold standard. What is debauching and will continue to debauch the people is the legislation to enable individuals to make money, which goes by the name of "protection to native industry." Every man who sees this wants his share.

THE ST. LOUIS PLATFORM.

APPROVAL of the gold-standard plank adopted by the Republican national convention must not be taken as approval of the remainder of the platform, or as condonation of it. We are aware that platform deliverances on subjects not of vital interest are considered by the public very much as stage-thunder, intended to carry on the movement of the play, and therefore not worthy of much attention even if it is bad *per se*. The tribe who make their living out of politics take advantage of this indifference to side issues, to weave into the platform all sorts of fraudulent schemes, so that they can go before Congress at a future time and make claims upon the public confidence on the ground that they have the authority of the national platform, the broadest mandate of the party, for doing so. Thus platforms are constructed in log-rolling fashion like river-and-harbor bills, so that, apart from the chief and vital issue or issues, there may be a collection of the rottenest material that the country affords. We think that the St. Louis platform, aside from the gold-standard plank, answers this description.

The "arraignment" paragraph is usually placed at the beginning, and is made very hot for the opposing party. As a general thing the opposing party deserves some buffeting. The Democratic party deserves a good deal, but mostly of a different kind from what it receives in the bill of particulars. Among other accusations laid at its door is this:

> "In administrative management it has ruthlessly sacrificed indispensable revenue, entailed an unceasing deficit, eked out ordinary current expenses with borrowed money, piled up the public debt by $262,000,000 in time of peace, forced an adverse balance of trade, kept a perpetual menace hanging over the redemption fund, *pawned American credit to alien syndicates*, and reversed all the measures and results of successful Republican rule."

We shall not go back to the causes of the "unceasing deficit" of revenue, although it would be easy to find them in the unimpeachable testimony of Charles Foster, Secretary of the Treasury under President Harrison. Let that pass in order to reach the "pawning of American credit to alien syndicates." What is meant by that? It means that the Administration now in power is blamable for selling bonds to maintain the public credit. It admits of no other construction. Is any particular stress laid on the word "alien"? If bonds are to be sold at all, they are to be sold at

the best price offered. The best price can be obtained only in the widest market. Shut out the foreign bids and you make a home monopoly—the very charge that produces the greatest outcry even when the charge is false. Any Secretary of the Treasury who should limit bids to American buyers—any one who should advertise "no foreigners need apply"—would be impeached by Congress and universally execrated. Therefore the gravamen of the arraignment is that the present Administration is censurable for selling bonds to maintain the gold standard.

No matter how the deficit came about, this is the real crime. How does this sound, how does this look, beside a plank affirming that the existing gold standard must be maintained? It looks as though the arraignment plank and the gold-standard plank had been drafted by two different sets of hands, or sub-committees, and slapped together without any comparison of views either before or after the drafting, and that the arraignment set did not know what they were talking about. For, as surely as the sun rises, the McKinley Administration will have to sell bonds to redeem the promises of its own platform if it is confronted by the same conditions as those which have four times confronted the Cleveland Administration. We think that it will be confronted by such conditions, and that the result will be due to the extravagant and reckless appropriations made by the terrible Congress that has just adjourned.

There is so much else that is bad in this platform that we hardly know where to put our finger first. Foreign policy occupied a large share of the committee's attention, and while this part of it is not so bad as might have been expected, considering the stampede which Mr. Cleveland produced among Republican Congressmen by his Venezuelan message, it is essentially a Jingo production, offensive and undignified in tone, betraying the half-grown, loud-talking, self-asserting frame of mind, far removed from gentlemanly and civilized deportment and from the reserve which accompanies genuine courage and real strength. The slime of Henry Cabot Lodge is over it all. Our foreign policy, it says, should be firm, vigorous, and dignified, and for this reason we ought to have a great many expensive things, such as a Nicaragua Canal, a large navy, the Danish Islands, to be acquired by purchase, and "a much-needed naval station in the West Indies." All of these things, or any of them, will hasten the time when McKinley, if elected, will have to sell bonds to meet current expenses and maintain the gold standard. All or any of them will help to get us into foreign trouble which the whole American people, except a few speculators and contractors, are most deeply interested in avoiding. The Danish Islands are a misfortune to any country that possesses them. They were rejected by us after investigation when Mr. Seward was Secretary of State. "Much-needed naval station in the West Indies." That also was rejected by us after investigation when Gen. Grant was President. It now reappears in the St. Louis platform, for no better purpose than to let Mr. Lodge out of the bad scrape he fell into when he tried to out-Jingo President Cleveland and "got left."

As for the protective plank, it leaves McKinley looking almost as much of a misfit candidate as does the currency plank. "We are not pledged to any particular schedules." That is to say, do not fear, good people, that we shall break our leg a second time on the McKinley tariff. The platform is for a "reasonable application" of the protective principle; the awful inference lies on the surface that there have been unreasonable applications of it. "The country demands a right settlement, and then it wants rest." Business men say they want rest immediately, and dread nothing more than to be harried another four years by tariff agitation. Finally, the platform explicitly throws over the sugar bounty, which was a great and essential feature of the McKinley tariff. In other words, it is for McKinley, but not for McKinleyism.

THE SILVERITE SECESSION.

Senator Teller announced to the committee on resolutions at St. Louis, when his free-coinage plank was rejected, that he could not support a candidate standing on a gold platform. He is quoted as saying that the Republican party had become "the slave of Wall Street and Lombard Street," and that it was a matter of conscience with him to abandon it. This kind of talk seems to have been taken in good part by Senator Lodge, although nothing could have been more insulting except a charge that the majority of the committee and of the delegates had been bought with money. Lodge is reported to have replied, in a feeling manner, that he had the utmost respect for Teller, who had just described him and his associates on the committee as slaves of English bankers. Then the representatives of Utah, Idaho, Montana, and Nevada endorsed and repeated what Teller had said—in other words, took themselves out of the party. The Californian on the committee did not go so far. He contented himself with saying that his State would be lost to the Republicans by 40,000 majority, which is probably a gross exaggeration.

Next to the adoption of the gold-standard platform, the secession of the silverites is the best thing that has happened since the repeal of the Sherman act in 1893. It is beneficial in a number of ways. It accentuates the fight on the money question, makes the division of public sentiment deeper, prevents future straddling, and, last but not least, it probably holds the Senate against the McKinley tariff fanatics. At all events, it relegates the tariff to the second place in the campaign, and furnishes opportunity for a similar division and secession at Chicago in case a free-coinage platform is adopted there. With a free-coinage platform it would hardly be worth while for the Democrats in the East to nominate electoral tickets. They might better follow the example of Teller, Dubois, and Cannon, and abstain from further proceedings in the convention after the platform is adopted.

All signs point to the sharpest possible division on the silver issue—so sharp that the personality of McKinley will be mainly lost sight of. This will be a desirable feature of the campaign, in the East at all events, since his name inspires no enthusiasm here, even among Republicans. Anything which serves to put him in the background will be an advantage to the ticket, which will depend for success upon votes that would never be given to him except as an alternative to the silver standard and business chaos resulting therefrom. What the future may bring us tariff-wise cannot now be predicted, but the immediate danger is a financial crisis of the first magnitude growing out of a change in the standard of value. In comparison with this the tariff question, although unsettled, is relatively small. Nobody is going to change his opinions on this subject merely because circumstances have compelled him to subordinate this issue to another one for the present. Nor will the fight be given up for that reason.

How much the secession of Teller and his faction will amount to in electoral votes cannot be known until after the two platforms and the two tickets are announced. It is our belief that no Northern State east of the Mississippi River will be found in the free-coinage column in November, and that of the States west of that boundary the party favoring the gold standard has the best prospects in Kansas, Nebraska, the two Dakotas, and Wyoming. Some doubts have been expressed as to Iowa, but the doubters have not made account of the sound-money Democrats of that State, who constituted more than one-third of the recent State convention. These men have already begun to organize against free silver, like their friends in Chicago, and they may be depended on to fight. There will be no whipping-in after the convention, because the business interests of these men are at stake. They have no option, because they are fighting for their bread and butter.

In Indiana the contest will be sharp, but we have every confidence that the gold standard will win. The same result will follow in Michigan, although the Republicans there have been under bad leadership. In that State the line of division runs as sharply through the Democratic as through the Republican ranks. In the South we find many encouraging signs. Maryland, Delaware, Kentucky, and West Virginia are almost certain to be ranged against free coinage, while the chances of defeating Bland in Missouri and Harris

in Tennessee are fairly good. It may turn out that the Republican majority in the next Congress will not be as large as it is in the present one, but that will be no misfortune to the party. The shocking blunders in the present Congress were due mainly to the unwieldy strength of the party. If they had had only twenty or thirty majority, Speaker Reed would not have lost control of them. He would have been able, in all probability, to keep them from passing the extravagant appropriation bills which constitute the present menace to the Treasury reserve. Hence the Republicans can lose some of their top-heaviness in Congress with advantage to themselves.

Whether the Teller secessionists go to the Democrats or to the Populists, or set up a party of their own, makes little difference in the long run, though the probability is that all the silverite factions will come together eventually. Meanwhile they have nominated Teller for President, and have put forth an insidious and deceptive address to the people which it will probably be necessary to answer a good many times before the end of the campaign. Almost every line of it is either an unsupported assertion or a manifest falsehood. Take this one as a sample:

> "The country cannot much longer exist free and independent against all the rest of the world, nor can its people be free in the noblest sense of the term, if the United States, a debtor nation, shall follow a policy dictated by creditor nations."

What is meant by existing free and independent *against* all the rest of the world? The phrase has a quasi-belligerent ring. Ever since the close of the Revolutionary war we have existed free from and independent of other nations, and we have been free and independent *against* them whenever we have been at war with them, which has been only five years out of one hundred and six. These facts show that we can be free and independent of them or against them as the case may be, although we have been a debtor nation all the time and have found it profitable to ourselves to be so. There is no external force compelling us to be a debtor nation. Debt is incurred by borrowing money, and there is no law compelling men to borrow. They borrow when they find it advantageous to do so if they can find lenders. The most unfortunate borrowers are those who cannot find lenders, and the most unfortunate lenders are those whose borrowers cannot pay. Ability to pay means generally that the borrower has made a profit, or at all events that he has not made a loss. In the jargon of the Populist camp, it is always the borrower who is suffering because he cannot pay. He is the object of commiseration, whereas the one to be really pitied is the lender. It is his money that has "gone up the spout." The borrower has had the use of it. He may have consumed it or lost it in bad speculations, but evidently the lender is the real sufferer if the borrower cannot pay. If he can pay, however, that fact shows that the loan has been a mutual advantage, which is a gain to the world.

But the bolters tell us that the people "cannot be free in the noblest sense of the term if the United States, a debtor nation, shall follow a policy *dictated* by creditor nations." Do they mean that foreigners are dictating our policy without our knowing it? If so, the wrong term has been used, because dictation implies knowledge on the part of dictator and dictatee. If our policy is framed for us abroad without our knowledge, then the word deception should be used in place of dictation. No evidence is offered to show that foreigners are using either deception or dictation as to our currency system. As a matter of fact they are concerned only with their own. We have tried three times to get them to change their system. They have never tried once to induce us to change ours. It is evident that in the single sentence quoted from the bolters' address there are four or five falsehoods or suggestions of falsehoods—about one to each line. We judge from a cursory examination that the proportion of lies to truth in the whole address is not less than 16 to 1.

THAT "INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENT."

In this country nothing in politics comes suddenly. Almost all waves of popular feeling are prepared or stimulated by persons who are more knowing than the masses. This was distinctly true of the Jingo movement, for instance. For two years a band of politicians kept the air full of threatenings against England, and abuse of Cleveland, in the interest of what was called a "more vigorous foreign policy." As time rolled on, the talk grew fiercer. The flag was hoisted on all the schoolhouses as a measure of defiance. The children were drilled, and there finally arose a call for war, not with England, but with anybody, as a means of moral discipline. If we did not go to war with somebody, the Jingoes said, there was no knowing what would become of our character. "Patriotism" ceased to have any civic meaning, to connote love of law, or order, or integrity, or good government. It meant simply for awhile a desire to fight somebody, or admiration for people who were going to fight. With the Venezuela outburst, Jingoism totally collapsed. After "standing behind Cleveland" a few minutes, the Jingoes all dispersed to their homes, and became utterly peaceable, showing that if agitators only kept quiet, the people had no thought of fighting anybody.

Very much the same thing has happened with regard to the silver agitation, except that it has had a little more assistance from events. The panic of 1873 combined with the fall of silver to start it, but its absurdities, in our belief, would have killed it long ago had it not been nourished by the body of much more instructed men known as "bimetallists." The ignorant masses have constantly heard from these people, during the last twenty years, that although the extreme view of the silverites was idle, there was something behind it; that the scarcity of gold had lowered prices; that a double standard composed of both silver and gold was possible, through international agreement; that the hated England was the main obstacle to this agreement, and that our business was to force her into it. This talk of professors and "philosophers" has kept this pest of the modern world alive for a quarter of a century, and has caused the holding of three absurd conferences, in which we were almost the only members who really desired success. The others attended and debated to humor us. In not one of them did there appear to be the smallest hope that ultimate agreement could be reached, but the preaching at home continued. The hope was constantly held out, and is held out to-day, that another conference will be held, when we shall get what we want. This passion for, and promise of, a conference keeps the ignorant masses of the South and West in constant expectation and constant irritation. What they are waiting for is not a conference to see whether a double standard would be a good thing, but a conference that will end in bringing it about. They think England is the main obstacle and they want to fight her. This was actually the explanation Lodge gave, a few months ago, in a letter to a friend in England, of the excitement over Venezuela.

The latest contributor to this literature of mischief is Mr. W. C. Whitney. He printed a letter in Monday's press full of wise reasoning as to the danger and folly of free coinage just now. But, as usual, he assured the silverites that their cause was good and its triumph was coming:

> "There has never been a time when the prospects of international action favorable to the joint standard were at all as promising as at the present moment. But an ill-advised, unsuccessful attempt here would discredit the cause the world over. What is the situation as regards this? From the discussion of the last twenty years, it has come to pass that among the persons in Europe who are trained, recognized scientists upon monetary and economic questions, scarcely one is not at the present moment advocating the desirability of the joint standard as the real solution of the monetary difficulties of the world. This includes every professor engaged in teaching or lecturing on these subjects in the universities of Great Britain. They are agreed upon the desirability of it, and that it is entirely practicable if established and maintained by agreement of the principal commercial nations."

This is the kind of talk which, coming from such quarters, keeps the silver movement alive in this country, and keeps, or will keep us for some time to come in constant danger of its success. We deny totally the assertion that in Europe among "trained, recognized scientists upon monetary and economic questions there is scarcely one who is not at this moment advocating the desirability of a joint stan-

dard as the real solution of the monetary difficulties of the world." The direct contrary of this is nearer the truth. If Mr. Whitney does not wish to be accused of deceiving his countrymen, he will give them the names of these persons and samples of what they say. He is simply repeating here an absurd statement of Mr. Balfour's, who is a fair specimen himself of the "philosophers" who want a double standard. There is hardly one recognized authority in England on financial questions who desires or believes in the possibility of a double standard, or would think for one moment of doing business in it if it were established. There are professors who preach it, but, like our "ethical" professors here, few of those who have the English pound sterling in their keeping pay any attention to them. But give us their names, Mr. Whitney, and the names of their universities. Nothing does more to bring about this immense silver delusion, with its disastrous consequences, and to make men like McKinley the leaders of the American people, than this sort of talk. As long as the famous "international agreement," with the foreign "scientists" behind it, is kept hanging before the eyes of the public as a strong probability, we shall never have business peace or stability.

One by one the arguments of the bimetallists have deserted them. The earliest one, that the scarcity of gold had lowered prices, has gone, partly because so many causes are at work to cheapen modern commodities that it is impossible to connect it by proof with any one; partly because the supply of gold has within a few years increased enormously and is still increasing. The second one, that the gold standard was in any country causing scarcity of money to people who had collateral or credit to borrow on, has perished under the smiles of real business men. The third one, that, absurd or not, the nations are going to agree to give silver or any other commodity an arbitrary price in a conference which England is to attend "on her knees," is kept afloat in default of anything better. It is the sole support to-day of the silver movement. It is the expectation or hope of this which keeps the agitation alive among the masses, as well as among rational bimetallists. Concerning fanatics of the Teller type, or ignorant men of the "Coin" school, we have nothing to say. "Non ragioniam di lor, ma guarda e passa." We appeal to sensible and patriotic bimetallists of the community to try silence for a few years. Their cause is a lost cause, like that of the Stuarts or of the Confederacy. It may be well to have fought in it, but it is better now to forget it. The remembrance does nothing but turn away the minds of their countrymen from frugality and industry, as the true sources of wealth, and fill their hearts with bitterness against the great managers of money at home and abroad, to whom civilization in every country is so much indebted, and to whom, whatever their faults may be, it is of even more importance than to any one else that the standard of value should be kept as far as possible steady, that credit should be kept intact, and that all workers of every nation should, about money as about other things, be clothed and in their right mind.

THE TORY COLLAPSE.

The breakdown of the English Ministry on the Education bill, in spite of the largeness of their majority, is doubtless due in part to the public disappointment. Although their majority in the House, owing to small majorities in various counties and boroughs, was in the beginning 150 (now 146), it was in reality, if the House fully represented the voting population, only 14. The knowledge that it has nearly half the public behind it has, therefore, made the Liberal Opposition much fiercer and more truculent than its strength in Parliament appeared to warrant. It has been so strenuous on the Education bill that the Government has abandoned it with a somewhat ludicrous promise that it will go to work at it again next year.

But the trouble goes further back than the Education bill. The Ministry came in with a great flourish of trumpets, especially about foreign affairs. Almost immediately after it took office occurred the Armenian fiasco. Nothing has occurred in English history more humiliating or more shocking to the moral and religious public, especially to the Nonconformists, than Lord Salisbury's standing by idly and allowing the massacres to go on in Armenia, and then pretending that he had not provided for this contingency in making the Berlin treaty, and that the cession of Cyprus was not meant as a pledge that this sort of thing should not happen again. He was easily convicted of evasion out of the speeches he made when he came back with Disraeli, as well as out of the treaty itself. He has cut an equally lamentable figure in the Egyptian matter. After efforts to conceal from the House of Commons what the advance in the Sudan was for, it has crept out, through the Italian Green Book, that it was intended in its inception to help the Italians in Abyssinia, that Salisbury's dispatches were almost dictated at Rome, and that the story of Dervish restlessness was a pure invention.

So much as regards foreign policy. At home the Ministry were to avoid the Liberal folly in attempting great constitutional changes, such as home rule for Ireland and the reform of the House of Lords, and confine themselves to domestic reform in the interests of the poor and the old. There is no sign of any measure of this kind. Mr. Chamberlain, who was the leading apostle of this sort of thing, seems to have withdrawn his attention from it wholly, and is occupying himself in building up an Imperial Zollverein, amid the jeers and laughter of his old associates. Only two capital bits of legislation have been produced after a whole autumn and winter of reflection and preparation. Both are what is called class legislation. One is for the benefit of the impoverished landholders, the other for the benefit of the Anglican clergy. The first relieves the land from $7,500,000 of taxes by which landlords, not farmers, would profit. The other not only saves the church schools from extinction, but alters the whole school system as settled, after forty years of agitation, by Mr. W. E. Forster in 1870. It abolishes the elected school boards, and gives the government of the schools to the county councils. It removes the limit of four dollars and a half a child, given as aid by the Government to every denominational school, and, worse than all, reintroduces religious instruction into the schools on the demand of the parents, and allows it to be given by the clergyman of their choice.

The importance of this is that Dissenters are satisfied with the public schools. Among them denominational schools can hardly be said to exist. Denominational schools are, as a rule, Church or Roman Catholic schools. It is these which have mainly profited by the Government money. But as time has gone on, and as their supporters have become impoverished, the subscriptions to them have diminished, and the ability to profit by the Government aid by producing pupils, has diminished with it. They were more and more threatened with extinction when the Conservatives returned to power. The first act of the new Ministry, as we see, was not to improve the public schools, but to raise the importance of the denominational schools and discredit all others. This is the measure which the Liberals in Parliament have been opposing tooth and nail. Now that Irish home rule is out of the way, there can hardly be a doubt that the great body of the Liberal party in the country is again behind them. It is most likely that the Land bill will share the fate of the Education bill.

But there is more still. It is now acknowledged, or at least not denied, that Mr. Balfour's leadership of the House has been extremely bad. In fact, we can recall no instance when any one in such a position, with a majority of 150 behind him, has been compelled to abandon important legislation in his first session. This alone would be a confession of failure. But it has been long foreseen. Mr. Balfour's rise into the front rank during the Irish crisis was one of the strange episodes of that remarkable period. He was one of the four young men of fortune and fashion who, in earlier days, used to go down to the House mainly to "guy" Gladstone. He was not much known otherwise. His assumption of the Irish Secretaryship excited general surprise. But he filled it in a way that was

at that time immensely gratifying to London society. His immediate resort to coercion delighted the clubs. His indifference to the vulgar Irish abuse delighted the drawing-rooms. He became a hero in society, as "the brave Mr. Balfour." His oratory, halting at first, improved greatly, and he locked the Irish up, like a colonel administering martial law, so resolutely that he came out of the home-rule fight with all the honors there were for a Conservative. After Gladstone's victory in 1892, he was in opposition, resting, so to speak, on his laurels. But his character as well as capacity seems to have been strangely misconceived. He is really a charming metaphysical philosopher, and his conversion into an administrator of perturbed provinces, a political economist, and the leader of a stormy assembly at a great crisis in the world's affairs, has probably astonished him as much as anybody. Both he and Mr. Chamberlain are finding out that to be a statesman something more is necessary than to be a Liberal Unionist.

WHY ITALY IS NOT RICH.

ROME, June 10, 1896.

IT is a curious fact that while, in modern times, Italy has become to a certain extent synonymous with poverty, it was in ancient times regarded, as it is in fact, potentially the richest country in Europe. No other part of Europe presents such varied and abundant resources for development, and no other makes such slight demands on the individual for existence. Why, under such circumstances, the people and the Government alike should be at the foot of the list of nations enjoying the privilege of controlling their own fortunes, must seem to the outsider a problem of difficult solution. I will try, in a superficial way, to show why this is so.

Firstly, the Government is poor because it is prodigal and dishonest, not in its relations with its creditors, but in those with its factors. In gathering its income, the dishonesty of its functionaries is the cause of the taxation falling oppressively on the classes which a wise statesmanship would protect and make more prosperous, leaving the minimum of burthen on those who are capable of bearing the maximum. Italy is governed in the interest of the wealthy classes—a fact which has the result, on one side, of diminishing responsibility and enterprise in those who ought to lead in the latter and feel the fullest weight of the former, and on the other of discouraging thrift in those who ought to be encouraged in economy. The collection of taxes in the more abundant springs is directed by favoritism, by official prescription, and by bribery. An acquaintance who has large interests in Tuscany, in mines and real estate, said to me that he paid only the quarter of the tax which the law required, but added that he would willingly pay the whole if the law would allow him to import the artificial fertilizers free of duty. Another bought a house and farm, including the furniture of the former, and, as the impost on house and land transfer is heavy, and that on furniture is light, the price of the house and farm was put at a fraction of the value, and that of the furniture swelled to fill the total to the amount actually paid. There is no income tax in the sense in which that term is used in England and the United States, but a so-called professional income tax, which was, by the old law, fixed at seventeen per cent. on half the estimated income, and which is somewhat increased by the new law of Sonnino, in which there are variations according to the sources of the income. But in the *assessment* of the income, political and politico-personal influence passes for so much that, to use the words of a functionary to myself, if one has influence in the Government it is possible to have the assessment made at a small fraction of the real income. Now as the small incomes are not easy to disguise, and their possessors have no influence in official regions, it follows that the owners of them cannot escape their taxes, but the larger incomes are so easily disguised that they pay only on a fraction. Thus, one of the most prominent physicians of Rome, whose income is estimated at from one hundred to one hundred and fifty thousand francs, is known to pay on one of 7,000, and I am told of a Deputy whose income is certainly 100,000 a year, but who pays on 200 a month. Wherever concealment is possible this is the case, more or less, and, the income of the state being of necessity fixed, it follows that the poorer citizens pay the heaviest taxes in proportion. The secondary consequence is the general contempt of the law, and the universal evasion of it when possible.

The Government is again impoverished in the expenditure, and especially in that on public works. It is enough to see how the railways are built to form an idea of the openings for rascality and fraud. They are not built by contract, but on estimate. A building company estimates that a certain line will cost a certain sum, and receives the job, which is always indeed a "job." The Government guarantees a certain income per kilometre, and the constructor makes the road as long as possible; but when the grant (which is made in bonds of the state) for the amount authorized is exhausted, the constructor coolly tells the Ministry that the road must stop there unless the Ministry makes another grant, which is of course done, and the invariable result is that the original estimate is nearly, or quite, or even more than, doubled, with the consequence that none of the roads, as they are made, ever pay their expenses and interest on their cost of construction. More than that, they are so burdened with deadheads that it is estimated that only 40 per cent. of the passengers they carry pay full fare, the remaining 60 per cent. paying from nothing up to 75 per cent. of the fare. Deputies and Senators travel free everywhere in the kingdom, but, as the state pays a block sum for their privilege, it is not a dead loss, though as every Deputy who travels insists on having a whole compartment for himself, the road becomes anything but a profitable one. Worse than this: while writing this letter I note, in the proceedings of the Chamber of Deputies, the following statement made by a reforming Deputy:

"I remember to have seen in an express train a child of eight years, son of a high employee, travel alone in a compartment of eight places. Another case: these gentlemen, the employees, are not content with filling the carriages of the Italian Society, but fill even those that come from abroad for the use of international travellers. The other day a gentleman who wanted to go from Rome to Vienna could not take a seat in the car reserved for the international service to which he had a right, because, in a compartment of eight places, a high railway employee had installed himself comfortably. It was useless to appeal to the courtesy of the station master at Rome; it seems that he was helpless against his superior."

Every employee of both the great systems of railway has the right to make three journeys a year on each one, where he likes, and with his family, and the consequence is that some of them ruin themselves taking long railway journeys for which they have not the money to pay the expenses. And they are 60,000, with as many more pensioned off who have the same privilege; and, as all travellers know, the railway fare is the smallest part of the expense of a journey.

Another disastrous interference with the riches of the state is the system of taxing all business enterprises, after they have been established three years, at rates which in some cases swamp the profits, while idle capital, simply paying interest, escapes. A general income tax, equalizing all these interests in the incidence, would prevent all this injustice, but the influence of the personages who profit by the present system prevails to hinder it. Add to all these causes for the deficiency of income and excess of outgo the continual and all-pervading evasion of all forms of impost, and the very general feeling that it is a laudable thing to cheat the Government or to rob it, and it is clear that the state has a hard time of it to attain a balance of the budget, and of course the state is poor.

The population cannot be said to be poor, and on this subject there are great delusions abroad; but it is not as rich as it might be, and, in fact, in comparison with France and England, it may be said to be poor. But Lombardy, Piedmont, and parts of Tuscany compare well with other parts of Europe, even with France, with which the comparison would be most just. As a whole, Italy is getting rich even faster in proportion to the already acquired wealth than is France, the annual increase of total national wealth being estimated at a milliard of francs a year, or 2 per cent of the total. But it is impossible not to admit that Italy is not profiting by her natural facilities for enriching herself, except in parts of the extreme north, and the reason is simple—the people have not, as a rule, the ambition of getting rich. The Italian has the reputation of being lazy, and all who know the people know that it is quite the contrary. They are "indolent," which is another thing. The word is Italian, and has a correct Italian meaning, which is that one follows his "*indole*," or natural bent. Everybody who has had to deal with Italian laborers knows that they are among the best to be found, and, when they please to work, they require less supervision than most others. But, let a holiday come, a great *festa* of the people or the Church, and you could no more get them to lose the enjoyment of it for wages than you could get them to do a thing they had never been trained to. As a rule, the Italian, even of the lower classes, does not aspire to accumulate means; if he does, it is limited to the acquisition of a cabin and a piece of ground for a garden. The ambition to become rich and to accumulate for the sake of accumulation, which is the spring of what is called national prosperity, is wanting. There is a degree of contentment and *bonhomie*, under a condition approaching privation, which is remarkable, and the evident happiness of the lowest stratum of society, especially in the southern part of the peninsula, might well be envied by the people of more prosperous countries. No doubt this has a very important bearing on the question, Why is the Italian poor? and, in this direction, answers it satisfactorily, and explains why the nation, as a whole, is less progressive materially than, for instance, France, where all the

lower classes are affected by the tendency to accumulate. This condition, is, however, yielding to the general human tendency, and the indication that the habit of saving is growing is in the fact that the accumulation of the sums in the postal savings-banks has reached the amount of fifteen hundred millions of lire ($300,000,000).

But there the classes join on a dead level of apathy. Beyond the most elementary accumulation the enterprise of the nation does not aspire. Except in the north, and especially about Milan, there is almost no disposition to embark in undertakings of a speculative nature, and this is a general reason why Italy lags behind the other European nations in the increase of prosperity. Whatever the cause of this aversion to investing money in new operations—whether apathy, indifference to increase of fortune, or distrust of the result—the fact is that the reluctance to embark in commercial or industrial affairs is phenomenal, and most of the serious undertakings in the country are carried on with foreign capital, though the accumulation in Italy is sufficient for all that needs to be done. This appears, in looking at it from the outside and without the study of occult motives, like an excessive timidity in business affairs, but it is most likely simple apathy. Thus we may see that in the production of wine, which ought to be the specialty of Italy—climate, soil, and general condition offering the peninsula a supremacy in it, both as to the variety and the treatment of the wines—in general there is a complete indifference as to quality or kind, and for many years the wine-growers were satisfied to produce the crudest material for treatment in France and Germany, while they could produce at home every variety of wine, from the lightest product of the high mountain region to the strongest wines known, in Sicily. It is true that, here and there, individuals are awaking to the advantages of home ripening of wines, but the greater part by far of the exportation is still due to the wine-makers of other countries, who ask for what may be considered as the raw material of the trade.

The fruit market is in the same condition. The climate and soil of the peninsula would, among all European countries, enable it to produce the greatest variety of fruits, both as to species and quality, and in a few cases, as if nature had tried to show the people the way, the fruits are of the finest quality. The peach, under cultivation, is equal to the best, but to find a choice variety, carefully and intelligently selected as in France or America, and put on the market with common attention to condition, is almost unknown. If one suggests to an Italian any such source of emolument, the general reply is, "Very good, but get us English capital and we will see." The same thing appears in the commonest kinds of business. It is not unknown to shoppers in Rome that a shopman will tell his customer that he has not an article, to avoid the trouble of hunting it out in his stock. The Germans and the Jews are coming largely into trade in Italy, and their ways are driving the old fashioned Italians into desperation, and leaving them in many cases out of competition.

After all, though to the foreigner who comes into Italy for the first time it seems as if progress had stopped, and the country was content to be poor, one who has been here for thirty years can see that there is life, and, like Galileo, can say, "Eppur si muove." X.

MADAME DE CHASTENAY.—II.

PARIS, June 5, 1896.

WE left Mlle. de Chastenay conversing freely with Gen. Bonaparte at Châtillon, and receiving the confidences of the man who was soon to be the master of the world, playing with him at what is called in France the "petits jeux" (forfeits), and, in consequence of a *gage touché*, seeing a moment at her feet the man who afterwards saw Europe at his feet. Bonaparte left with Marmont; he did not go to Brittany. Mlle. de Chastenay learned that he had returned to Paris. "I don't pretend," she says, "to write history. I only know that there was in Paris a commotion; that Gen. Bonaparte, who was enrolled on the side of the Convention, or of its majority, and of the Directory which was soon to be created, defended the Tuileries and used his artillery, and that a decided victory consolidated a power which the nature of things then imposed." The allusion is to the thirteenth Vendémiaire, the day of the defeat of the royalist sections by the troops of the Convention commanded by Bonaparte.

Times had become hard, and the Chastenays were almost in want. The assignats, the paper money of the day, had lost all their value. "Their nominal value was such that if you wanted four gold louis, you would have to give twenty-five thousand francs in assignats." The Chastenays had to go almost without bread, and had to sell from time to time a watch or a jewel to get a little flour, which they baked themselves. Mlle. de Chastenay was sometimes in Burgundy with her father and sometimes in Paris. She has curious notes on life in Paris at that period:

"People lived much concentrated in quarters, for want of carriages. It was perhaps this cause which constituted the Faubourg St.-Germain one of the representatives of the old régime. The Faubourg Saint-Honoré remained more sociable, and ended by becoming, in some respects, a set; and the Chaussée d'Antin became peopled with the new rich. It was there that were invented the Greek costumes and the antique furniture; and this innovation, shorn of some grotesque exaggerations, renewed the taste and gave a new impulse to art. . . . The style of living of our old acquaintances was of great simplicity. Each one carried a bit of candle to mount the staircase of a friend; toilets, receptions, lodgings—everything was simple; people made a point of being simple and economical in everything; they only wished not to be wanting in elegance. The time thus spent was generally found sweet by those who enjoyed it."

Mlle. de Chastenay, who was very cultivated, began to make for herself a name in what was called the republic of letters. She became notorious by a translation of Anne Radcliffe's 'Mysteries of Udolpho.' The marriage of her brother, Henri de Chastenay, to Mlle. de Laguiche was a great event. The Laguiches were great landowners in Burgundy. The times grew less hard; the revolutionary régime was losing its worst features; there was a sort of renewal of life in society.

"Paris offered then a singular spectacle. It was the time of the triumph of the Chaussée d'Antin, the time when Madame Récamier, handsome as the day, affected to appear everywhere with a simple fichu of linen on her head, always disposed in the same manner. The young ladies who by birth belonged to the old régime followed the new style of elegance and luxury, all the more because it harmonized with a small outlay. The young men had their hair cut *à la Titus;* the young women had it arranged after the busts of antiquity. A slight muslin with a knot of ribbon composed an exquisite *parure*, and only very cross old ladies regretted powder and high-heeled shoes. I do not consider these details superfluous."

The émigrés were coming back one by one, sometimes with false passports, sometimes after having succeeded in getting their names erased from the lists made during the Terror. They appeared like strangers, and were "doing" Paris—a Paris which they had never known. Of all the friendships which Mlle. de Chastenay made at that time, the most important to her was that of Réal. He had saved the life of her father. He was, she says, full of *esprit*, of vivacity, of kindness.

"His independent opinions, when merely shown in conversation, gave it a movement, a lightness, and, at the same time, an elevation which had for me the greatest possible charm. I went to see Mme. Réal and her family, in the midst of which she led a simple and quiet life. I had some conversations with M. Réal. His opinions were not all mine, but ideas marched so fast with a mind like his that it was not worth while to dispute over a few of them; we left them aside, and it was only after the too famous event of the 18th Fructidor that our relations became as intimate as indispensable."

A catastrophe was preparing; the royalist party was reviving and the Directory became alarmed:

"The press was absolutely free; the papers which were opposed to the Revolution, especially to the revolutionists and to the Directors even more than to the Directorial Government, were numberless. . . . This false compass deceived the émigrés, and they became, by fashion, even more ardent than they really were; it deceived the opinion which I will call national, and which wished only for quiet and for the return of the absent, but which feared a sort of reaction."

Two of the Directors, Carnot and Barthélemy, were favorable to the reaction. "Nobody at the time of the Restoration," says Mlle. de Chastenay, "remembered or wished to remember the proscription of Carnot after the 18th Fructidor. Still, there was, at that moment, a return towards royalty which was the secret thought of the unseen leaders." As for Barthélemy, he had been a clerk in the Foreign Office whom circumstances brought to the front. He signed the treaties of Bâle with Prussia, with Spain. The Swiss had erected triumphal arches on his passage; on his return through France he received the most flattering homage. In Paris and in the Directory, this prestige soon disappeared and was replaced by injustice. "Pale, tall, without dignity, little accustomed to speak and to give out his ideas, . . . the poor Barthélemy was quite stupefied by the hopes and the hatreds which his Presidency of the Directory seemed to excite. . . . He did not know a single person. I have never seen anybody so null." On the 17th Fructidor, Mlle. de Chastenay went to a soirée with her mother and sister; she went home at two o'clock in the morning, having noticed nothing in the streets.

"At the dawn of day the streets were full of soldiers and bayonets; at nine o'clock in the morning Carnot had fled, Barthélemy was a prisoner, an immense number of Deputies, of journalists, and other people were in prison. . . . The day of the 18th Fructidor was disastrous; it destroyed all the prestige of the Constitution of the year iii. It showed that the laws were no protection, constitutions no safeguard. Journalists, Deputies, Directors, even, were transported to Sinnamari [in French Guiana]. . . . It traversed all the straight lines of opinion. The Republic, on its trial, was nothing but the victory of a party. Two new Directors were appointed. Everything assumed a character of violence and of conquest. The Treasury failed—that is to say, two-thirds of the public debt was repaid in paper money. This measure cost us 12,000 livres of revenue, by a stroke of the pen; our fortune, after the ruin of the assignats, never recovered from this terrible shock."

The laws against the émigrés were again put

in force with renewed severity. Mlle. de Chastenay had to take great pains in order to obtain the definitive erasure of the father of her sister-in-law, M. de Laguiche, who was erroneously on the dreaded list of the émigrés. Réal served her again on this occasion. He had rooms at the Police Bureau, as he had been charged by the Government with the examination of the papers which proved the relations of Gen. Pichegru with the English Government and with the Prince of Condé. Réal was still at the bar, but he spent several hours every day at the Police Bureau, where Mlle. de Chastenay went to see him, took his instructions, and consulted him on her family affairs. Mlle. de Chastenay was twenty-six years old, Réal forty.

"We both had youth; I had real youth, he was young in character, though his hair was already almost white. His attachment for me increased every day; my gratitude, my confidence in him, became every day more imperious duties, and duties which I found it easier to fulfil. I expected everything of him, and, in order to imagine what I felt, you must understand our situation. It was a question of the *whole* of the fortune of my sister-in-law; if the name of M. de Laguiche was not struck off, it was total ruin for him and for his brother."

When Bonaparte came back from Italy, Mlle. de Chastenay hoped to find in him an ally.

"The conqueror of Italy was not of the common run of generals. Notwithstanding his addresses on the 18th Fructidor, all the malcontents placed their hope in him. He was coming back to make a *coup d'état*—such was the general opinion. The Directory received Bonaparte with misgivings; Bonaparte treated the Directory with an affectation of levity and contempt. He shut himself up, and, to gain time and to multiply his chances, he prepared the expedition to Egypt. I remember that he said to Réal: 'These people don't know how to govern; but the Government still goes on, and I don't want to be a rebel!'"

Réal finished his work at the Police Bureau; he entered into a company of army contractors, and Mlle. de Chastenay saw many of his partners, among whom was Fouché. "My first impression of him was perhaps painful," she says, but it did not hinder her from often seeing Fouché, "who gave me judicious advice about men and things. He manifested towards me the most obliging interest, and begged me to consider him in future as a counsellor whose experience might not be without use to me. I used this advantage, and had several times occasion to applaud myself for so doing."

Mlle. de Chastenay saw, it is clear, a very mixed company. The canoness was thrown among men who had been Terrorists; she frequented much the literary men of the time, and seems to have been altogether very sociable. "I went everywhere," she says very frankly. She became acquainted with Barras, with Larevellière. The first visits to the Terrorists were made in the interest of the Laguiche family. "It will never be known how much courage they required. I don't speak of the obligation always to make my visits on foot, of the simplicity of my dress, but of the profound isolation in which I was in this society, and which was very terrible at first to me." By degrees the ice was broken. This is her portrait of Barras:

"A noble, and at heart very glad to be one, he preserved in his manner the dignity, the politeness which prejudice attributes to us and imposes on us. . . . He was tall, brown; his countenance was haughty, his eye bright; his person was thoroughly distinguished and really imposing. He wore a long blue redingote and boots. He had taken the finest apartment in the Luxembourg; a fine gallery succeeded the drawing-room. I have seen it sometimes almost full of more or less remarkable men. He passed from group to group."

Mlle. de Chastenay describes the salon of Barras, and cites the men and women who were the chief guests of the Director, among others Madame Bonaparte, Madame Tallien, the greatest beauty of the time, Madame de Staël, Benjamin Constant, Talleyrand. "I was to Talleyrand," she says, "an object of surprise, and I don't think he ever quite understood me. I have never been at ease with men of his stamp, who employ any instrumentality, and who play at *profondeur*. . . . I don't know how this politician one day came to reveal to me the secret of his life: 'You must always,' said he, 'put yourself in a situation where you can choose between two resolutions.'" By her *esprit* Mlle. de Chastenay made herself rapidly important in the governmental sphere of the Directory; many people now began to ask for her aid, and she became a sort of connecting link between the remains of the old régime and the powers of the day. Her protection was understood to be the protection of Réal, who had made himself more and more influential.

But we must take leave of Mlle. de Chastenay, and wait patiently for the publication of the second volume of her Memoirs. We will, however, improve the occasion to complain of this new habit of publishing volumes of important memoirs separately and sometimes at long intervals.

Correspondence.

DENTISTS IN SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial in a recent number of the *Nation*, entitled "Political Gentlemen," these words appear: "We rarely meet . . . dentists in society." From this one is to suppose that there is something in dentistry which is antagonistic to refinement, education, and other things which go to make a gentleman. Is this true? As well say one rarely meets an oculist in society, or one rarely meets a rhinologist in society. Dentistry is nothing if not a part of the great medical profession, and is so acknowledged by the American Medical Society, as one section in that association is wholly devoted to dentistry. The term of pupilage of the dental school is the same as that in most of the medical schools. The fundamentals, viz., anatomy, chemistry, physiology, materia medica, are the same. The requirements for entrance to the schools are the same. A goodly number of those now entering the dental schools have degrees from the best scientific and literary colleges in the country. Many dentists are men of good breeding, have good manners, and have refined and educated tastes. There are about seven physicians to one dentist, and the proportion is even greater between the lawyer and the dentist, so it will be seen that one would naturally meet fewer dentists in society than either physicians or lawyers; besides, one may often meet a dentist in society and not be aware that he is a specialist, as the title Doctor is not discriminating.

There was a time when dentistry was on a low plane; so was surgery when practised only by barbers.—Yours truly,

Thomas L. Gilmer.

Chicago, June 19, 1896.

"AS YOU LIKE IT" AT SMITH COLLEGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Three performances of Shakspere's "As You Like It" have been given by the class of 1896 as part of their graduation exercises. The first, a dress rehearsal, was necessarily somewhat crude; the third, on Saturday evening, June 13, was the most finished piece of dramatic study, the Greek play "Electra" excepted, yet undertaken by the students of Smith College. The task would perhaps not have been entered upon—it would certainly have been less confidently carried out—without the example of last year's class in "Midsummer Night's Dream." All the motives influencing the Seniors of 1895 to undertake a play of Shakspere were felt with equal force by the present Seniors. They, too, desired to entertain their guests and to get the intellectual and æsthetic discipline afforded by training for such a representation. To the former careful study of the text was added this year great attention to the stage business. Mr. Alfred Young, the trainer, made a careful study of all the presentations of the play, and collated the "business" of each part for the benefit of the respective performers. The result was highly interesting.

The play was cut to remove all passages unsuitable for modern presentation and to reduce its length. Very long speeches were avoided whenever practicable. *Sir Oliver Martext* and *Dennis* were entirely omitted, and also *Rosalind's* epilogue. The order of scenes was changed, in conformity with customary stage usage, to make the action more coherent and intelligible. These changes render the acting play markedly different from the play as read. The characters appear in different lights, and certain traits in changed proportion. *Rosalind*, for instance, becomes gentler and on the whole more romantic. The character of *Celia* grows in interest and attains more significance. On the other hand, certain passages in the play usually cut were left in, with the general effect of bringing out the serious and romantic side of the story and characters. The minor parts received careful attention throughout, the mobs, crowds, and attendants being made distinctly parts of the action as well as of the spectacle. Such changes as ensued from the circumstances under which the play was given, or from the cutting, may be considered incidental. One change was deliberately made, that of interpreting *Jaques* as the bitter cynic and libertine instead of the romantic philosopher.

Mr. Abbey's Shaksperian illustrations were used as guides in costuming. Great ingenuity was shown in adapting the pictures to stage effect, particularly as most of the costumes were made by a committee of the class. The scenery was arranged to make the woods-life as prominent as possible, and four different scenes gave glimpses of the Arden forest. The grouping of the exiled followers of the banished *Duke*, his earnest and dignified view of life, the occupations and recreations of the little community, were all very delicately and suggestively conveyed. The songs were given after old versions by Dr. Arne, Bishop, and Morley, transposed and arranged for four parts. Refrains from these songs appeared as dramatic *motifs* in the introduction of *Phœbe* and *Silvius*, of *Orlando* and *Adam*, in the exit of *Rosalind* and *Orlando* in Act. III., and in the dance with which the play was ended.

Of the acting, it must be said that it far exceeded the expectations of even those who had watched the progress of the study given to it.

The voices of the girls were much more adequate to the demand than was to have been expected, and the rendering of some of the most difficult parts was most successful. The part of *Touchstone* was extraordinarily well given by Miss Dustin. A tinge of melancholy made the final suggestion in the personation of one of Shakspere's typical fools. The lines were nowhere better delivered than by Miss Hall in the character of *Adam*. The leading parts were so well taken that nobody missed the significance of *Celia's* intelligently sustained character, found the disguise of *Rosalind* absurd, or the sudden conversion of *Oliver* incredible. Perhaps the severest test endured by the acting was that of the love scenes, which were uniformly interesting and in several places really charming.

It should be said that no English play has ever been given by students of Smith College in which all the work was so directly the outcome of special study and preparation in the Department of Elocution. Miss Peck, the head of this department, feels that this performance does much to put such work in its proper relation to dramatic and literary study, both inside and outside the college. R. D.

NORTHAMPTON, MASS., June 15, 1896.

Notes.

A. P. TVERSKOY'S 'Sketches from the United States of North America,' already heralded in these columns by a correspondent, Dr. Leo Wiener, is a translation announced by Macmillan Co.

The Robert Clarke Co., Cincinnati, will publish next month 'Nathaniel Massie, a Pioneer of Ohio,' by David Meade Massie, with portrait and map. The work will have a place beside the St. Clair Papers.

A chart, showing the "Descent of England's Sovereigns," that may be folded in any historical work, is to be published at once by D. C. Heath & Co.

In the current Proceedings of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin we read that the long-expected catalogue of its bound newspaper files is still delayed by the difficulties incident to so novel and important an enterprise. It will be arranged geographically and chronologically by decades, will classify by special features, and will be enriched with historical notes. An alphabetical index to editors and publishers will conclude this most useful labor.

Harper & Bros. follow up Mark Twain's 'Huckleberry Finn' with 'A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court,' uniform in style and also illustrated. The series is prettily bound, and will find a welcome.

The Messrs. Putnam's "Mohawk Edition" of Cooper's works proceeds with 'The Sea Lions, or the Lost Sealers,' which completes the second section of six volumes. We have only to renew our praise of the openness of the typography and the general comeliness of this issue.

Another handful of volumes in the little wine-colored series of "Stories by English Authors" comes from Charles Scribner's Sons. The tales relate respectively to London, France, Italy, and Africa—an itinerary quite conformable to that of present-day tourists. Good portraits of Barrie, Weyman, Payn, and Doyle furnish frontispieces to the two hundred pages of brief fiction by twenty-two writers in all.

The Minister of Education for the Province of Ontario, Mr. George W. Ross, has contributed to the International Education Series an extremely lucid and satisfactory account of the school system over which he presides (D. Appleton & Co.). Dr. Harris, in his editorial preface, truly remarks that "it may be doubted whether there is another instance in America of so wise a use of money and supervising power as is shown in this Province of Ontario, excepting the administration of the Peabody and Slater funds for the stimulation and nurture of education in our Southern States." The striking features of the Ontario school system are the close organization and correlation of its several parts, higher and lower; the insistence upon the employment of trained teachers only; and the provision for denominational schools, subject to the same standards of efficiency as the public schools. Centralized supervision and apportionment of school moneys assure the maintenance of the legally prescribed standards in all these respects. Many of the strongest points of the Ontario system are being consciously or unconsciously imitated in several of the more progressive States, notably in New York and New Jersey.

Prof. Hinsdale of the University of Michigan is a cautious and painstaking student of education, and these qualities are reflected in his two latest books. The one, 'Studies in Education' (Chicago: Werner School Book Company), is largely made up of the author's recent contributions to the *Educational Review*, the *Forum*, and other periodicals. Of these papers two are specially noteworthy. They deal respectively with the Dogma of Formal Discipline and the American School Superintendent. His other work, 'Teaching the Language-Arts' (D. Appleton & Co.), is more ambitious, and attempts to construct a consistent theory of grammatical, linguistic, and literary training.

'Education,' by H. Holman, M.A. (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is largely devoted to psychology, and is written in apparent ignorance of the current literature of education in Germany, France, Italy, and the United States. The author is grievously mistaken in his supposition that the conception of the book is "entirely original." The conception not only is not original, but is commonplace and imperfect.

The considerable interest in the Moravian reformer, Comenius, that was aroused by the celebration, in 1892, of the three-hundredth anniversary of his birth, and the intrinsic merit of the book itself, justify the publication of an English version of his 'Didactica Magna' (Macmillan Co.). The editor, Mr. M. W. Keatinge, has supplied a useful and voluminous introduction. It is to be noted that the book is not "translated," as is usual, but "Englished."

'Sketches of English Glee Composers,' by David Baptie (Scribners), is a little volume of 235 pages which will doubtless be warmly welcomed by the numerous glee clubs in our colleges and elsewhere. Brief sketches are given of the lives of about two hundred composers of glees between the years 1735 and 1866, with lists of their best pieces, and indications of the voices for which each piece is written, to enable caterers for glee clubs or choral societies to choose what they desire. The author, being an Englishman, is patriotically proud of the glee, which is England's principal contribution to the world's treasures of music. He justly holds that, in this field, England is unrivalled. Gounod, Ambroise Thomas, Abt, Kücken, Kreutzer, Mendelssohn, and others have written beautiful part-songs, but "it is in a different style from the English glee, and *that* is still the best." On the second page the author gives his reasons for this statement, which are interesting if not convincing.

A professional reviewer is apt to shudder when a "new method" of singing is placed on his desk. It is therefore a pleasure to meet with a book like 'Voice-Building and Tone-Placing,' by Dr. H. Holbrook Curtis (Appletons). This treatise is intended to be of use to physicians as well as to students of the voice; it exposes fallacious theories regarding the so-called registers, and includes exercises for the restoration of cords injured by improper vocal methods so much in vogue. The author, besides being familiar with the latest work of scientific specialists, has had much practical experience with eminent singers, the results of which are incorporated in the text, and there are valuable suggestions regarding breathing, hygiene, tone-placing, voice-building, etc., with abundant illustrations. Even the general reader will find something to entertain him in the last chapter, which has a number of pictures showing the lovely figures of seaweed, flowers, ferns, and shells that can be produced by tone vibrations after the method of Mrs. Watts-Hughes, as first described in the *Century Magazine* for May, 1891. Altogether, this is an exceptionally valuable book of its kind, though the introductory sketch of the "Origin of Music" might well have been omitted. The volume is dedicated to Jean de Reszké.

The first volume of the "Library of Early English Writers" begins with Yorkshire writers, singling out "Richard Rolle of Hampole, an English Father of the Church, and his Followers" (London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan). It is edited by Prof. C. Horstmann, well known from his editions of 'Altenglische Legenden' and other works. Our acquaintance with Hampole has been hitherto through his 'Prick of Conscience,' but now we have for the first time an edition of his various minor treatises. The "Introduction" discusses scholasticism and mysticism, and is incomplete, preparing the way for a consideration of Hampole himself, who is regarded as the typical English mystic. He entered upon the hermit life in his nineteenth year, and forms a direct contrast to Duns Scotus, the opposition of feeling to intellect. While writing much in Latin, "he was the first who to any great extent employed his mother-tongue." Many short treatises in both prose and poetry are included in this volume, among the latter being the poem beginning—

> "When Adam delf and Eve span, spir, if thou wil spede,
> Whare was than the pride of man, that now merres his mede?"

It is hoped that the next volume will be provided with an index, or with a table of contents at least, and will tell us something more about Hampole himself.

It was a happy thought that led Mrs. Martha Foote Crowe to edit the later 'Elizabethan Sonnet-Cycles,' which have hitherto been inaccessible to the general. There is a natural unity running through these sequences of poems which makes it highly desirable to have them together at hand for comparison. The attractive little volume before us promises a series which will make this possible. In her first volume Mrs. Crowe gives the full text, spelling modernized, of Lodge's "Phillis" and Giles Fletcher's "Licia." Her several introductions offer essential biographical facts and some popular criticism, but make no pretence of original research. The publishers are Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

It would hardly be expected that the His-

tory of the Twenty-second Regiment of the New York National Guard would make an interesting chapter in our war history, yet such is the fact. It was organized early in 1861, from business men, to supply a local protection in New York city which was felt to be indispensable when the older militia regiments had mostly gone to the field. Although its members were men whom strong duty required to be at home, the regiment volunteered for brief field-service at Harper's Ferry in 1862, and again in the Gettysburg campaign of 1863, and, though it saw no severe fighting, its story is among the most interesting as to marching, bivouac, and rough camp-life. It did good service, also, in the draft riots and in other local disturbances. Its history is among the best illustrations of the close relations of State troops to the national army. Gen. George W. Wingate has made a sumptuous volume of the regimental annals, and E. W. Dayton has published it in excellent form with maps and photographic illustrations.

'The Confederate Soldier in the Civil War,' edited by Ben LaBree (printed by the *Courier-Journal* Co., Louisville) is a ponderous folio, compiled from various sources, profusely illustrated with process reproductions of portraits, maps, and scenes. It cannot claim to be a history, but is one of those encyclopædic collections of documents, narratives, battle-reports, biographies, and anecdotes which contain much of the crude material of history, and make amusing reading for such as love to pick and choose among a diversified mass of material more or less authentic. Its collection of portraits is very large, and, as photography has been mostly relied upon, the gallery of soldiers and statesmen is well worthy of study for the types of character to be seen in the noteworthy group of men who planned secession and led its soldiers in the field.

Every student, on taking up a new subject of investigation, has found his greatest difficulty lie in the effort to acquire a knowledge of its bibliography; and even in the conduct of old studies it is not easy to keep abreast with the constantly multiplying mass of publications in books and periodicals. With the view of lightening this labor for historians, M. Ch.-V. Langlois has undertaken a 'Manuel de Bibliographie Historique' (Paris: Hachette & Cie.), of which the first part has just appeared, comprising a condensed critical review of the innumerable bibliographies devoted to history and its *Hülfswissenschaften*. To workers in history it will prove a handy and efficient guide in showing them what has been done and is now doing towards furnishing them with the aids necessary to the prosecution of their labors. The wide and exact erudition of M. Langlois is well known, and he is, furthermore, fitted for his present task by the fact that, unlike most French scholars, his horizon is not limited by national boundaries. What has been accomplished in this country in the matter of bibliography receives ample attention at his hands, but perhaps the most striking feature of his little volume is the enormous preponderance which has been secured by German laborers in this field. The second part of the book promises to contain an account of the original sources of history, and, if executed with thoroughness, will prove of even greater utility than the present one.

Tourists in France, whether afoot or on the wheel, should equip themselves with J. Bertot's 'Guides du Cycliste en France' (Paris: G. Boudet), embracing nine 12mo volumes. All the routes radiate from Paris, with runs to Geneva, Marseilles, Bordeaux, Brest, Havre, etc. Colored route-maps and plans of cities are abundantly supplied, with other needful information. The editor is a devotee of Alpine climbing as well as of the bicycle. The phrase "chemins non véloçables" introduces us to a neologism which one will seek in vain in Littré.

The Rev. C. C. Carpenter, Secretary of the Alumni Association of Andover Theological Seminary, continues the necrology of the institution in his usual admirable manner. Although the number deceased in 1895-6 largely exceeds that of previous years, reaching 56, it need not be supposed that this indicates a decline in the longevity of Andover graduates. The average age of the 56 decedents was 74 years and four days. Three of the number were over 90, twenty were between 80 and 90, fourteen between 70 and 80, twelve between 60 and 70, and only two below 50, one of whom was nearly 49. All were college graduates, and four had been college presidents. Among the notable names are those of Edward Beecher, Harvey D. Kitchel, Prof. Daniel S. Talcott of Bangor, Dr. Samuel F. Smith, and Drs. Clark and Alden of the American Board. Prof. Park, at the age of 87, now heads the roll of living alumni.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has surpassed his "imperial panel" photograph of the late Dr. W. H. Furness in a photogravure from the same negative, we believe. This permanent print preserves to a remarkable degree the delicate detail of a face "each several point" of whose benevolent expression was

> "Tremblingly bright with the inward grace,"

as Lowell said of Mrs. Follen's countenance. Dr. Furness's autograph in facsimile is affixed to the plate.

The Sierra Club has just issued a new edition of its "Map of the Central Portion of the Sierra Nevada," first issued in 1893, and now extensively revised in accordance with the latest authorities and explorations. The map is on a scale of four miles to the inch, and has side maps on a larger scale of the Yosemite Valley and the Hetch-Hetchy Valley. It is conveniently folded for the pocket in covers or dissected and mounted on cloth (San Francisco: T. S. Solomons, 508 California Street, R. 12).

—*Bibliographica* (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) is notably successful in maintaining the interest and value of its papers. Part ix. opens with a survey of Japanese illustrated books, by Robert K. Douglas, whose concern is purely historical, and who has no technical information to impart. The sample illustrations, of which several are colored, are numerous and striking. Mr. Douglas misses the direction of the flight of wild duck in describing Plate ii.; they are departing, not approaching the musician. Natalie Rondot writes in French on wood-engraving at Lyons in the fifteenth century, and, amid much crude work, exhibits specimens of a high degree of attainment. A kindred theme enlists Mr. Alfred W. Pollard in "The Woodcut Designs for Illumination in Venetian Books, 1469-'73." Mr. Pollard has made the not insignificant discovery that borders were stamped on pages as a guide to the illuminator—the same work being found with and without such impressions. He infers that this was done outside of the printing office. "It is possible that each printer had business relations with a distinct firm of illuminators, to whom he sent a few copies of his books for decoration," and that the private buyer resorted, on his part, to one or another such firm as suited his taste, as "where we find a Jenson book with a Vindelinus border, or *vice versa*"—*i. e.*, where the printer's taste and customary dealing have been ignored. Still more important is Dr. Garnett's essay towards mapping the intellectual currents of the fifteenth century as manifested in the *incunabula*, in the case of the Italian book trade. The peculiar characteristics of the publications of Rome, Venice, Bologna, Ferrara, Florence, Milan, and Naples from 1467 to 1500 are set forth in more or less detail, with the conclusion that Italian Renaissance literature was "far more utilitarian than that of ages often stigmatized as matter-of-fact and prosaic." Classical authors were reproduced "either for the information they contained, or as books for school or college." Outside of these, beyond impressions of Dante, Petrarch, and Boccaccio, "very little of a fanciful or imaginative character appeared." It was in Venice that the public proved a better patron than those in authority, though "Florence understood the duty of encouraging contemporary talent better than any other city." We have room only to mention Mr. W. Barclay Squire's "Notes on Early Music-Printing," Mr. H. B. Wheatley's "The Strawberry-Hill Press," and Mr. Joseph Pennell's laudatory account of *Once a Week* as "a great art magazine." Like the foregoing, these articles are amply illustrated.

—The third volume of "Harvard Studies and Notes in Philology and Literature" (Boston: Ginn & Co.) contains Prof. Kittredge's 'Observations on the Language of Chaucer's Troilus,' issued in 1894 as one of the publications of the Chaucer Society for 1891, and republished in this volume. It is a thorough and searching grammatical and metrical investigation of Chaucer's "Troilus," which extended over many years, and is "intended to furnish some materials for the large induction necessary to reasonable certainty in the matter of Chaucer's language, particularly his use of final *e*." The study is based on the MSS. as edited by Dr. Furnivall for the Chaucer Society, and is arranged by parts of speech, all forms being noted that are necessary for a complete grammatical view of the language. The numbering of the lines is continuous, and a comparative table prefixed gives the correspondences in Furnivall and Morris. Prof. Skeat's edition did not appear until the table had been sent to the printers, but the statement is made that his numbering corresponds with Dr. Morris's for Book I., and with Dr. Furnivall's for the other books. Skeat's edition, however, contains 8,239 lines, not 8,232, as in Prof. Kittredge's MS. A, on which the study is chiefly based; hence one stanza, inserted as in Morris after st. 127, must be added. A comparison for the unusual form *arn* in Chaucer shows that the three cases occurring in "Troilus" are all recorded. The form *beth*, third person plural, cannot be found in Skeat at the reference given (6020). Interjections are omitted in Prof. Kittredge's chapter on "Adverbs and Other Particles." A search for the rare *adieu* failed to find it; there is but one instance in "Troilus" (i, 1041). This, perhaps the earliest instance on record of the use of the interjection, is not given in the Oxford English Dictionary, although another is there recorded as a noun, "and his *adew* made" (ii., 1085), but this is an incorrect reading, doubtless from the text of Bell, who gives it. Prof. Skeat has here "And radde it over," without variant. Prof. Manly has made a similar study, after Prof. Kittredge, of "The Legend of Good Women," in "Harvard Studies," vol. ii. (1893), and

other poems of Chaucer are now under investigation in the same way. Prof. Kittredge's work has already produced good fruit.

—At the May meeting of the English Goethe Society, Prof. Dowden delivered the Presidential address. He assumed the rôle of the Devil's Advocate with a thoroughness that caused a stir in the court of devotees. His address has now appeared in the June number of *Cosmopolis*. The chief defects in Goethe's character and works are therein set forth with brevity and clearness and without modifying phrases. The paper will be read with interest by the admirers of Goethe as an example of the ease with which a trained scholar may speciously wrest his facts to false conclusions. The late Prof. Carriere of Munich once published an essay in which, by the use of the "philological method," he proved that Lessing wrote Goethe's "Faust." The work was skilfully executed, and some dull men imagined that a "Baconian" theory had actually invaded the field of Goethe literature. Prof. Dowden has accomplished a similar *tour de force*, but has missed the fine strain of irony. Any reader familiar with Goethe's life and works can frame his own reply as he reads. Indeed, in the replies which it elicits will be found the only real value of this article. A statement so frankly one-sided can exert scarcely more influence in England than was produced in Germany by Grabbe's ill-natured arraignment of Shakspere. It is, however, a pity that the zeal of the Advocatus Diaboli should have led him into misstatements, as, for instance, when he says that in the treatment of "Faust" "the results of a century's criticism tend more and more towards disintegration." But, after all, the chief harm which this kind of intellectual athletics can do is to supply with plausible catchwords the vocabulary of those who, in their insular ignorance, are fond of depreciating the German poet; and this class of persons will be very ready to doubt the sincerity of Prof. Dowden's intentions as a friend of Goethe in disguise. This "Case against Goethe," however, is, as Edmond Schérer said of "Hermann und Dorothea," "a factitious work."

—Mr. W. A. Shaw, whose 'History of Currency' at once made him an authority on monetary science, has collected a number of papers bearing on the subject, which are published under the title 'Select Tracts and Documents Illustrative of English Monetary History, 1626–1730' (London: Clement Wilson). The authors from whose writings the collection is made are Sir Robert Cotton, Henry Robinson, Sir Richard Temple, "J. S.," Sir Isaac Newton, John Conduitt; and extracts are added from the Domestic State Papers at the Record Office. The compilation, Mr. Shaw tells us, is meant as an object-lesson in currency history, and is intentionally restricted to a century which cannot be called controversial. It illustrates, at five different periods, "the one main difficulty which the monetary systems of every state of Europe experienced, as the result of a mechanism inherited from the Middle Ages, and which they continued to experience until the reforms of quite modern times." This difficulty was substantially that recognized and stated by Sir Thomas Gresham, or, as Mr. Shaw expresses it, the buying up of better money by means of inferior kinds. It is not true, he says, that bad money drives out good; but, under favorable conditions, the merchant exchanger can buy up the good money by means of the bad, the unworn by means of the worn, the more valuable by means of the less valuable. In such operations the provisions for free coinage, as the mints of no two countries put the same values on the metals, were of great assistance; and the great reform of this century has consisted in the abolition of this privilege. Mr. Shaw's selections graphically illustrate the incessant perplexities and dangers encountered by the mint directors of the period, and are extremely interesting as showing the practical working of bimetallism with free coinage.

—Senator Luigi Chiala has done more than any other living Italian to collect and preserve the most valuable private documents of the men who made Italy a generation ago. His edition of Cavour's letters, enriched by ample notes, must always remain an original source for every student of European history between 1847 and 1861. Senator Chiala has now edited the papers of Giacomo Dina (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), a man interesting for his own character and attainments, and important as being the chief journalistic supporter of Cavour's nine years' ministry. Dina was a Jew, born at a time when his race had neither civil, political, nor social rights in Piedmont. Before he was twenty he had acquired an extraordinary amount of learning, for which he had no outlet, the only employment open to him being that of primary-school teacher at sixty dollars a year. The reforms of 1847, however, allowed the establishment of newspapers, and to one of these, the *Opinione* of Turin, Dina was called as an assistant. Subsequently he rose to be the managing editor, in the days when that paper was the recognized mouthpiece of the Cavourian party. Senator Chiala reprints many of Dina's leaders on important events—the expedition to the Crimea, the conference at Plombières, the war of 1859, Garibaldi's Sicilian expedition, etc.—together with private letters to and from Dina, and an unfailing stream of explanation. Dina's articles have for the historian the added value of representing the point of view which Cavour wished the public to take; but they also deserve attention on Dina's own account. He was a man who held the highest ideal of a journalist's mission—a man, therefore, who belongs to a type which seems to-day, except for a few rare exceptions, as obsolete as is that of paladin or knight errant. Dina believed that the journalist should educate, should form and lead public opinion, should speak the truth, and trust without doubt or wavering to the final verdict of reason.

JAMES WILSON.

The Works of James Wilson, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and Professor of Law in the College of Philadelphia; being his Public Discourses upon Jurisprudence and the Political Science, including Lectures as Professor of Law, 1790 '92. Edited by James de Witt Andrews. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co. 1896.

NOTWITHSTANDING the important part played and the high position held by him in public affairs, the name of Wilson has almost lapsed into oblivion. His present editor feels it necessary to insist with emphasis upon his undoubted claims to remembrance. Not only was he a member of the convention which framed the Constitution, but it was in a great measure due to his eloquent good sense that the ratification of it by Pennsylvania was secured. He was one of the first judges of the Supreme Court, appointed by Washington, and may be said to share with Marshall and Jay the honor of having formulated and made effective some of the cardinal legal principles of our government. His remains make it seem very probable that, had he lived (he died in 1798 at the age of fifty-six), he would have been known as a great federalist judge; as it was, he had an opportunity, in the case of Chisholm vs. the State of Georgia, to render a judgment which made it for the first time plain that the Constitution had called into existence a new sovereign state.

This case, reported in the second volume of Dallas's Reports, came before the Supreme Court in 1793, four years after the new government had gone into operation. It came up in a matter-of-fact way, upon a motion by Mr. Randolph, Attorney-General, that unless the State of Georgia should enter an appearance in defence of the action, judgment should be entered against the State by default; nevertheless, it was what would now be called a very sensational suit. It involved a question so important that the decision in it resulted in one of the few amendments of the Constitution adopted between 1787 and our own time. The question was whether a State could be sued in the federal courts on a money demand by the citizen of another State. The Chief Justice was Jay; his associates were Iredell, an excellent lawyer, Blair, Wilson, and Cushing. All delivered opinions *seriatim*, and all felt that in a measure the future complexion and even fate of the new government hinged upon their decision. The Constitution provided that the judicial power should extend to controversies between a State and a citizen; did this mean that any one to whom a State owed money could obtain federal process to compel payment by the State? Four years before, such a suit would have been inconceivable. That a sovereign was exempt from suit was a legal commonplace familiar to every student of Blackstone and Coke. If Georgia, a sovereign State in 1789, was now subject to an action of *assumpsit* at the suit of any one to whom she owed money, it could only be because her sovereignty *pro tanto* was gone. This was the fundamental question which the judges were to decide.

Their opinions were characteristic of the men who delivered them. Iredell's was that of a lawyer and strict constructionist, Jay's that of a lawyer who was also a statesman, determined to give the most liberal construction to the charter he was called upon to interpret, but determined at the same time to put his judgment upon grounds impregnable to attack; Wilson's that of an orator, a publicist, a scholar, and a metaphysician, dissatisfied with himself unless he could show that the decision he had reached was called for, not merely by the Constitution, but by all history, all law, and finally by all philosophy. Iredell's argument was in substance that, even if a State could be sued under the new Constitution, still the power to entertain such a suit had not been conferred on the courts by Congress, and a new statute was necessary for the purpose. He strongly intimated the opinion, however, that no such power existed. The meaning of the clause in the Constitution was merely that the courts were to take cognizance of such controversies between a State and a citizen as had been cognizable before the adoption of the Constitution—*i. e.*, suits in which the State was plaintiff, or in which it consented to be sued. The Chief Justice's opinion was purely practical. He did not cite a single case, but relied first upon the fact that Georgia was not

sovereign in the *sense* or to the extent in which the King of England was sovereign; that her limited sovereignty was compatible with suability, and that, finally, the Constitution (to which Georgia was a consenting party) expressly authorized such a suit.

Wilson's opinion, on the other hand, while quite as logical as Jay's, is an ornate rhetorical essay. Not satisfied with what he justly calls the "uncommon magnitude" of the question involved, he magnifies it still further at the outset by declaring it to involve one more important still—"Do the people of the United States form a nation?" Having determined that this is the question before him, he opens the discussion with a quotation from Reid, explains that he intends to use the words state and sovereign in new senses; that the state is merely a useful and valuable contrivance brought into existence by the real sovereign, the people; that consequently the State of Georgia is not, as to the purposes of the Union, a sovereign at all; that the notion of sovereignty on which the State had relied for exemption was purely feudal in origin, the sovereign being a king—we have no feudal system and no king here—while, on principles of general jurisprudence, laws are founded not on the command of a superior, but on the *consent* of those who obey them. There is in these principles nothing to exempt the State of Georgia from suit. In the second place, many precedents warrant such a suit. The cases cited are from Isocrates, the history of Spain, Sparta, France, and the Saxons. In the third place, the exemption of a state from suit being thus shown to be unwarranted by history and general jurisprudence, the only remaining questions are: Could the Constitution vest a jurisdiction over the State of Georgia? Has it done so? Both of which are answered in the affirmative, and the conclusion reached that judgment must be rendered for the plaintiff, by default.

But execution never issued. So astonished was the public at the novelty of the idea that States were subject to the jurisdiction of the federal courts, that an amendment to the Constitution exempting them from it was shortly afterwards proposed and adopted, and, in 1798, all suits of the kind were swept from the records of the court. Curiously enough, and as if to wipe out any vestige of the decision, the successors of Jay and Wilson have in our day gone out of their way to declare that the decision of the court in Chisholm vs. Georgia was wrong. In 1889, in the case of Hans vs. Louisiana, we find a new attempt made to sue a State, under another clause of the Constitution. The court, after an interval of a hundred years, reëxamines the subject, and announces that it was Iredell, and not Wilson and Jay, who was right, chiefly on the ground that the interpretation of the Constitution antecedent to its adoption, by Hamilton in the *Federalist*, and by Madison and Marshall in the Virginia convention, had established that States were not suable. This criticism of the earlier decision is entirely extra-judicial, for it was not at all necessary to the decision of the Louisiana case, and we shall therefore take the liberty of expressing the opinion that, were the main question still open to argument, the decision of the Supreme Court itself, rendered after the adoption of the Constitution, by Wilson, Jay, and their associates, ought to be more weighty than *ex parte* arguments of advocates of the adoption of the Constitution whose main object was to minimize whatever objections were urged against it.

But whatever view may be taken of the technical correctness of the decision, who can but deplore the results of the failure of these judges in their bold attempt to settle for ever the supremacy of the new Government? What has exemption from suit brought in its train but millions of debt repudiated and thousands of innocent people plundered? How much better would it be if the tribunal which has always enjoyed unquestioned obedience where two States are parties, or where the most powerful corporation or the most populous city or subdivision of a State is concerned, had not been shorn of the power to enforce justice between a State and a citizen! Indeed, when one reads these early opinions and reflects on the subsequent history of the country, one is tempted to go much further, and to echo the wish expressed by Jay, that "the state of society were so far improved, and the science of Government advanced to such a degree of perfection, as that the whole nation could in the peaceable course of law be compelled to do justice." Repudiated by the States and swept from the records of the court the decision might be, but the principles underlying such judicial opinions could no more be effaced than the Constitution itself. The sovereignty of the Union had been recognized, the idea of the State as a subordinated political agency had been formulated—views to be wholly lost sight of, and to be vindicated two generations later by force of arms in a conflict which ended in their complete triumph. One of the earliest heralds of the true constitutional meaning and scope of that great conflict seems to have been Wilson. The opinion in Chisholm vs. the State of Georgia is really his best monument.

An edition of his works, published under the direction of Bird Wilson, in three volumes, appeared in 1804. The greater part of the contents of both the earlier and later edition consist of the lectures on Law delivered in the College of Philadelphia in 1790-'91. The present editor has added a good many notes of his own, which are mainly valuable in so far as they refer the reader to cases and other writers. The speculative opinions advanced in them do not seem to add anything to the text, and are calculated to produce the erroneous impression that Wilson's views of jurisprudence are those of modern scholars. How the editor has succeeded in persuading himself of this we do not know. Wilson was essentially a man of his time, though in advance of it also. Born and educated in Scotland, and coming here while still very young, he had a greater knowledge of the principles of the Roman law than most of his English or American contemporaries. His reading was wide, and he entertained on all public subjects advanced and humane views. Like the authors of the *Federalist*, his reasoning as to human institutions is always founded upon a perception of the great truth that they are carried on by men acting from observed tendencies and impulses, and that the first question is whether, with human nature as it is, a projected institution will or will not accomplish a given result. Thus, he clearly foresees (vol. i., p. 359) exactly how division of responsibility as to appointments must produce bad appointments. It could not be made clearer, even by a study of bi-partisan commissions in New York. His whole chapter on government is a most enlightened essay. In his eleventh chapter he points out that, under our system, an unconstitutional law cannot but be held void by the courts—in this anticipating and explaining what was to be the course of decision. In his remarks on the philosophy of evidence he points out, far in advance of his time, that a competition between opposite analogies is the principle into which legal controversies may often be resolved. In his "Considerations on the power to incorporate the Bank of North America," the principle of the decision in the Dartmouth College case is anticipated in a very remarkable way (vol. i., p. 566). He favored the fusion of Law and Equity (vol. ii., p. 136), and protested against the failure of the common law to provide compensation for the death of a human being (p. 360). On the other hand, he knew no more than his contemporaries of the historical method of studying law—although his inquiry into the probable derivation of the word *felony* shows a philological sense which would have greatly helped to equip him for it—and the basis of his philosophy of jurisprudence was metaphysical and theological. Consequently, the greater part of his speculative writing, while deserving of preservation owing to the light which it throws upon the development of law, is no longer of any other value. The reason why Mr. Andrews does not perceive this is that he himself, as his note on "Who are the People?" shows, is a metaphysician too, while his evident leaning toward socialism does not help to render his metaphysics any clearer.

It cannot be honestly said that Wilson's abstract speculations about law are of much more value than those of Puffendorf, though they are one degree more modern. He traces law and custom to consent. It has been proved over and over again since his time that this is a mere assumption, and opposed to the facts of history. Law had its origin partly in brute force, partly in custom, and partly in regulations enforced by a sovereign. As to the latter, no consent was asked, and as to custom it is impossible, with regard to many primitive social rules, that there can have been any antecedent consent. To say nothing of such customs as suttee, circumcision, human sacrifices, cannibalism, or marriage accomplished by violence, we have no proof that a rule of property such as primogeniture or dower was introduced by any such means. The argument as to consent is, first, that law cannot be imposed by superior right, for one human being has by nature no superior right over any other. I have no more right to make rules for you than you for me. But since law rightfully exists, and we are under a necessity to assign some origin to it, there is none discoverable but an act of consent on the part of the governed that he shall be subject to certain rules. The vice of the argument is that it confounds the right to govern with the fact of government. We know nothing about the right to govern unless, ascending from the plane of metaphysics to that of theology, we assume (as almost every one did down to the present century) that the right is derived from God. If we say that the right to govern *ought* to be derived from the people, that is the expression of an opinion that a government so derived better answers the ends of government. No existing government is based on the consent of the whole people: women, children, and generally large numbers of adult males have no voice in it.

Of the man Wilson little has come down to us. Yet, with the aid of the old-fashioned portrait prefixed to the earlier edition of his works, we cannot be far out of the way in ascribing to his character qualities corresponding to those of his mind. A kindly and humane wisdom marks every line that he wrote, and looks out at us through his spectacles. His face alone explains why Washington should have preferred him to the distinguished lawyers of his own State as an instructor

for his nephew. He was an accomplished publicist and skilful debater, with a Scotch persistency which sometimes makes us smile, though rather with than at him. Who but the man himself would ever have thought it worth while to suggest, in the course of a judicial opinion on jurisdiction, that constitutional accuracy is incumbent upon us, not only in our common but "even in our convivial language"?

"Is a toast asked? 'The United States' instead of the 'People of the United States' is the toast given. This is not politically correct. The toast is meant to present to view the first great object in the Union; it presents only the second. It presents only the artificial person instead of the natural persons who spoke it into existence. A State, I cheerfully admit, is the noblest work of Man, but Man himself, free and honest, is (I speak as to this world) the noblest work of God."

TURKS AND MONGOLS.

Introduction à l'Histoire de l'Asie: Turcs et Mongols des Origines à 1405. Par Léon Cahun. Paris: Colin & Cie.

With a part of this work students are already familiar in the chapters which M. Cahun has lately contributed to the general work of Lavisse and Rambaud; but so much is there condensed into so little space that an amplification is very welcome. Well as he writes, with all the ease and mastery of a good French style, his book can never be popular, for the mass of Eastern names is alone enough to frighten away many readers. Although he uses a most varied set of authorities, from Chinese chronicles to the latest European travellers in Central Asia, he seems to rely chiefly on Turkish sources, writing from an Eastern point of view, interested in and admiring his characters, and not mainly concerned with any possible relations between their actions and the destinies of western Europe. The clearness and decision of his opinions, if distinctly impressive as being based on much learning, in the end provoke criticism. M. Cahun knows too exactly the motives of everybody. We very much doubt whether his native authorities are sufficiently explicit or trustworthy to be a sure foundation for many of his theories, which only too often appear to be the result of mere *a-priori* reasoning, expressed as if there could be no question as to its accuracy.

"The Turks and the Mongols were the intermediaries between the civilization of the Chinese and that of the Persians." We find them first under the name of Hiung-Nu, a general term applied to the barbarian tribes against whom the Great Wall was built, and who, as mercenaries and invaders, played much the same rôle in Chinese history as the Germans at one time in that of the Roman Empire. Gradually they were pushed back until, in the beginning of the Christian era, they were separated into two parts, some driven northwards, while great masses were forced to the west by the Chinese general Panchao, who even reached the Caspian, and was preparing to attack the Parthians when recalled by his Emperor. Under the name of Huns, the mere vanguard of these hordes of wandering Mongolians nearly destroyed western Christendom. In 569 the powerful central Asiatic King of the Tu-kiu, as the Chinese called them, or the Τοῦρχοι, according to the Greeks, sent ambassadors to Justin II. and to the "Son of Heaven" in order "to form an alliance between the two great civilized States, between China of the East and the Ta-Tsin, the great China of the West, the Roman Empire; he and his Turks serving as the intermediary, the man at arms in the pay of the allies." Nothing came of this alliance. For centuries the Sassanid sovereigns of Persia kept back the Turanians to the north of them until they themselves were crushed by the Arab invasion of the followers of the Prophet. This was the chance of the Turks; in large bands or small, as enemies, or more often as mercenaries, they flowed southward; they adopted Mohammedanism; they were the best warriors of the Caliphs, who became puppets in their hands, and finally they founded mighty empires of their own, such as that of Ghuzna, which conquered much of northern India, that of the Seljuks, who overran Asia Minor and Palestine and brought on the crusades.

Meanwhile their distant kin, north of the Great Wall, remained as before, preying on China when she was weak, her vassals when she was strong, until their scattered bands were united by Genghis Khan. This extraordinary man, who was born in 1162, was gifted with a clear cold mind; his ambition was boundless, but he was moderate and cautious in action, while never varying from his purposes, a statesman and an organizer, the first slave to the Yassak or Rule he had created, and which embodied the punctilious bureaucratic spirit that the Mongols probably caught from the Chinese, and that was so unbearable to subject people. Though one of the greatest conquerors the world has ever seen, he made no pretence of being a military genius, but picked out his generals with wonderful discernment. The early career of the future Emperor was arduous enough, for, having lost his father while still a youth, he and his mother had great difficulty in keeping together the warriors attached to the family. Gradually, however, tribe after tribe was overcome by a mixture of force and diplomacy. The Christian Sultan of the Kerait Turks, the Prester John of European legend, was defeated and killed, and in 1206 Genghis Khan, fixing his capital at Karakorum in Mongolia, south of Lake Baikal, proclaimed himself the "Inflexible Emperor." China was at that time divided into two empires, Mantchu in the north, and a purely native in the south. The northern state was attacked in 1210, but did not finally succumb until after a struggle of twenty-four years, at the cost of torrents of bloodshed. While this war was still going on, in 1219, the Mongols assailed, not without provocation, the Turkish empire of Kharesm in Central Asia, and did not rest until they had subdued it. In spite of difficulties and rivalries as to the succession, the death of Ghengis, in 1227, seemed only to increase the momentum of his followers, whose ranks were now swelled by great numbers of their conquered kin. Batu, one grandson of the Inflexible, subjugated Russia and laid waste lands in Central Europe. Kublai, another, as the Great Khan, subdued southern China, while his younger brother, Hulagu, overthrew the Persians and pressed on almost to the Mediterranean, till his progress was checked by the Mamelukes.

In all these conquests M. Cahun insists again and again that the success of the Mongols was owing to their superior generalship and organization, not to the immense numbers credited to them by the frightened chroniclers of the time and accepted even to-day by many historians. "In the thirteenth century in military art it was the Mongols who were civilized, while the barbarians were the people whom they defeated in all due form, thanks to the genius of their generals, the experience of their captains, the discipline of their troops, and not at all to their numbers. Their campaign of 1214 (against Kharesm) was as regular and as well ordered as our classic one of 1805." Certainly the two years' raid of Jebe and Subutai, a generation later, was marvellous enough. Starting with 25,000 cavalry from Samarkand, they tracked the Sultan of Kharesm to his death, passed along south of the Caspian, overthrowing Turks, Persians, Georgians, all who opposed them, crossed the impenetrable Caucasus, crushed or swept before them the nations of the steppe, defeated at the River Kalka a Russian army, whose numbers are given by Karamzin as 82,000 men, pushed on to the Dnieper, then returned tranquilly to the heart of Asia. In the great invasion of Russia nominally commanded by Batu—an easy-going prince very different from what the terrified imagination of the West painted him—but really led by Subutai, according to trustworthy Turkish and Chinese accounts, the Mongols mustered some 150,000 men, most of whom had come from immense distances, and when, later, they divided, they can have had in Poland but about 40,000; in Hungary 60,000 to 80,000 troops. With this by no means overwhelming force, they overran nearly the whole of Russia, which they held in subjection for centuries, and they destroyed "in six weeks all the military strength of Poland, Hungary, and Eastern Germany." The division that swept through Poland, carrying all before them in less than thirty days, defeated a combined army of Slavs and Germans at Liegnitz, then plundered Lusatia, Moravia, and Silesia, scornfully heedless of the army which King Wenzel of Bohemia kept safely in the mountains. The main body in Hungary, after a first success, covered 296 kilometres in less than the three following days—a feat perhaps without parallel in military annals—won a victory on the morrow, driving the enemy into marshes from which but four escaped; and finally, a month later, by splendid manœuvring, defeated a superior army of Hungarians, Germans, Croats, and Western volunteers at Miskolcz, with a loss of thirty to forty thousand men. More extraordinary still, if anything, is the fact that this invading swarm of cavalry, with perhaps a few Chinese engineers and light battering-machines, should have captured every town it seriously besieged from Kiev to the impregnable Gran on the Austrian frontier. The death of Ogdai, the Great Khan, caused Batu to retrace his steps eastward, while Subutai returned to the wars in China, but soon withdrew to die peaceably. "From Corea to Friuli, he had conquered thirty-two nations and won sixty-five pitched battles."

The decline of the Mongol empire was rapid. Under Kublai the capital was removed to Pekin, where the Great Khans and their followers had become Buddhists and Chinese in character; yet within a little over a century they were overthrown by the national movement which brought about the Ming dynasty. The great dependencies to the east were from the first practically independent. They soon adopted Mohammedanism, and the Christians, once so numerous among this most tolerant of races, entirely disappeared. The kingdoms broke up, yet one of them had one more moment of great glory and empire under the famous Timur, with whose reign M. Cahun closes his book. His conclusion, in taking leave of the people for whom he has evidently so much sympathy, is noteworthy. He ascribes their decline to their belief:

"I have pointed out how refractory the Turkish nature is to controversy and theology,

how naturally prone to discipline. In accepting Islam as a state religion, the Turks of Turkestan, of Trans-oxania, of Kharesm, adopted it as a whole without discussion, in a military manner, like a password. During a hundred years the monks and theologians of Bokhara were able to mould their brains at will without being embarrassed by a contradiction, a subtlety, or a simple commentary. Thus the Renaissance in Central Asia was nothing but a renewal of the Middle Ages. While the Europeans, under the spur of Hellenism, and dazzled by the rediscovery of antiquity, were launching boldly out towards the unknown, towards free research, towards revolt, the Asiatics, their equals till the fifteenth century, let themselves docilely be brought back to the School as conceived by the sages of the orthodox Khalif. They discovered as a novelty Aristotle (as deformed by the Arabs), they returned to the 'Amalgest,' they plunged into Avicenna, their compatriot, they began again in Turkish the epoch of the Sassanidæ; they 'marked time,' but never advanced (*ils piétinèrent sur place*). All their intellectual activity, and they had as much as others, spent itself in scholasticism, in jurisprudence, in rhetoric; with great efforts they reconstituted Euclid, Ptolemy, Galen, Hippocrates—they hardly dared touch Plato; to go further would have been to lose themselves. Little by little, with the help of the monks, they came to think only of their salvation and to be content with the Koran."

On Parody. By A. S. Martin. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

DR. JOHNSON had a very low opinion of parody, and so, no doubt, had Wordsworth; the former considered it too easy. But then, nobody ever contended for anything more than that it was an effective and very amusing form of satire. The very greatest writers of all ages have made use of it, and, so long as man retains the capacity of being amused by contrasts, so long he will continue to enjoy parody. Mr. Martin's book consists of an essay on parody, with numerous examples, many of which are good. Going back to the Greeks, and tracing parody down through the Roman and mediæval period to our own time, we find the Greeks and our own race to have been its masters. There is a good deal of mediæval parody that must have made the monks, friars, and priests laugh, but we have to mount to Aristophanes before we find the same kind of travesty that we enjoy so much nowadays. In English literature parody has been the test of fame; with the exception of Shakspere, every serious writer, and especially every serious poet, has had his parodist, often himself a great writer. Throughout English literature, parody is the laughing echo of all serious verse, and in our own time it has become a regular branch of literary business, each new writer possessed of a distinct style being welcomed by a chorus of travesty. This has been for years a specialty of *Punch*. It is surprising how much this book owes to verse contributed to that journal by unknown writers.

Mr. Martin's survey is not by any means complete. He does not seem to know of Sir F. Pollock's extraordinarily clever verse, which certainly deserved mention; we miss also

> "Not a sou had he got, nor a penny or note."

Maginn is cited only for

> "My heart leaps up when I behold
> A bailiff in the street."

Canning's "Needy Knife-grinder" would have been far better than "Despairing beside a clear stream." But the book is full of good examples. We are glad to see some mention made of Mr. James Davis, a writer for the press whose name is far less known than it deserves to be. His parodies were devoted—at least such of them as we remember—to satire of the attempt to found a cult or religion upon agnosticism. His creed, concluding with an avowal of belief in "the disunion of the saints, the survival of the fittest, the persistence of force, the dispersion of the body, and in death everlasting," is the only thing given in full (p. 23). His lines in imitation of Addison's should be, if we remember right:

> "Yon orb which shines to light the Day
> One hundred million miles away,
> Evolved from nebulous creation
> By forces and their correlation,
> Shall keep us whirling in its orbit
> Till force and motion reabsorb it."

A verse is missing from the hymn in praise of the spectroscope: and if his book reaches another edition, we hope Mr. Martin will look up the tract about the good little Positivist boy brought up in an atmosphere of pure agnosticism (being allowed only to read such literature as the above, and to play only with philosophical toys), whom a little Christian boy misled for a time with his wicked Christian books and toys, until in the end the little agnostic caught cold and lay on his death-bed, when, fortunately, his parents were able to rescue him from the depraved influences to which he had sunk a victim, so that the little fellow died with a happy smile on his face murmuring, "Home—home—homeogeneous Evolution."

Animal Symbolism in Ecclesiastical Architecture. By E. P. Evans. With a bibliography and 78 illustrations. Henry Holt & Co. 1896. Pp. xii, 375.

THIS is a book of a class once more common than it is now, for it is rare in these times to see, at least in English, great masses of strange information put together without definite and declared purpose. This is not a history of animal or other symbolism in architecture, ecclesiastical or other, or in mediæval art taken together. There is in it a most entertaining account of the pagan statues, bas-reliefs, and gems which have been taken over into ecclesiastical service by attributing to John the Baptist what originally belonged to Mars, and to the Virgin what had been dedicated to Venus (pp. 306 to 315). The well-known seated statues in the Vatican of the Greek comic poets, Poseidippos and Menandros, were, we are told, adored as saints after their discovery in Rome in the sixteenth century. This is rather a late instance, but such ascriptions were common enough in earlier years. The peacock and the eagle, as the attributes of Juno and Jupiter, are common on the sarcophagi of Emperors and Empresses; hence they were used for Christian tombs; from these they invaded other Christian decoration. Being received as common emblems in Christian art, their presence had to be accounted for, and strange legends are accepted as sufficient explanation. Thus, the peacock's flesh not being subject to decay, it is emblematic of the incorruptible spiritual body. St. Augustine was desirous of ascertaining whether the flesh of the bird had really this unusual property, showing in this a scientific spirit worthy of so great a thinker; and, the legend relates, he found that it was strictly true.

In another part of the book we hear of the wonderful marine bishop who was caught as any mere merman might have been caught in the fifteenth century and in the Northern seas. The ecclesiastical dignitary refused or was unable to speak, but gave its episcopal blessing to its captors when they released it, by the well-known gesture (made, it appears, "with its fin"). The unicorn, with all its strange associations with maidens, by whom alone it can be caught, is of course a favorite attribute of the Virgin, and the picture common in the later middle ages of a unicorn hunted and flying to a maiden as if for shelter is capable of being explained in many different ways. Pearls are drops of dew, which a certain sea-creature, coming to the surface, receives direct from the sky. This legend has also several explanations.

Stories like these, selected from many ancient authorities, or traced in the carvings of the earlier middle ages and in prints of a later time, fill this book from cover to cover. A very full index serves to unlock all its mysteries in their turn. It is as well read by the use of the index as in any other way. For example, we found our curiosity greatly excited by the entry, "Luther, Martin, on the aqueous origin of swallows," and on turning to page 149 read how Luther, in his commentary on Genesis, confirms the text about the waters bringing forth living creatures by pointing out that, even in his time, the swallows lay dormant under water all winter long and emerged every spring, even as they emerged on the fifth day of creation. To any one who desires a large amount of this sort of information, not very successfully organized, this book may be recommended.

The Story of Cuba: Her Struggles for Liberty, the Cause, Crisis, and Destiny of the Pearl of the Antilles. By Murat Halstead. Illustrated. Chicago: The Werner Company. 1896.

MR. HALSTEAD'S volume, apart from the historical portions, has a certain value as the report of a newspaper correspondent who has recently visited Cuba, though the evidence it contains is mainly what lawyers call "cumulative." The author does not seem to have seen anything of the island outside of Havana, nor to have ever been behind the scenes either of the Spanish or the insurrectionary side. We hear, as usual, a great deal about the wrongs and oppressions of the Spaniards, but, owing, no doubt, in great measure to the fact that the rising is not in the hands of political men, no definite explanation is given of what sort of redress is contemplated, beyond emancipation from the Spanish yoke. To all inquiries "Cuba libre!" is the invariable reply, just as it might have been in the time of Bolivar. But the world, having grown older and wiser than it was in Bolivar's time, wants to know now not merely that some one is struggling to be free, but what use he is likely to make of his freedom after he has attained it. On this point the Cubans are absolutely silent, and their present lack of anything like an organized civil government makes it extremely difficult to say even whether they have any political plan. Our politicians, therefore, very kindly answer the question for them by saying that of course Cuba will become part of the United States.

No doubt this would in the end redeem the island, but it would be a frightful piece of work for us. Not only should we have to settle with Spain, for a debt of millions has been heaped up on account of Cuba for which Spain is responsible, but we should add to our domain the country which Mr. Halstead describes—an island nearly the size of England, inhabited by a couple of millions, or less, of blacks and whites, the former only recently freed, and neither race having shown any political qualities, while both are fond of fighting and lawlessness. Outside the cities (Gallenga, in his prophetic 'Pearl of the Antilles,' describes the beginning

of the process) the cultivated territory is relapsing into waste, and, as the present war is a marauding and predatory war, the entire sugar and tobacco "plant," outside the places guarded by troops, is being destroyed. But if we are to consider ourselves as heirs of the property, this fact is not of so much importance as that the place of everything destroyed is being taken by debt, and that the population is composed of very poor materials for self-government. The island is naturally so rich that a few years would repair the waste, but what Senators it would send to Washington, what delegates and alternates to national conventions! Our Southern slaveholders' longing for Cuba was the natural diseased craving for a stimulant adapted to reinvigorate an exhausted social organism; the Southern demagogues' present passion seems to spring from causes quite as unhealthy.

To our mind, Mr. Halstead's facts destroy the arguments suggested by political fancy. The argument from "destiny," however, is unanswerable, and always has been to those who believe in it. Cuba belongs by destiny to the United States, just as Canada and Mexico do, to say nothing of South America; it is also part of destiny that the present owners of these countries should vigorously resist parting with them, so that it will probably be centuries before destiny is accomplished satisfactorily to all parties. Newspaper correspondents, however, occupy themselves much with the future, and we are glad to know from Mr. Halstead that it will all turn out right in the end.

Women in English Life, from Mediæval to Modern Times. By Georgiana Hill, author of 'A History of English Dress.' 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xx, 350-362. London: Richard Bentley & Son; New York: Macmillan.

"THE sixteenth century was England's great literary renaissance. Fresh streams of intellectual life were poured into the nation. There was activity in all departments of thought. The study of poetry, of theology, of the classics went on apace. The printing-press was letting loose floods of knowledge. The tide swept the women of the nobility along in its course."

Seven hundred pages of stale "statements" of this kind do not make a book to be warmly welcomed; and the many chapters, and the countless paragraphs of sentences eight, ten, twelve words long, chopped off with an abrupt full stop, are not easy reading. The truth is, there is no pulse of vitality in these volumes: the deadness of mechanical production pervades them. They contain a mass of information—many masses, rather—but for the most part of a somewhat trivial quality, and which few persons could profitably select from and cook the facts for themselves, while, in its present condition, no literary stomach could digest it. The reader can only regret that so much ability for painstaking has been so misapplied, and that such attractive-looking volumes should contain so little for either an idle or a studious hour. A heap, however large, of unsorted pebbles, even though they may have been brought from a distance, creates only a cairn that does not long detain the steps of the traveller.

The work treats of five "periods." Period I., "Women in the Days of Feudalism," is dismissed in a hundred pages. Period II., "England after the Renaissance," occupies two hundred; Period III., "Life in the Last Century," one hundred and thirty; and Period IV., "Women in the Victorian Era," just twice as many. The longest "periods," the nineteenth century and the seventeenth, are the most readable. The glimpses of the great ladies and city dames of the Stuart ages in their domestic life and in their petitions to Parliament afford some entertainment; but here especially is needed careful information regarding the difference in the value of money then and now, to which the authoress only casually refers, and which constantly bears an important relation to the matters touched upon. The sketches of her contemporaries given by Miss Hill present with praiseworthy impartiality a view of the philanthropic, the professional, the political woman we all know—the *public* woman, the "modern woman." The account of the Primrose League and the Women's Liberal Federation is too short to do more than excite curiosity as to the methods of these organizations; but it succeeds in doing that. Everywhere there is a deplorable lack of accurate references to the "authorities" of the compiler, to her sources of information, which makes it entirely impossible to study "after" her, to "look up" any point of interest in her companionship. There are few glaring mistakes. One occurs in vol. ii., p. 17, where Horace Walpole is spoken of as the *brother* (not the son) of Sir Robert Walpole.

Strikes and Social Problems. By J. Shield Nicholson. Macmillan & Co. 1896.

THE title of this book is not very well chosen. It suggests that we are to consider the relation of strikes to other phenomena in the industrial world; but this is only partly true. What we have here is really a collection of essays on a number of interesting subjects—essays which have little more unity than what comes from being bound within the same covers. Nevertheless, they are so meritorious as to be worth reading by economists, and to deserve the careful attention of thinking people in general. Their distinguishing mark is common sense—not the distinguishing mark of a good deal of the recent writing on economic subjects—and they are extremely clear and simple in statement. Their significance from the economic point of view is their decorous but unmistakable repudiation of the socialistic tendencies that have largely prevailed in England since Mill and Cairnes passed away. It is high time for protest of this kind, and Prof. Nicholson will find plenty of people ready to be converted.

We can mention but a few of the fallacies which have had much popularity with this generation, and which Prof. Nicholson punctures. It has been so vehemently asserted as to be commonly believed that the rise of wages during the last fifty years has been due to the trade unions. Trade unions have insisted that wages should be raised, and wages have risen; that has established the relation of cause and effect for many people in England, just as the tariff is held to be the efficient force in this country. Prof. Nicholson points out that these unions have not invented machines, or opened markets, or extended credit. They have probably, on the whole, diminished production and discouraged enterprise; and if they follow the leaders that are now most prominent, they will seriously interfere with commercial prosperity. So of the "living-wage" theory. Prof. Nicholson says flatly that to suppose that any class of laborers can obtain higher wages by refusing to work for lower wages is a gross and mischievous fallacy, and he supports his assertion by sufficient proofs. Combination is futile to effect it except when competition would effect it. And, after all the abuse that has been heaped upon competition, it is the great preserver of freedom and promoter of equality.

We cannot follow the arguments with which Prof. Nicholson disposes of the philosophers of the Fabian school, or exposes the shallow critics of the great economists of former days. We must content ourselves with general praise of his methods and specific commendation of the essay on the "Reality of Industrial Progress," that on the "Classical Political Economy," and the "Plea for Industrial Liberty." Altogether, the book is wholesome and stimulating in a high degree, and time spent in reading it is time well spent.

The Sun. By C. A. Young, Ph.D., LL.D. New and revised edition. Appletons.

THIS popular work, originally published fifteen years ago, has already passed through four or five editions, in which it has been kept measurably up to date by the expedient of notes and appendices. But during this fertile period the advances in our knowledge have been so great as to necessitate a thorough rewriting. Past investigations upon the sun's distance have been so corrected that one can now rely upon the round value 93,000,000 miles, and a corresponding parallax a trifle less than 8″.8, with practical certainty that no subsequent research within the next quarter century can displace it. Dr. Gill of Cape Town and Prof. Newcomb of Washington have mainly contributed to this result. Prof. Young makes, however, a very proper reservation as to the embarrassment of the aberration method due to the newly found fluctuation of terrestrial latitudes; and it is altogether probable that our next noteworthy improvement in the sun's distance will come from a research taking full account of this perplexing variation. So thoroughly at home is Prof. Young in all the varied lines of solar work that one need fear no inaccuracy in his account of the labors of others. His presentation of recent advances in photography of the solar spectrum embraces a new and interesting plate of the great Princeton spectroscope; and proper regard is paid to Prof. Rowland's epoch-making work at the Johns Hopkins University (dating from about 1890, and now everywhere accepted as the standard), to the extraordinary clearness and beauty of execution which characterize the detailed photographic maps of Mr. Higgs of Liverpool, and to the excellent maps of the late M. Thollon of Nice, showing the varying appearance of the spectrum corresponding to different altitudes of the sun. The presence of known terrestrial elements in the sun has been very fully investigated by Prof. Rowland in the last few years, and he can thus far reckon with certainty about forty elements. Iridium, platinum, tungsten, uranium, and a few others are doubtful; chlorine, fluorine, iodine, and bromine are among those not yet tried by Prof. Rowland; while antimony, gold, phosphorus, mercury, sulphur, and about ten others less prominent are not yet found in the sun. But, as Prof. Rowland has himself remarked, his failure to find them is very little evidence of their absence from the sun itself. Two other elements require especial notice from their manifestation of bright lines—coronium, not yet traced to earth; and helium, finally identified by Ramsay last year, in connection with his researches upon argon, discovered by Lord Rayleigh and himself as a hitherto unrecognized constituent of our atmosphere. Helium, it has been found, can be obtained from nearly all the uranium minerals, in some instances

commingled with argon and in others nearly pure. Meteoric iron contains it, also the waters of certain mineral springs in the Pyrenees and the Black Forest; indeed, as Prof. Young says, it turns out to be very widely distributed, although only in very small quantities, and probably never free. But whether the new element is really elementary or a double compound is not yet known, and this question is still under investigation by Runge of Berlin and other leading spectroscopists, who have found that the lines of its spectrum divide into two sets mathematically independent of each other.

Perhaps the most remarkable recent advances in methods of solar research are due to Prof. Hale of the University of Chicago, whose ingenious spectro-heliograph receives full elucidation at the hands of Prof. Young. Nor are the pictorial results obtained with it neglected, whether they be faculæ, which Prof. Hale was the first to photograph in belts across the sun's disk, similar to those in which the ordinary dark spots occur, or the protuberances which he (followed by Deslandres of Paris) now photographs at any time by monochromatic light, at any or all parts of the sun's limb where they may show themselves.

We can hardly afford space for even mention of all the modern researches sufficiently treated by Prof. Young; but we have detected no omission on his part. Not only are all observational results dealt with, like Howlett's faithful thirty-five-year spot series recently completed, but the speculative theories of Brester and Schmidt receive that fair and careful treatment which their authors deserve, although neither of these theories can be said to commend itself in all particulars to practical students of solar physics. Also, we must pass by the late determinations of the effective temperature of the sun's surface, equal to about 14,000 degrees Fahrenheit, by Le Chatelier and Wilson independently, and Hale's repeated but unsuccessful attempts to photograph the sun's corona without an eclipse. But no modern solar research has aroused intenser interest than Prof. Langley's investigations of the infra-red portion of the solar spectrum through a highly sensitive heat-measurer of his own invention. His most recent achievement with this instrument is an ingenious method, accessory to it, by which all the rapid fluctuations of the tract in question are automatically photographed in a form precisely comparable with the upper portions of the spectrum as ordinarily recorded. We have now, indeed, a complete chart of this invisible heat spectrum ten times as long as the sun's entire luminous spectrum, and there are indications of heat even farther below the red. So sensitive is this delicate instrument that a change of temperature no greater than the millionth part of a degree centigrade is detectible. But the explanation of the geometrical arrangement of the lines in this invisible spectrum is a work hardly yet begun.

A typographic inaccuracy here and there, as Burckhardt for Burckhalter (p. 253); and a slip as to the residence of Bigelow of the Signal Service, Washington, needs correction in a subsequent issue, which the great importance of the subject and the rapid growth of solar investigation will early render necessary.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

America and Europe: A Study of International Relations. Putnams. 75c.
Becke, Louis, and Jeffery, Walter. A First-Fleet Family. Macmillan. $1.50.
Clark, Imogen. The Victory of Ezry Gardner. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75c.
Delitzsch, Prof. F. Assyrisches Handwörterbuch. Vierter (Schluss) Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
Fenn, G. M. The Tiger Lily: A Story of a Woman. Cassell. 50c.
Fuller, Anna. A Venetian June. Putnams. $1.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Vicar of Wakefield. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50c.
Hardy, Thomas. Wessex Tales. Harpers. $1.50.
Hichens, R. S. The Folly of Eustace, and Other Stories. Appletons. 75c.
Honor Ormthwaite: A Novel. Harpers. $1.
Hooper, Emma M. Home Dressmaking Made Easy. New York: The Economist Press.
Hume, Fergus. The Dwarf's Chamber, and Other Stories. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Hutton, W. H. King and Baronage. [Oxford Manuals of English History.] Scribners. 50c.
Hutton, W. H. Philip Augustus. Macmillan. 75c.
Knapp, Mary C. Whose Soul Have I Now? *Arena* Publishing Co.
Knight, William. Poetical Works of William Wordsworth. Vol. IV. Macmillan. $1.50.
Knowles, R. G., and Morton, Richard. Baseball. [The "Oval" Series of Games.] London: George Routledge & Sons.
Kobbé, Gustav. My Rosary, and Other Poems. G. H. Richmond Co.
Koch, Richert von. Camilla: A Novel. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Malone, Walter. Songs of December and June. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Marchmont, A. W. Parson Thring's Secret. Cassell. 50c.
McCarthy, Justin. The Riddle Ring. Appletons.
Michel, André. Notes sur l'Art Moderne (Peinture). Paris: Colin & Cie.
Mitchell, C. A. The Evolution of Bird-Song; with Observations on Heredity and Imitation. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Molloy, J. F. The Most Gorgeous Lady Blessington. 4th ed. 2 vols. Scribners. $4.
Morris, William O'Connor. Ireland, 1494–1868. With two introductory chapters. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.60.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Deuteronomy. [The Modern Reader's Bible.] Macmillan. 50c.
Palmer, Prof. Arthur. Catulli Veronensis Liber. [Parnassus Library.] Macmillan. $1.10
Philios, Démétrios. Eleusis, ses Mystères, ses Ruines et son Musée. Athens; Anestis Constantinides.
Pinsent, Ellen F. No Place for Repentance. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Poetical Sermons: A Thank-Offering of Song. Brooklyn: W. E. Davenport.
Robertson, C. G. The Making of the English Nation. [Oxford Manuals of English History.] Scribners. 50c.
Rogers, R. C. Will o' the Wasp: A Sea Yarn of the War of '12. Putnams. $1.25.
Rolfe, W. J. The Coming of Arthur, and Other Idylls of the King. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 75c.
Ross, E. G. History of the Impeachment of Andrew Johnson. Santa Fé: New Mexican Printing Co.
Salt, H. S. Life of Henry David Thoreau. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. $1.
Savage, R. H. Checked Through. Rand, McNally & Co. 50c.
Say, Léon. Les Finances. [La Vie Nationale.] Paris: Léon Chailley.
Schmid, C. A. Beiträge zur Geschichte der gewerblichen Arbeit in England während der letzten 50 Jahre. Jena: Gustav Fischer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Sharp, Elizabeth A. Lyra Celtica. Edinburgh: Geddes; New York: Scribners. $2.25.
Shelton, Thomas. The History of Don Quixote. [Tudor Translations.] Vols. i., ii. London: David Nutt.
Stecher, W. A. Text-Book of the German-American System of Gymnastics. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Stories by English Authors: Italy. Africa. Scribners. Each 75c.
Thacher, J. B. The Continent of America: Its Discovery and its Baptism. W. E. Benjamin. $25.
Thayer, Prof. J. B. Evidence at the Common Law. Part I. Development of Trial by Jury. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Weber, Prof. Alfred. History of Philosophy. From the fifth French edition. Scribners. $2.50.

Francke's Social Forces in German Literature.

A Study in the History of Civilization. By KUNO FRANCKE, Assistant Professor in Harvard University. $2 *net*.

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Judson's The Latin in English.

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ERRATA.

Page 79, col. i, line 46. For "Collector of the Port of Georgetown" read "Comptroller of Customs of the Colony."

Page 101, col. iii, line 2. For "radiometer" read "vacuum tube."

Page 187, col. ii, line 27, from bottom. For "Yale College" read "De Pauw University."

Page 201, col. iii, line 19 from bottom. For "Renunciation" read "Renouncement"

Page 242, col. iii, line 16 18 from bottom. Dele sentence beginning "The Act of Settlement."

Page 396, col. ii, line 39. For "*cadeat*" read "*cadat*."

Page 438, col. ii, line 34. For "Sedgwick Minot" read "Minot Sedgwick," and "Sedgwick" for "Minot" throughout the paragraph.

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